## Student Cognitive and Affective Development in the Context of Classroom-level Curriculum Development

Saad Fathy Shawer, Deanna Gilmore, and Susan Rae Banks-Joseph<sup>1</sup>

Abstract: This qualitative study examined the impact of teacher curriculum approaches (curriculum-transmitter/ curriculum-developer/ curriculummaker) on student cognitive change (reading, writing, speaking, and listening abilities) and their affective change (motivation and interests). This study's conceptual framework was grounded in teacher curriculum development (Ben-Peretz 1990; Remillard 1999; Craig 2006), curriculum implementation (Snyder, Bolin, and Zumwalt 1992; Randolph, Duffy, and Mattingly 2007), curriculum-making (Clandinin and Connelly 1992; Doyle 1992; Shawer 2003), student cognitive and affective change (Erickson and Schultz 1992; Craig 2001) and social constructivism (Vygotsky 1978; Wells 1999; Terwel 2005). The study made use of the qualitative paradigm at the levels of ontology (multiple curriculum realities, Jackson 1992), epistemology (interaction with rather than detachment from respondents) and methodology (idiographic methodology and instruments) (Guba and Lincoln 1994; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2000). Research design involved qualitative evaluation (Clarke 1999) as the research strategy and general interviews, pre- and postlesson interviews, group interviews and participant observation. Grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Strauss and Corbin 1998) was the data analysis approach. Based on work with English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and mixed-nationality college students, the results indicated that classroom-level curriculum development improved student learning and motivation; whilst curriculum-transmission did not result in significant student learning or increase their motivation. The study provides recommendations for curriculum and school development and future research.

Keywords: Effective learning, motivation, classroom-level curriculum development, cognitive styles and strategies, constructivism.

Teachers adopt a fidelity, mutual-adaptation or enactment approach when they implement curriculum, where those adopting the fidelity approach are curriculum-transmitters who just deliver curriculum materials. In contrast, teachers following the adaptation approach are curriculum-developers who undertake curriculum adjustments; whereas those who enact curriculum act as curriculum-makers who achieve significant curriculum changes (Snyder, Bolin, and Zumwalt 1992). Although the difference itself has no importance, each approach involves different implications for student, teacher, curriculum and school development (Craig 2006; Schultz and Oyler 2006). On one hand, different curriculum approaches can turn the official curriculum into something different from the taught curriculum (Doyle 1992; Randolph, Duffy, and Mattingly 2007). On the other hand, they impact differently on teachers' professional development, since each approach entails different roles and opportunities (Schön 1983; Munby 1990; Parker 1997; Eisner 2002; Craig

4

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Department of Teaching and Learning, Washington State University, College of Education, PO Box 642132, Pullman, WA 99164-2132, USA, saadsaad71@yahoo.com/saadshawer@wsu.edu; and sbanks@wsu.edu; Department of Curriculum and Instruction, the University of Idaho, College of Education, Moscow, Idaho, 83844, USA, dgilmore@uidaho.edu.

2006). Moreover, teacher curriculum approaches directly impact student learning and motivation (Schön 1983; Eisner 1990; Erickson and Shultz 1992; Wells 1999; King 2002; Shawer 2006a). Although the implications of different curriculum approaches are equally worth investigating, this study sought to solely assess their impact on students' cognitive change (learning) in reading, writing, listening and speaking abilities; and on their affective change (motivation). Therefore, this paper will include a: (I) conceptual framework, (II) description of the research design,(III) summary of major findings, (IV) discussion, and (V) recommendations for research and practice.

## I. Conceptual Framework.

## A. Classroom-Level Curriculum Development.

The 'fidelity' approach suggests curriculum as 'a course of study, a textbook series, a guide, a set of teacher plans' (Snyder et al. 1992: 427), where experts define curriculum knowledge for teachers. This means that curriculum change occurs through a central model in systematic stages, which confines the teacher's role to delivering curriculum materials. Shawer (2003) indicated that the fidelity approach leads teachers to become curriculum-transmitters who use the student's book as the only source of instructional content. They transmit textbook content as its structure dictates by means of linear unit-by-unit, lesson-by-lesson and page-by-page strategies. Neither do they use 'adaptation' strategies to adjust curriculum to their context; nor do they employ 'skipping' strategies to eliminate irrelevant studying units, lessons or tasks. Moreover, these teachers rarely supplement the missing elements and focus solely on covering content without responding to classroom dynamics.

The 'adaptation' approach is a 'process whereby adjustments in a curriculum are made by curriculum developers and those who use it in the school' (Snyder et al. 1992:410). This involves conversations between teachers and external developers to adapt curriculum for local needs. This approach does not suggest curriculum knowledge different from the fidelity approach, since experts still define it, but curriculum change has become more flexible through mutual adaptations. The teacher's role has also become more active through teachers' curriculum adjustments. Shawer (2003) noted that though the adaptation and curriculum-development approaches involve adaptations into the official curriculum; the development approach does not involve communications between external developers and teachers regarding teachers' adaptations. Through curriculum adjustments, teachers become curriculum-developers who use various sources in addition to curriculum materials. They adapt existing materials and topics, add new topics, leave out irrelevant elements, use flexible lesson plans, respond to student differences and use various teaching techniques.

The development approach reflects Cohen and Ball's (1999:2) notion of instructional capacity that results from 'the interactions among teachers and students around curriculum materials', where 'teachers' knowledge, experience, and skills affect the interactions of students and materials in ways that neither students nor materials can' (p.4). This way, Cohen and Ball echoed Doyle (1992) who indicated that through this interaction teachers turn curriculum from the institutional into the pedagogical level (experienced/ enacted curriculum). On the other hand, Ben-Peretz (1990) and Remillard (1999) refer to this interaction as teacher curriculum development that occurs at two levels. At level one, curriculum experts translate skills, knowledge, concepts and values into curriculum materials. This version has been termed the paper (Munby 1990), intended (Westbury 1983; Eisner 1990), and official curriculum (Pollard and Triggs 1997). Teachers develop the second version by using curriculum materials, termed as curriculum-in-use (Munby 1990) and the

enacted curriculum (Doyle 1992). The curriculum development (adaptation) approach is, therefore, considered one form of classroom-level curriculum development.

The 'enactment' approach sets curriculum as a process 'jointly created and jointly and individually experienced by students and teacher' (Snyder et al. 1992:428). Curriculumknowledge is no longer a product as in the fidelity and adaptation approaches, but ongoing constructions out of 'the enacted experiences... [that] students and teacher create' (p.410). External knowledge is 'viewed as a resource for teachers who create curriculum as they engage in the ongoing process of teaching and learning in the classroom.' Moreover, 'it is they and their students who create the enacted curriculum.' In addition, curriculum change is neither about implementing nor even adapting curriculum, but 'a process of growth for teachers and students, a change in thinking and practice' (p.429). The teacher's role ranges from using, adapting and supplementing external curriculum to curriculum-making (Connelly and Clandinin 1988; Clandinin and Connelly 1992, 1998; Craig 2006). The teachers have become curriculum-makers who assess students' needs to derive curriculum themes, use strategies of curriculum-planning, curriculum-design, material-writing and curriculum-free topics. In addition, they improvise and develop and use their pedagogic techniques. The curriculum-making approach (enactment) also represents another form of classroom-level curriculum development (Shawer 2003).

## B. Constructivism, Classroom-Level Curriculum Development and Student Learning.

Classroom-level curriculum development reflects constructivist principles of active learning, interaction between thought and experience, sequential construction of more complex cognitive schemas and student experiences, understanding, interests and needs (Piaget 1955; Vygotsky 1962, 1978; Wells 1999; Terwel 1999, 2005). Piaget's individualistic constructivism, however, does not concur much with classroom curriculum development; assuming learners' maturation enough to pursue learning through accommodating existing schema and assimilating new experiences (Piaget 1951, 1967, 1972). This gives little role to the social interaction between teachers and learners (Richardson 1997).

Vygotsky's (1978:86) social constructivism, based on zone of proximal development, concurs with this approach; allowing teachers to explore 'the distance between the [students'] actual developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.' This gives teachers greater and vital roles in enhancing students' learning (Eisner 1990) through content structuring and representation (Bruner 1978). In contrast, the transmission-approach 'promotes neither the interaction between prior and new knowledge nor the conversations... necessary for internalisation and deep understanding. The information acquired... is usually not well integrated with other knowledge held by the students' (Richardson 1997:3). These behaviourist principles restrict learning to mechanical associations between thought and behaviour, hardly promote critical and creative learning and emphasise content coverage and memorization than understanding. Learning is no longer a simplistic stimulus, response and reinforcement formula in contexts of dominant teachers and passive learners (Pollard and Triggs 1997; Shawer 2006b).

## C. Cognitive Change (Learning) and Classroom-Level Curriculum Development.

Cognitive change is the development that occurs in the learners' cognitive schema (Shawer 2006b), which relies mostly on teaching and learning. Both are context-bound terms and therefore can mean different things. Teaching generally means 'any conscious activity by one person [or more] designed to enhance learning in another [or others]' (Watkins and

Mortimore 1999:3). In its narrowest sense, learning is the cognitive change that results from formal teaching. A broader definition suggests learning as any development that occurs to learners, including cognitive, affective and others. Learning, therefore, can mean getting, memorising and reproducing knowledge, acquiring and applying procedures and a personal growth. This is where the difference between curriculum-transmitters and developers is significant. Curriculum-transmitters conceptualise learning as just getting more knowledge, memorising and reproducing; whilst curriculum-developers perceive it as a personal growth. According to Siraj-Blatchford (1999), the former involves transmission and promotes rote learning, whereas the latter encourages active construction of knowledge that results in meaningful learning.

Effective learning depends on differentiation of learning experiences, content relevance and linking prior schema to new learning (Bruner 1978). Effective learning occurs when teachers provide students with varied learning experiences falling within their abilities (Tyler 1949). This requires teachers to know their students so that they can address their differences. Curriculum-developers address student differences by providing relevant content, since 'teacher decisions about what content to present probably have a substantial effect on the pattern of student achievement' (Floden, Porter, Schmidt, and Freeman 1981:129). When curricula meet the relevance criterion, effective learning can occur. Dewey (1938:27) termed this curriculum continuity. 'Continuity of experience means that every experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after.' This means 'we do something to the thing and then it does something to us in return' (Dewey 1916:163). Teachers can achieve curriculum continuity by building on learners' sorties. For instance, writing can be taught by asking learners to 'write and respond to letters written by their classmates about individual struggles they are having' (Hytten 2000:462). Curriculum continuity fleshes out classroom-level curriculum development.

Children's... experiences are tremendously valuable resources for education. Our role as teachers is to build upon these experiences and to create an environment where students can make connections to other experiences, construct personal meaning out of what they are learning and become open to new possibilities for growth... Their experiences need to be taken seriously and woven integrally into the curriculum... There must exist continuity between the child and the curriculum in order for learning and growth to occur. (Hytten 2000:460)

Curriculum-developers enhance students' cognition not only at the knowledge level with which curriculum-transmitters are concerned, but also at the comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation levels. They provide facts and principles and develop learners' cognition further by helping them to understand the knowledge they acquired. They also enable students to apply abstract learning to concrete situations and break down learning tasks into their component parts through recognising the underpinning elements, relationships and principles. They help learners to synthesise separate parts into a new whole, and to use internal and external evidence and criteria to evaluate things (Bloom 1956).

The impact of the three approaches on student learning is best highlighted by using a metaphor comparing curriculum-transmission to a frozen lunch. The curriculum-transmitters' role is to get lunch (curriculum) and heat it (instruction) for learners who have to finish the meal in the allocated time. 'It is not the teacher's responsibility (nor the students') to decide what or how long mealtime should be.' Students eating less are directed to a meal broken down into smaller pieces (remedial teaching); whilst those eating quickly receive better meals (gifted programmes) (Erickson and Shultz 1992:467). All students compete to eat more by learning 'to beat the system by optimising to the measures of performance, discovering how to pass tests, get grades and move through the levels of the system, without thinking very

much about the knowledge they are supposed to be acquiring' (Schön 1983:332). This shows the negative impact of curriculum-transmission on learners who either refuse to learn at all (eat from the meal) and cause trouble (objection), or pretend to learn but rarely internalise what is delivered. Learning has become just for exams. In contrast, curriculum-developers are good cooks who provide a meal matching student tastes; without them, the meal would not be tasty. This tasty meal (curriculum) is fully assimilated (learning), since students took the time to make it and determined how much to cook and eat (Erickson and Shultz 1992).

Curriculum-developers treat each group of students differently by acknowledging their learning style as 'an individual's preferred and habitual approach to organising and representing information' (Riding and Rayner 1998:15). Learners have differences in style, like wholistic, analytic, verbal, or imagery. Wholistic learners prefer to organise learning tasks into wholes, whereas analytic learners organise information into parts. On the other hand, verbal learners prefer to represent information verbally, whilst imagery learners represent it in mental images. Curriculum-transmitters cannot address style differences with their uniform approach, whilst curriculum-developers create learning contexts consonant with different cognitive styles (Klein 2003). Foreign language teachers, for example, can provide auditory learners, who prefer to learn through listening, with relevant listening texts. In addition, they can supply visual-style students, who learn better through seeing written language, with the appropriate input. Analytic students, who prefer to break down tasks, and holistic learners who learn better through whole chunks of language, require teachers to address their particular styles. Kinaesthetic students preferring to learn through doing things and physical movements learn better when their preferences are addressed. Field-dependent students need to learn in a context allowing them to listen to a teacher or peer tutor, whilst field-independent learners need opportunities to be autonomous (Tomlinson 1998).

If cognitive style is the psychological make-up that makes learners prefer to approach learning in particular fixed and habitual ways rather than others (Meehan 2006), cognitive strategies are the mental operations learners perform to process learning tasks incompatible with their habitual cognitive style (Shawer 2003). Some students prefer to deal with words rather than numerals, because they were born with a verbal cognitive processor. When faced with abstract tasks including numerals, they need to develop strategies that enable them to learn the mathematical task that they do not normally like to handle. Part of curriculum-developers' work is to address this through their curriculum developments. Doing so, they change the paper curriculum into the pedagogical/enacted curriculum (Doyle 1992).

Learner strategies involve the operations and steps learners use to facilitate information processing (cognitive strategies), and what they do to plan, organise and monitor learning (meta-cognitive strategies). Both influence the course and rate of learning: Cognitive strategies are the 'steps or mental operations used in learning or problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials in order to store, retrieve, and use knowledge' (Wenden 1986:10). Cognitive strategies involve asking questions, checking, revising, self-testing (Riding and Rayner 1998), analogy, memorization, repetition, writing things down, and inference (Hedge 2000). Meta-cognitive strategies are 'general skills through which learners manage, direct, regulate, and guide their learning, i.e. planning, monitoring and evaluating' (Wenden 1998:519). These involve over-viewing, paying attention, setting goals and objectives, organising, and self-monitoring (Hedge 2000). A pedagogical curriculum puts both strategies at the centre.

## D. Affective Change and Classroom-Level Curriculum Development.

Affective change is the positive development in student motivation and interests (Shawer 2006b). Curriculum-developers motivate students through addressing their needs,

wants and interests. A 'need' is a malfunction occurring to a human-being because of missing the whole or part of something; but needs are different. 'Basic' needs are those which learners cannot do without. For example, learners must learn how to read and write regardless of their preferences. 'Discrepancy' needs show the discrepancy between what is and what should be. For example, learners can read, but their unsatisfactory performance needs to be improved from a low level (poor readers) to a desired one (good readers) (Pratt 1980). When teachers ignore students' needs, they see their course irrelevant and subsequently lose motivation (Shawer 2006b).

Wants differ from needs as these relate to what people like or dislike. For example, learners may dislike arithmetic but need it. Similarly, some people like smoking but do not need it. Although wants can be ignored without disrupting learning, curriculum-developers plan teaching around what learners like, to increase motivation. Interests involve students' readiness or tendency to approach learning. For example, learners may be interested in fashion around which learning situations could be built, but it is not a need. Creating student interest in learning is a key factor to effective learning (Pratt 1980; Scriven 1991). Motivation is a key factor for effective teaching and learning, because motivation makes people do what they do. When students are motivated, their behaviour is directed toward a specific target, and is very much purposive (Gross 1996). Teachers develop curriculum to enable students to consciously and willingly tackle learning tasks, to actively respond to them with willingness and commitment and to evaluate them (Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia 1964).

Previous research in the field of language teaching indicated that teachers who made curriculum adaptations helped their students improve in reading, writing, speaking and listening, motivated them and created their interest in classroom learning. In contrast, material transmission neither motivated nor improved their language learning (Woods 1991; Cuban 1992; Pennington 1995; Hargreaves 1997; Kamhi-Stein and Galvan 1997; Musa 1997; Rahmah 1997; Roelfs and Terwel 1999; Gahin 2001; Craig 2001; Shawer 2001).

Cross-subject research reached similar results in Mathematics (Heaton 1993; Remillard 1999; Spillane 1999); Science (Brickhouse 1990; Gess-Newsome and Lederman 1995; Lee 1995; Saez and Carretero 1998); Social Studies (Marker and Mehlinger 1992), Physical Education (Kirk and MacDonald 2001) and Religion (Shkedi 1996, 1998). Though assessing learning outcomes have always been the focus of psychologists and educators, research did not assess the impact of teachers' curriculum approaches on student cognitive and affective change. Previous research, however, made the above sporadic and unfocused references to the positive impact of teacher curriculum adaptations on student learning and motivation. This study, therefore, aimed to assess the impact of teacher curriculum approaches on student cognitive change/learning in terms of reading, writing, speaking, and listening; and on their affective change (motivation). Precisely, it sought to answer the following research questions:

- □ What is the impact of the teacher curriculum-developer, curriculum-maker and curriculum-transmitter approach on students' cognitive change?
- □ What is the impact of the teacher curriculum-developer, curriculum-maker and curriculum-transmitter approach on students' affective change?

## II. Research Design.

## A. Paradigm and Strategy.

Because different teachers and students conceptualise and experience curriculum differently, the study used the qualitative paradigm to assess the impact of different taught curricula on students (Englund 1997). This guided the research ontological perspective to be

(multiple curriculum realities, Jackson 1992) and epistemological stance as (interaction with rather than detachment from respondents) (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Qualitative evaluation was used to assess the impact of teacher curriculum approaches on student learning and motivation; because evaluation is a key strategy in assessing the effectiveness of instructional methods, curriculum materials, educators and students (Rossi and Freeman 1982; Stecher 1987; Patton 1990; Clarke 1999). The study sought to assess such impact 'through the analysis of spoken words, texts... [and] observable behaviour' (Shaw and Lishman 1999:63), to use the resulting information for assessing and improving future classroom practices.

College directors introduced the primary researcher to teachers who were briefed of the study's purpose, confidentiality and anonymity (Robson 1993; Sapsford and Abbott 1996; Cresswell 1998). They set a timetable for fieldwork ranging between three to four months. Purposive sampling was employed to assess the impact of different curriculum approaches on students (Denscombe 1998; Burns 2000). The initial sample was decided to be six English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers who depart from curriculum materials. This involved two trained (EFL qualifications) and experienced teachers (more than three years). Two trained teachers but having no experience (less than two months) had to be selected to compare the impact of experience. Two experienced teachers having no training were also needed to compare the training impact.

Theoretical sampling changed and broadened the scope of the sample, in line with the emerging themes, into three sets of teachers (Strauss and Corbin 1998): *Curriculum-transmitters*: teachers who deliver prescribed curriculum materials and topics (the student's textbook and the teacher's guide) without introducing new materials or topics and without making significant changes or adaptations. *Curriculum-developers*: teachers who develop curriculum through prescribed curriculum materials and topics; introduce new materials and topics and make significant curriculum changes and adaptations (original sample). *Curriculum-makers*: teachers who develop curriculum without reference to official curriculum materials and topics.

The primary researcher started with *three* teachers whom he originally selected as trained and experienced in EFL teaching; and who usually used and developed curriculum materials (according to his initial sampling strategy). Only one teacher met the criteria of initial sampling, whereas the other two tended to develop curriculum without using curriculum materials. They used the needs assessment strategy to derive the curriculum topics. He found a third of this type. Data analysis from these teachers prompted him to categorize them as 'curriculum-makers'. We remember the primary researcher had one teacher left from the first three whom he started with, who met the initial sampling criteria. More teachers were needed. He found five who through interviews met the criteria of initial sampling, but classroom observation showed that only four of them were a match. These four teachers, in addition to the one we had earlier, were termed 'curriculum-developers'. The fifth teacher who was different from the five teachers closely transmitted textbook content. Her unique approach prompted the researcher to study this different category of teachers. Again, more teachers were needed to reach compelling evidence and to allow for comparison. Only one was found. This and the other teacher (1+1) were termed 'curriculum-transmitters'.

Consequently, we had three teachers who developed curriculum without using official curriculum materials (*curriculum-makers*); five who developed curriculum through development and use of prescribed materials (*curriculum-developers*); and two textbook teachers who made no curriculum developments (*curriculum-transmitters*).

#### B. Data Collection.

Teacher interviews, group interviews and participant observation were used in collecting the research data. Teacher interviews involved general and pre/ post-lesson interviews. General interviews (appendix 1) were to identify the impact of teacher curriculum approaches on students. Interviews were semi-structured to explore issues, probe for and follow up on the responses and to allow for interaction (Kvale 1996; Blaikie 2000). Prelesson interviews (appendix 2) aimed to identify the topic and objectives of everyday teaching. Post-lesson interviews were to allow teachers to comment on the impact of everyday's lesson on students' learning and motivation. Group interviews (appendix 3) were to compare teachers and students' perceptions of the impact of the teacher curriculum approaches on students (Watts and Ebbutt 1987; Morgan 1988; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2000). General interviews took between 65 and 80 minutes, whereas pre- and post-lesson interviews ranged between three and twenty minutes. All took place in each teacher's college,

Interview trustworthiness (validity) and dependability (reliability) were checked in several ways. They were first transcribed verbatim (Kvale 1996) and content validated by 10 experienced teachers who made modifications to the questions in wording and number (Bloom, Fischer, and Orme 1995). Four educational researchers ensured that the questions addressed the research purpose. Interviews were piloted and further modifications were made. Further developments in the research focus introduced changes to the interview schedule (Cohen et al 2000). Participant observation was to depict the context where teachers constructed curriculum, validate meanings and capture the interactions (Yin 1994). Each teacher was observed between 15 to 22 times. Narrative records and tape-recordings of observations were made (Stake 1995). Observational data were validated and checked for dependability through methodological triangulation, where observations and interviews gathered the same information (Cohen et al 2000). The teachers endorsed our results after validating and checking them for themselves (Denscombe 1998; Davies 1999).

## C. Data Analysis.

Grounded theory was to generate theory in a process of open, axial and selective coding. Open coding included line-by-line, whole-paragraph and whole-document analyses which resulted in: naming concepts and developing categories and properties (Corbin and Strauss 1990). Concept development involved 'in-vivo', 'abstracting' and 'borrowing from the literature'. In-vivo concepts were taken from the respondents' words, like 'change of college'. Through abstracting, events were named on the basis of what understood from the data, like 'objection'. Borrowing from the literature occurred when the data matched a 'literature' concept that 'worked' and 'fitted', like 'dropping-out'. The data were then searched and whatever matched a concept was named after it. Categories were developed through connecting related concepts under a wider concept, like `boredom`, `objection` and `change of classroom` were grouped under the `negative impact of curriculum approach` category. Properties were a group of concepts delimiting one category. Axial coding involved grouping sub-categories around one axis, like 'positive impact of curriculum approach' and ' negative impact of curriculum approach' fell under 'impact of curriculum approach'. In selective coding, categories were refined, connected together and integrated in a coherent theory reflecting and subsuming all elements of analysis (Strauss and Corbin 1998).

## D. Context of the EFL curriculum.

This section highlights teachers' context who worked in three different international language centres (colleges). The categories developed from the analysis were used to present the data around teacher experience and class population, teacher training, teacher development; curriculum framework, and student grouping.

Teacher experience and class population: Mark, Linda, Carol, Leslie and Mary worked in Centre One. Mary was in her forties and taught EFL for eight years. Her intermediate level class included 11 females and six males. Mark was in his thirties and taught EFL for three years. His classroom comprised 10 upper-intermediate students, four males and six females. Leslie was in her fourth decade and taught EFL for 10 years. Her intermediate level class had nine females and eight males. Linda was also in her forties and taught EFL for eight years. Her advanced class comprised eight males and seven females. Carol (also forty-years old) taught EFL for 11 years. Her pre-advanced class comprised seven males and eight females.

Terry and Shelly who were in their fifties worked in Centre Two. Terry taught EFL for nine years. His upper-intermediate class comprised 16 students, mostly females. Shelly taught EFL for 20 years. Her pre-intermediate classroom included 10 students, predominantly females. Ericka, Nicole and Rebecca worked in Centre Three. Rebecca was fifty years old and she taught EFL for 20 years. Her pre-intermediate classroom comprised seven females and nine males. Nicole and Ericka were in their thirties. Nicole taught EFL for seven years. Her advanced class comprised six females and five males. Ericka taught EFL for seven years. Her pre-advanced class also involved six females and five males.

Teacher training: All teachers completed EFL training before starting to teach in Centre One. Mary received the 'RSA Diploma in TEFL'. Leslie 'received a degree in ... linguistics', whereas Linda 'received a BA in modern language studies... PGCE... and... certificate in TEFL'. Carol 'received a PGCE... and the RSA'. Mark obtained 'the CELTA and DELTA' in EFL. In Centre Two, Terry 'acquired a certificate in TESOL', whilst Shelly 'trained to teach art.. I also acquired the RSA ... I've got mainstream... and EFL training'. In regard to Centre Three, Ericka got her 'first degree and the RSA'. Nicole 'did a TEFL methodology course'. Rebecca obtained 'EFL training... and the RSA'.

Teacher development: Regarding staff-development (college-financed), Centre One teachers agreed with Mark, 'there was extensive training... weekly inputs... I couldn't have asked for a better quality'. For self-development (self-financed), most teachers did as Mary who 'obtained a Masters Degree in TESOL', or Leslie who 'is currently studying for an MA'. In Centre Two, Terry noted, 'we've got staff-development sessions on specific topics... I'm involved in the dyslexia course now'. Shelly said, 'we have a staff-development programme... It's interesting'. Shelly and Terry did not engage in formal self-development. For Centre Three, Ericka spoke for Rebecca and Nicole, 'we have staff-development workshops'. Regarding self-development, Ericka obtained 'an MA in Applied Linguistics'. Nicole is 'currently getting a Masters'. Rebecca is 'studying to receive an M.Ed.'.

Curriculum framework: In Centre One, Linda, Leslie, Mark and Mary shared Carol's opinion that the textbook was prescribed by their college: 'on our timetable, it says course book'. However, they agreed that 'the teachers also have freedom and are expected to supplement the book'. But they 'have to cover a certain amount,' explained Mary. They agreed with Linda that they taught a broad 'skills-based curriculum'. In Centre Two, Shelly agreed with Terry, 'I chose and introduced this textbook... We are encouraged to use other materials and to make our own materials as well'. Shelly noted, 'I can do what I want. We're fortunate really in our kind of work'. In regard to Centre Three, Ericka and Nicole agreed with Rebecca 'the curriculum was decided upon in our own way to suit the students'. She

added, 'we decide what we think the students need... our curriculum is very flexible... we decided... to do a skills-based curriculum'. Across the three centres, all students were ability-grouped. For example, Leslie taught 'intermediate students'. Linda taught 'advanced students'. They all taught mixed-nationality students, as Nicole said. 'I'm teaching learners from Asia and Arabic speakers'.

## III. Summary of Major Findings.

The data are presented around three sets of teachers: *curriculum-developers*: Carol, Ericka, Leslie, Mark and Linda; *curriculum-makers*: Nicole, Shelly and Rebecca; and *curriculum-transmitters*: Terry and Mary. Moreover, data presentation combines four sources of data: the teacher general interview; teacher pre/post lesson interview; student group interview; and classroom observation. The categories developed from the analysis are used to present the data around two main themes: the cognitive change and the affective change.

## A. Cognitive Change.

Curriculum-developers, in their general interviews, consistently noted that their curriculum developments had generally `worked` with students. Linda noted. 'Though very experienced teachers usually write textbooks, why not just pick it up and do it page-by-page?... but everyone knows that doesn't work'. Leslie's adaptations, topics and activities worked because 'that's what everybody knows... it's a reasonable assumption to me... I would never just follow the textbook. I would always supplement. Content transmission isn't effective'. Figure 1 summarizes the areas of impact of each approach on student learning.

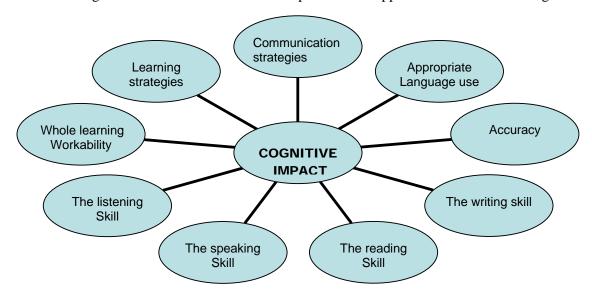


Figure 1. The cognitive impact of teachers' curriculum approaches on students.

Curriculum developments improved students' reading and writing skills. Ericka noted, 'I do have to improve their reading... in other ways'. This involved supplementing reading texts because 'there isn't enough reading in the book... I've been giving them writing which does seem to be working because they're doing it'. Mark exemplified; 'I did write today with my upper-intermediates and it was a hundred word story, where you can only use each word once. That's not in the book... and that has more value'.

Curriculum developments developed students' listening and speaking abilities. Linda's developments, including building on student prior knowledge, adjusting content difficulty level and supplementing new content, improved their listening skills,

in the sense that it engages them, or in the case of that book, where I missed out some of the listening or I attempted some and they were too difficult. I could see the students becoming de-motivated, disinterested because they didn't like their listening, because it was too difficult for them, so ... I did supplement quite a lot of the listening and used other textbooks... for the level. I noticed that had the effect that they were motivated, and therefore they're learning from that.

Mark commented. 'I talked to a couple of them, just informally. They said they found the first video we did last week difficult and said they found this one a little bit easier, now. The first one was from BBC Two. This one was from Channel Five... They did say they found it easier ... It certainly appears to have improved it'. In regard to speaking, 'yesterday, we did that thing about NASA. They listened to it, enjoyed it and then they were talking for about half an hour afterwards, in pairs etc'. He drew this comparison; 'but if I'd done something from the book... they may do it, but the language would have been a whole lot sparser. There would have been more pauses. There would have been more finished kind of thing'. He returned to emphasise 'this kind of topic encourages them to produce more. It's more motivating to receive and listen... they must learn better'.

In pre/post-lesson interviews, curriculum-developers commented on the cognitive outcomes in direct ways, because direct questions were used to elicit the relationships between their curriculum approach and student learning. I (*primary researcher*) asked: 'have you managed to achieve the objectives of today's lesson?' Carol offered positive replies. In one lesson, she helped the students to develop their writing skills 'yeah, I've got them interested in ways of joining information together... they've already done that'. In another, she helped them to improve their learning and communication skills in reading 'yes, I made them... focus on guessing unknown words. They managed to get the words'.

I also asked, 'were the materials effective?' Ericka answered 'it was'. That was because part of the material was hers 'the book needed supplementing for unit five, so that's why I made this part myself'. The materials were also effective for adapting parts, 'the exercise I did at the end... would've been quite difficult, without adapting it'. Mark replied in ways akin to this 'the `canyon` text was from a newspaper. That was effective, good for them and the two internet texts'. In that lesson he was asked 'why didn't you use the textbook?' He answered 'it's not good for them. Today is good. I planned something proper for them'. To further clarify their perspectives about the link between their lesson planning, actual teaching and student learning and motivation, the primary researcher asked, 'which parts of the lesson were successful and which parts were unsuccessful?' Linda said her classroom content was partly hers and partly from the textbook, which had motivated the students; 'they enjoyed the personal experiences of senses'. In another, she got the students to express themselves (speaking). 'They described the adverts well. They were all, by and large, successful'.

To get the teachers to be specific about student learning, I asked this straightforward question 'what do you think the students actually learned from today's lesson'? Linda replied 'reading skills: looking at the organisation of text, reference words, also deducing meaning from context'. On another occasion, 'they developed their speaking skills and some vocabulary' (speaking/ vocabulary). A third, she said they got 'speaking practice, listening practice and some vocabulary relating to advertising' (listening/ speaking/ vocabulary).

In group interviews, curriculum-developers' students provided convergent statements with those of their teachers, noting the positive impact on their 'whole learning'. Linda's students 'liked her using the textbook and other materials, because we learn more from that'. Ericka's students felt their speaking, reading, writing and listening improved 'when she

supplied other materials... because we use them everyday... other materials improve our speaking, writing and other abilities'.

The students specified the aspects they had already learned. Linda's students observed her course improvements significantly enhanced their reading comprehension and skills. 'She brings newspaper articles and we discuss about that. We can understand their meaning... We find it quite easy to understand the whole stories'. Ericka's students' reading comprehension improved 'from other materials, other topics. If just the textbook, it improves slowly'. So did Leslie's students. 'My reading skills improved a lot because the textbook doesn't have enough reading materials'. The students also noted the same about their `writing abilities`. Leslie's students agreed 'it really helps my writing. I don't think the textbook only can help. Through other materials, I can write more interesting, more practical things. So, I think it's a very good way'. Carol's students agreed, 'I could write better than before. Before, we used very simple words, but now we can write business and very informal letters'.

The students realized their listening and speaking skills developed due to teacher course developments. Leslie's students noted 'definitely, my listening improved a lot. It's very useful to me'. Linda's students' 'listening improved owing to watching TV news in the classroom... We can understand. She improved our listening using other subjects- economics, politics. So, relying on the book isn't enough'. Carol's students 'understand much better than before, because she gave us things like video, with accents we didn't hear before. We didn't understand, but after we knew the accent, we could understand much better'. Mark's students explained 'for example, he asked us to listen to a tape he recorded about a car accident. He asked us to listen and say what happened. It's great, it improves our listening. Sometimes we don't get the meaning, but we understand through discussion'. Linda's students felt their speaking skill improved 'because we use other materials, work in pairs and express our opinions. We talk a lot about these interesting materials'. One added 'the textbook was made in the past, but other materials are updated'. A third explained 'the first time I met Linda it was hard to understand or speak... Now, I am good at listening and speaking, because the vocabulary is wider'. Mark's students agreed 'our speaking gets better, because we speak more and learn more. We are more interested. The textbook only is very boring'.

Classroom observation yielded information consistent with the interviews. The students showed understanding of the `reading texts` in Ericka's class who supplemented internet articles about the Commonwealth Games. The students read them and answered the questions correctly. Most of the students mentioned that seventy-two countries took part in the games and there were fourteen games for individual athletes. They answered the other questions in the set time and justified and supported their answers using evidence from the text. During a reading article about the environment, Leslie's students could read it, since they got the general meaning through skimming and they also understood the details. For example, one student said 'paragraph one matches picture 'F', because the paragraph talks about chemicals and the woman in the picture is holding a spray'. The students performed well in writing, too. For example, one of Linda's students wrote a reply to a company:

One month ago, I ordered a course of 30 tablets to lose weight as you advertised. I started taking the tablets as soon as I received them and followed the directions that you supplied. After three days, I started to feel sick at mornings with a constant headache. I obviously continued taking the tablets. My interest to lose weight was more important. Some days before, I started to feel tired with no energy. But things went even worse. My appetite was not reduced. I was eating more and more as days passed. As a consequence, I had to visit a hospital for medical assistance. The doctor asked me to avoid taking the tablets. I am now under medical supervision to recover my health. I cannot understand how you sell such tablets. It is too dangerous. I would appreciate the refund of the 50 dollars I paid for the tablets and a 100 %

reimbursement of the medical assistance I received (invoice enclosed). As you can imagine, if I don't receive any response. I will take this case to court.

The paragraph had one main idea and a number of supporting ideas. The supporting ideas were not repetitive and each covered one aspect of the main idea. The student gave examples and causal relationships to justify the main idea. The paragraph had a start, development part and conclusion. Because Linda focused on writing skills, students' writing reflected that.

The curriculum-developers' students also showed improvement in their listening abilities. Mark asked his students to listen to a passage about arranged marriage, where the bride was Swedish and the groom was Indian. For example, one question required the students to explain what the speaker meant by the phrase 'it wasn't for me'. One said 'he meant that type of arranged marriage isn't suitable for him, though many people who had arranged marriages are happy'. Ericka supplemented a listening activity tape about some commercial adverts and asked her students to say what they were about. Most students provided correct answers. They said, for example, they were about mobile phones, beer, jeans, video games and sport equipment. Then she asked them to listen to an authentic interview with the person who composed the music. They had to answer two questions on the handout she devised. The first question required them to identify the use of three things the interviewee talked about in the commercial music. One said 'it sets the mood, illustrates the action and providers a background for the person speaking'. Then, most students answered the second question 'What's a jingle?' One stated 'He said it's a very short song with the name of the product in it'. Leslie's students revealed good speaking skills. For example, two students imagined a situation showing their ability to start, maintain and close a conversation.

Peter said 'Hi Harry, I've got a present for you for saving my life'. Harry replied 'cheers'. Peter said 'you're dismissed'. Harry replied 'Why?' Peter said 'because you were sleeping in work time. Business is business, anyway thanks for saving my life'.

Curriculum-makers also reported their curriculum-making processes left positive outcomes on their students' overall learning. Rebecca noted students' learning improved, for providing topics and activities that 'made them think on their feet'. Shelly's curriculum developments 'worked well with students'. She added 'one teacher who I know personally just does the book. The students know what they're going to do next lesson, because he does every single thing. That doesn't work'! Rebecca's developments helped her students improve their reading skills. 'I can't remember if you were there. I did a difficult reading... Before asking them to read it, I gave them a handout... a communicative preparation... and then they went onto reading. The reading was far more successful, because I'd made those adaptations. It would have overwhelmed them.' Nicole was asked: 'did you get any written work from your students?' She replied 'yes'. I probed, 'how did the students perform?' She said 'mostly good, there are still basic errors in there, more sort of appropriacy rather than structural errors'. Rebecca noted, 'my topics and materials to a large extent improved their listening skills'. Shelly's teaching 'definitely improved their speaking ability because they do like talking and they get quite a fair amount through these topics'.

Curriculum-makers made consistent statements in pre/ post-lesson interviews. When asked if they achieved each lesson objectives, they provided positive replies. In one lesson, Rebecca promoted student speaking skills 'yes, I wanted to get them to express themselves... about signs. They did quite well'. A second, she improved their reading comprehension, 'yes, I introduced them to the idea of reading newspapers, which they have done'. In one lesson, Nicole planned to help students acquire and practice listening and speaking skills 'yeah, to generate the discussion from the video, to improve listening comprehension skills'. In

another, she developed their vocabulary and reading skills 'yes, they've got a lot of good vocabulary... they could see the links between paragraphs. That was made quite clear'.

When asked if their materials were effective, Rebecca replied 'yes, they were'. Nicole also answered; 'yeah, it has lots of good quite informal vocabulary in it and provided basis for a good discussion'. When asked if each day's lesson was successful, Rebecca answered 'yes'. She helped her students develop listening skills 'they could listen for gist. It was successful'. Nicole helped them acquire new vocabulary and engage in conversations 'they were suggesting different things. That was very successful'. So did Shelly: 'Yes, they could work out distance and get information by phone... I was pleased with that'. When asked what they thought their students learned from each day's lesson, Rebecca answered 'they learned how to communicate, to express their ideas and to explain to each other what they were meaning. They understood the vocabulary about cultural issues' (speaking/ vocabulary). In another lesson, she said they learned 'how to read a leaflet, how to look for dates, how to check out on times' (learning/ communication skills- reading).

In group interviews, curriculum-makers' students agreed that their teachers' approach to their course impacted positively on their `whole learning`. Rebecca's students concurred, 'we learn much better from her materials and stuff, but no textbooks, no. we feel our listening, speaking and reading improved'. Nicole's students 'used video films, TV programmes and newspapers, a lot. We like it because it's more related to our real life. We've learned a lot from that'. They also agreed 'the only aim to produce the textbook is almost for passing the exam, but I don't think if we learn the textbook, it's really representing our ability, because we only learn grammar from the textbook'. Rebecca's students agreed 'my reading got better than when I came here'. Shelly's students' 'writing improved much more than before'. Rebecca's students noted 'my listening is getting better everyday'. Nicole's students agreed their speaking ability developed 'because the textbook is more academic. It's boring. It's not suitable for speaking'. One added 'it's required to get materials from real life, because it sounds close to our life and more interesting and encourages us to speak more'. A third commented, 'we can write a 100% in exam, but can't speak English. That's the problem... if we learn from a textbook. It doesn't help for speaking'.

Curriculum-makers' classroom observation showed student understanding of learning tasks. Rebecca's students read three articles about the Concord, a man with heart problems and a million dollar reward. They exchanged their contents and answered most of the questions correctly. In addition, they passed this information onto a partner. Shelly's students skimmed travel brochures and procured information about which country to visit. They read the leaflets, written for native speakers, got detailed information and discussed their choices. For example, one student chose to visit Wales and got the information about the price, distance and time of flights. Nicole handed out some snacks to students. Using the food products and paper sheets she devised, she asked them to read the information on the packets to provide information about the ingredients, packaging, smell, texture, target market and so on. The students read the products and provided the information required.

The students did well on writing tasks. Rebecca's students were solving a bank robbery where each wrote a report summarizing their roles. For example, one who played a witness role wrote this report describing a woman at the robbery scene.

She is attractive and slim. She has black eyes and shoulder length hair. She has a long nose and a long neck. She wore a black dress. She had lipstick on her lips. Her eyebrows are black. Her hair is curly. She is a middle-aged woman. She has a square face. She looks nice and shy.

Though the student was at a pre-intermediate level, he demonstrated an ability to write correct sentences. He was aware of punctuation rules and sentence formation. Again, the students could understand listening texts. Rebecca, for example, asked one student who said

the dialogue was at the bank 'how did you know?' He replied 'it said (the dialogue) tens or twenties'. The students could also express themselves well (speaking). Shelly gave her cell phone to her students and asked them to contact the travel agent to get some information. For example, one made this short telephone call, 'Good afternoon. Could you please tell me how much does it cost to Cambridge?' Then the agent spoke to her, where she replied 'for an adult and a child'. The agent gave her the information and she wrote whilst talking 'nine for the adult and five for the child'. Then she ended the conversation saying, 'Thank you'.

Curriculum-transmitters provided diverging statements in regard to the impact of their transmission approach on their students' learning. Terry believed adhering to his textbook 'works very well with the students... I use the textbook in an interesting sort of way that enables the students to accept it'. He explained: 'It means they will be properly prepared for the exam and there is a very big correlation between passing the exam and learning English'. Terry continued, 'my perception is that all the students' skills improve equally because, through the textbook, I make sure that there is an equal input for each skill'. Though Mary also transmitted textbook content, she disagreed because 'students... don't have enough input, so you have to supplement. It helps learning because it's a variety'.

Mary was honest enough to explain that only when providing diverse topics and materials, students' reading skills can improve; 'the texts in the textbook very often are not authentic. If they are authentic, they're old. If you give them newspaper articles, they're given an updated language, so you are improving their reading and vocabulary in that way'. She held the same view about writing since 'textbooks... don't show students enough about the process of writing. Writing is ignored. You must supplement, because language learning is different from other subjects'. So was the case with 'speaking' because 'textbooks don't have a lot of free practice, for example, debates, discussions... They lack in that. In order to get students to really express themselves, they need supplementary material'.

Pre- and post lesson interviews clarified the curriculum-transmitters' stance. When asked if he achieved the objectives of everyday lesson, Terry hesitantly replied 'Umm, I did because, well, obviously, I was able to tell how well the students are prepared for the exam'. Mary replied in a similar vein. Her typical answer was, 'I will have to continue with it tomorrow, because it's a hard work'. When asked if the materials were effective, Mary's replies were akin to this 'umm... they weren't too bad'. When asked if each day's lesson was successful, Terry replied; 'umm... maybe the second part was more successful... because some did well in the exercise'. So did Mary. 'Umm... let me think. Some of the students wouldn't get the grammar right. The explanation could have been a bit clearer'. When asked what he thought his students actually learnt from everyday lesson, Terry replied, 'I believe that they have learnt new words... practised speaking' (vocabulary/speaking). In another lesson, 'they learnt some grammar... They also learnt the symbols for fourteen consonants and four vowels'. Mary replied 'from today's lesson, some vocabulary from the reading' (vocabulary). In a second, 'they learnt how to make requests and the difference between formal and informal requests' (grammar).

In group interviews, the curriculum-transmitters' students made it clear their teachers' approach was not conductive to learning. Mary's students agreed; 'now my English is very poor... I think reading newspapers and other ideas and materials can improve my language, not grammar'!! Terry's students' writing ability 'did not improve much'. Mary's students confirmed, 'we don't feel our listening improved, but if the topics are good and interesting, these can help us. It's just the book'! Terry's students agreed their listening 'improved, but it was not that much'. The students' speaking abilities did not improve either. Terry's students noted 'we need real world topics to speak more and communicate with all classmates'. One

added 'my grammar improved, but for speaking no, no'. A third explained that her speaking abilities rarely developed 'because we don't have much chance to speak in this class'.

Classroom observation was consonant with students' responses but dissonant with teachers' replies. The students showed lower understanding levels than their counterparts in the other classes. Terry did a textbook reading about high-heel shoes. About one-third of the students got it. For example, Terry asked 'can you name some types of shoes?' One said 'high-heel, pumps and evening shoes'. About two-thirds could not answer. Those who were internally motivated answered, while the majority were uninterested and failed to answer.

The students rarely demonstrated ability in writing. I provide a representative sample of what the students wrote as homework. I did not observe any lesson, where writing was the focus in Mary's class. The paragraph is disorganized, full of punctuation and tense mistakes,

I learn this week things and new words and grammar every Monday, I am tired maybe because of I sleeped lately every Sunday but I sleep early this Monday. This weekend is good and I am very busy on Friday I went to City Centre and I did some shopping on Saturday. I went to the cinema and I watch a movies this week was very good.

I did not observe Terry teach writing in any lesson, so I could not quote any work. The situation is no different in listening and speaking. Some of Terry's students could understand listening texts, but many could not. Terry played a cassette as part of the textbook materials. He asked students to match the descriptions with the right picture. About half of the students provided correct answers. For example, one student said "B" because he said (the person on the tape) you can have personal service and this means that there are shop assistants'. When Terry asked one of the students who did not provide any answers, the student replied 'I don't understand'. Terry's class included few fluent students, and many who hardly expressed themselves. Terry asked a fluent student to comment on a picture. The student said 'it's a market and many people try to choose different things. It's summer because people wear summer clothes. They look very busy'. In Mary's class, typically few students spoke.

#### B. Affective Change.

*Curriculum-developers*, in general interviews, claimed achieving the positive outcomes shown in the positive section of figure 2. In their case, improving students' motivation and interest in learning were both a cause and effect of curriculum developments.

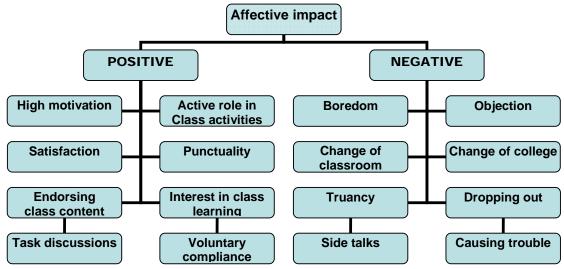


Figure 2. The *affective* impact of teachers' curriculum approaches on students.

Linda indicated; 'it's motivating but if you rigidly follow a textbook and students don't see why you are doing that, their motivation will go down'. One strategy she used for raising student motivation was supplementing; 'if they're motivated they are going to learn better and therefore you create a positive learning environment. I do that by providing stimulating materials'. Mark noted 'it's more motivating, but they're extremely unmotivated just using the book'. Ericka explained: 'the students would get bored if that's all. They might even wonder: what's the point of coming to class? They could work through that stuff on their own'. Leslie asserted 'if you just use the textbook, it would be too monotonous'. She developed her curriculum 'absolutely... for the students. It does make a difference, because of the motivation factor, the variety and responding to their needs'. Student reactions to teacher developments were encouraging, as that received their satisfaction. Ericka said 'normally my students seem to be happy with my lessons'.

In group interviews, the curriculum-developers' students noted that their teachers' approach motivated them to pursue language learning. Linda's students explained, 'the textbook is boring. Her other materials are more interesting'. Ericka's class 'see the book very boring. We dislike it, but she uses materials that make us interested'. Carol's students agreed 'she makes the course more interesting, but if she follows the textbook, it will be very boring and we will find it very difficult to learn'. Student reactions reflected a satisfaction toward the taught curriculum. Ericka's students appreciated supplementing the textbook because 'this book is basic in reading. We need other reading topics'. But for Leslie's course expansion, her students would have asked for content supplement; 'we have the right to ask teachers to bring other things, if we aren't satisfied'. Mark's students thanked him, because 'we needed these outside materials and information to make us interested'. Linda's students 'enjoyed the extra materials she uses in the classroom'. Leslie's students 'are interested because she gives us materials we want to learn. For example, we want to learn about informal words, she gave us worksheets for informal words'.

Classroom observation captured the motivating atmosphere in the curriculum-developers' classrooms. For example, Mark provided a lesson about court hearings. The students played the roles of a judge, defendant, prosecutor and witnesses. The students who switched the groups from time to time were very interested in learning. There were much discussions and attention. I hardly saw side talks or disruptive behaviour. Nor did I notice a student dropped out, apart from a student who disappeared in Carol's classroom. The students were satisfied with classroom content and encouraged their teachers to provide more. The students opposed using textbook lessons. One day Mark entered the classroom and asked the students to open their books at page 38. There was silence in the classroom. The students were looking at one another and smiling. At the very moment, Mark burst out of laughing while saying 'you already know I was busy. I am sorry I didn't have time to prepare something about the dangerous sports. I promise we will do it tomorrow'.

Curriculum-makers, in general interviews, also claimed realising the outcomes shown in the positive section of figure 2. Nicole indicated 'I don't think the textbook engages students and motivates them as much as having authentic materials'. Should she depend on textbooks, 'the students would suffer from that and wouldn't be as engaged and wouldn't really get the topics they are interested in'. She added 'you've seen very motivated students, because I've always put their interests in the front'. Shelly's developments 'increased their motivation'. Rebecca observed 'the times I have stuck to the textbook... it's bored them'. She added: 'That would be very de-motivating. It's easy to bore the students like that. A teacher who doubts that and doesn't need to do that [course development] isn't sensitive to the students, or he isn't aware of what they're thinking and feeling'. Nicole stated, 'I've actually

had students say to me they really appreciate the chance to be able to use various sources and watch real life things'. Shelly said. 'They enjoy learning about these things'.

In group interviews, curriculum-makers' students felt their teachers' approach has increased their motivation. Rebecca's students indicated 'she used newspapers and television news. That's good, interesting because we need the current affairs. A textbook only isn't nice. It's boring'. Nicole's students agreed, 'if she starts the textbook every single day, we get very bored. She has to change the subject... it's not good at all'. One recollected, 'I remember our teacher brought a TV recording about a countryside house... we were very interested'.

When asked how they would feel if Rebecca taught just the textbook, her students said they would object in three ways. They 'would have changed the college'. The second, they would have 'changed the class'. The third, they would have 'spoken to the teacher. We would say, `in our class people don't like that, so, can you change, bring something new, interesting`?' They agreed with one student; 'I would have talked to her and said, `I don't like this`... if she didn't use some good ways, I would say to her, `sorry, I don't like`, but Rebecca is right'. Nicole's students appreciated supplementing different content. 'I don't like to use textbooks anymore... it's time to face real life'. One Shelly's students said if Shelly assigned a textbook and adhered to it, she would have objected. 'I say this is not necessary. I say I don't like this, `can you please change this`'? One added 'I will discuss with other students, then tell her we don't like this'. Nicole's students also expressed their satisfaction 'that's the best way to study English'. Another added 'I absolutely enjoy her ways'.

Classroom observation showed that the students were interested in classroom learning. For example, in one lesson, Nicole handed out some snacks asking her students to taste and provide information about the ingredients, packaging and other information. The students were very interested, attentive and engaged in discussions. By the end of the lesson, they have been through discussions she intended and provided the required information. The students showed satisfaction in their praise of what she taught and in asking for more of such inputs. For example, they asked for watching videos about table manners in a typical English house. She did that in a subsequent lesson which was very successful and motivating.

Curriculum-transmitters, in general interviews, disagreed on achieving the positive outcomes in the positive section of figure 2. Mary acknowledged that her dependence on the textbook did not motivate her students 'because I had no time to prepare lessons for 26 hours a week'. However, when she added topics and adapted the textbook, that motivated them 'because the topics were interesting'. With dependence on the book, Mary admitted 'they get bored. It's better to supplement'. Ironically, Terry said 'If you just use the book sequentially in a very slavish sort of way, if you stick to it line-by-line, inevitably it will be very boring'.

In group interviews, curriculum-transmitters' students said their teachers' approach was not motivating, reflecting the negative section of figure 2. Terry's students perceived his dependence on the 'textbook is always boring, but mixing is better'. Mary's students also felt bored in her classroom. 'I want a change of topic and some materials from outside, because the book subject is quite boring'. Terry's students expressed their objection; 'if he explains extra lessons about current events, I can learn more vocabulary. I can take ideas about what happens in the world'. They expressed their concern. 'I need to say something here for the feedback Terry asked us to give this morning. I wrote to him, 'if you add some news, topics and materials from outside. If you change, we will feel more interested''!! Mary's students objected and requested substantial and interesting input. 'I wish she introduces some simple newspaper stories'. Another objected 'I think this is the first time for her to teach, because I don't feel I am learning anything in this class. I'm not interested, because it's the same book'.

Terry's students protested against curriculum transmission. 'Terry shouldn't teach everything in the textbook, because some parts are not necessary. He should teach only

what's related because, for example, we had a lesson about sports, we didn't even hear their names and we were not interested'. They agreed; 'changing in and from the textbook is better and necessary'. Mary's students asked their course to be relevant; 'the textbook is essential for knowledge we need to learn, but newspapers and news, for example, help us to acknowledge the English in our environment'. Mary's students were unhappy; 'she should change and include lots of things, lots of events'.

Classroom observation showed student indifference and non-engagement in learning. Terry was teaching about shopping in big stores. He read the text and asked the students to work in pairs to answer some questions. Some students were not looking at the task at all. One was not paying any attention, seeming worried about something else other than classroom learning. Two students were talking in their native language. Only three students were discussing the topic. My observation of Mary and Terry's classrooms revealed that students were not attending all the classes. About two students in Mary's class seemed to have dropped out. I no longer saw them. One of Terry's students whom I talked to in the Cafeteria said he attends another teacher's class.

#### IV. Discussion.

This study examined the impact of different teacher curriculum approaches on students' learning and motivation. The results indicated that curriculum-development and curriculum-making (classroom-level curriculum development) led to significant improvement of students' reading skills. They could make sense of written texts through developing reading skills of previewing, skimming and scanning texts. It further developed students' reading comprehension through acquiring skills of looking at the central, main and supporting ideas of texts. Moreover, the students developed skills of looking at the text organization, reference words, deducing meaning from context and reading for gist and details. Classroom-level curriculum development has also improved the students' writing ability, since they could organize their writing by setting out introduction, development and conclusion elements. They were clear about thesis statement in the introduction, developing their writing by translating the central idea into some main ideas and developing each main idea into some other supporting ideas. They reached conclusions based on stated evidence.

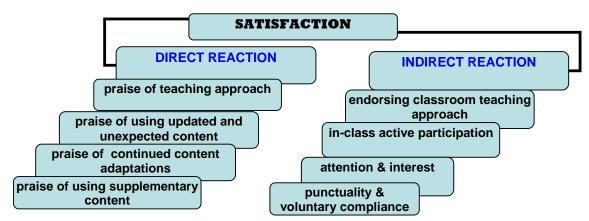


Figure 3. Students' direct and indirect satisfaction to classroom-level curriculum development.

Classroom-level curriculum development also enabled the students to develop their speaking abilities by engaging them in pre-speaking activities of how to open, close and keep a conversation going. It further enabled students to develop their listening comprehension through engaging them in pre-listening activities of predicting content, listing what they

know about the text, working on key vocabulary and answering questions. They were able to listen for gist, key vocabulary and specific information. Curriculum-transmission, on the other hand, did not result in significant improvement of students' learning in these areas, since the majority of students hardly expressed themselves in oral and written discourse; while finding difficulty to make sense of written and aural language material.

At the affective level, classroom-level curriculum development also impacted in positive on students' motivation through addressing their needs and interests and negotiating content with them. As figure 3 shows, the students' high motivation was reflected in their satisfaction of indirect reactions that involved endorsing classroom teaching, classroom participation, being attentive and interested in classroom activities and punctuality and voluntary compliance. Their motivation was also reflected in a satisfaction translated into direct reactions through praising the teaching approach, classroom content, content adaptations and new content supplementing. In contrast, figure 4 shows the negative outcomes of curriculum-transmission on students' motivation, as reflected in their objections to learning. Their objection was at times 'direct/ moderate' through side talking and causing trouble; or 'direct/ severe' by asking for change of teaching approach, classroom or college. At other times, their 'indirect/ moderate' objections involved their indifference, inattention, and truancy; whereas their 'indirect/ severe' objections were translated into dropping-out.

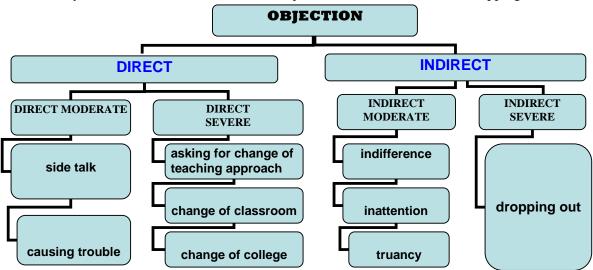


Figure 4. Student direct and indirect objections to classroom curriculum transmission.

Classroom-level curriculum development has consolidated the patchy results of previous research regarding its positive impact on student learning and motivation in language learning (Woods 1991; Cuban 1992; Pennington 1995; Kamhi-Stein and Galvan 1997; Musa 1997; Rahmah 1997; Roelfs and Terwel 1999; Gahin 2001; Craig 2001; Shawer 2006a). It further consolidates previous research about its positive impact on students' learning and motivation across other subjects, like Mathematics (Heaton 1993; Remillard 1999; Spillane 1999); Science (Brickhouse 1990; Gess-Newsome and Lederman 1995; Lee 1995; Saez and Carretero 1998); Social Studies (Marker and Mehlinger 1992), Physical Education (Kirk and MacDonald 2001) and Religion (Shkedi 1996, 1998). This study's findings also concurred with these research conclusions that curriculum-transmission rarely resulted in significant student learning or motivation in those subjects.

The such a positive impact on student learning and motivation could be ascribed to the teachers' response to students' learning styles (Pratt 1980; Tomlinson 1998; Klein 2003; Meehan 2006) and needs (Woods 1991; Marker and Mehlinger 1992; Heaton 1993; Lee

1995; Remillard 1999; Shawer 2001) in addition to equipping students with cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies to facilitate their learning (Riding and Rayner 1998; Shawer 2003). Indeed, curriculum-developers and makers perceived dissonance and clash between the prescribed curriculum, students' needs and their professional knowledge. They took the risk of curriculum development to meet their context needs in ways similar to Schultz and Oyler (2006) and Craig's (2006:261) study; because curriculum-developers and makers 'filter[ed] their curriculum... [where] what... they say and do inform[ed] their curriculum making and reveal[ed] their personal practical knowledge in action'. This study, however, assessed the teacher curriculum approach impact on students rather than how teachers develop curriculum strategies, which researchers can study. Future researchers can assess the impact of classroom-level curriculum approaches on teacher professional development and satisfaction.

We, however, do not know why teachers approached curriculum in these distinct ways. We do not know if it was due to teacher personal style (Campbell 2007). One possibility can be teacher good training and experience, which concurs with previous research conclusions (Eisner 1990; John 2002; Doyle and Carter 2003; Shawer 2006a; Latham and Vogt 2007). However, this had no bearing on curriculum-transmitters who were also trained and experienced. Another possibility is that a free management policy could be the motive behind curriculum development, which agrees with previous research (Gess-Newsome and Lederman 1995; Eisner 2000; Craig 2001; Benavot and Resh 2003). Again, curriculum-transmitters (specially Terry) had much freedom but never improved curriculum. Definitely, such contradictions call for a study about the motives behind teacher curriculum approaches.

#### V. Recommendations for Research and Practice.

This study recommends classroom-level curriculum development to sort out central curriculum models constraints on student learning and motivation. Policy-makers should embrace broad curricula with core skills and concepts which teachers address in their own ways and resources. Curriculum documents and school principals must require teachers to identify, address and report curriculum weaknesses in each stage and classroom, as part of teachers' appraisal. This would lead teachers to address curriculum weaknesses and students' needs. Classroom-level curriculum development could be a strategy of school development in terms of curriculum, teacher and student development. In addition to earlier recommendations, experimental studies are needed to train teachers on classroom-level curriculum development and assess its impact on student motivation and learning and on teacher professional development and job satisfaction. Researchers might examine the relationship between teacher curriculum development and improved and effective schools.

## Appendix 1. Interview main and follow-up questions with teachers.

NB. Only the main questions were asked. The follow-up questions were not asked as long as the respondents mentioned them in their conversation. The interview was open-ended and the follow-up questions were extended from one interview to another through probing the issues the respondents raised.

# How do you approach your curriculum, for example, syllabus topics, textbook and teacher's guide?

- -How do you use the textbook materials, sequence, pages and lessons?
- -How much do you use the textbook content?
- -Do you leave out pages, lessons or units in the textbook?
- -Do you add new topics and materials?
- -Do you adapt or change parts in the textbook?
- -Do you follow, adapt or add to the curriculum objectives?
- -How do you use the teacher's guide?

## > How does your curriculum approach impact on your students' learning?

- Listening? Reading? Speaking? Writing?

## > How does your curriculum approach impact on your students' motivation?

- Do they show interest in classroom teaching? What are the signs of that?
- How do they respond to your systematic and complete coverage of the curriculum topics and materials?
- How do they respond to your curriculum adaptations and supplementary topics and materials?
- How do they respond to your own topics and materials while putting the official curriculum aside?

## **Appendix 2. Pre- and post-observation interviews with teachers.**

## **Before observation interviews**

What did you plan to teach for today?

Why did you prepare it?

## **After observation interviews**

- Have you managed to achieve the objectives of today's lesson?
- -What materials did u use? Were they effective? Why do you think so?
- -Which parts of the lesson do you think were successful? Why?
- Which parts were unsuccessful?
- -What do you think your students have specifically learnt from today's lesson?

## Appendix 3. Interview main and follow-up questions with students.

- ➤ Would you please describe how your teacher approaches/ teaches your course?
- **▶** What materials do you use in this classroom?
- **▶** How does your teacher use the textbook?

#### **▶** What is the impact of your classroom teaching on your learning?

- -your ability to understand listening texts in English?
- -your ability to speak English?
- -your ability to understand reading texts?
- -your ability to communicate in writing through English?

#### **▶** What is the impact of your classroom teaching on your motivation?

- -do you feel interested in or bored of classroom learning? How much?
- -why do you feel so?
- -do you like / dislike the teaching topics? Materials?
- -why do you like/ dislike them?
- -does the course reflect your needs? Interests? Explain please?

#### References

Benavot, A. and Resh, N. (2003). Educational governance, school autonomy, and curriculum implementation: a comparative study of Arab and Jewish schools in Israel. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 35 (2), 171-196.

Ben-Peretz, M. (1990). The Teacher-Curriculum Encounter: Freeing teachers from the tyranny of texts. New York: State University of New York Press.

Blaikie, N. (2000). Designing Social Research. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Bloom, B. S. (ed.) (1956). Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The classification of educational goals: handbook I: cognitive domain. The classification of educational goals. London: Longmans.

Bloom, M., Fischer, J. and Orme, J. (1995). Evaluation Practice: Guidelines for the accountable professional. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Brickhouse, N. W. (1990). Teachers' beliefs about the nature of science and their relationship to classroom practice. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(3), 53-62.

Bruner, J. (1978). Towards a Theory of Instruction. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Burns, R. (2000). Introduction to Research Methods. London: Sage.

Campbell, E. (2007). Glimpses of uncertainty in teaching, *Curriculum Inquiry*, 37 (1), 1-8.

Clandinin, D. J, and Connelly, F. M. (1992). Teacher as curriculum maker. In P. W. Jackson (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*, pp. 363-401. New York: Macmillan.

Clandinin, D.J., and Connelly, F. M. (1998). Stories to live by: narrative understandings of school reform. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 28 (2), 149-164.

Clarke, A. (1999). Evaluation Research: An introduction to principles, methods and practice London: Sage.

Cohen, D. K. and Ball, D. L. (1999). Instruction, capacity, and improvement. *CPRE Research Report Series RR-43, Consortium for Policy Research in Education*, University of Pennsylvania.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K. (2000). Research Methods in Education. London: Routledge/ Falmer.

Connelly, F. M., and Clandinin, D. J. (1988). Teachers as Curriculum Planners: Narratives of experience. New York: Teachers College Press.

Corbin, J., and Strauss, A. (1990). Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques. Newbury Park: Sage.

Craig, C. J. (2001). The relationships between and among teachers' narrative knowledge, communities of knowing, and school reform: A case of the Monkey's Paw. *Curriculum Inquiry*, *31*, 303-331.

Craig, C.J. (2006). Why is dissemination so difficult? The nature of teacher knowledge and the spread of curriculum reform. *American Educational Research Journal*, 43 (2), 257-293.

Cresswell, J. (1998). Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Cuban, L. (1992). Curriculum stability and change. In P. W. Jackson (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*, 216-247. New York: Macmillan.

Davies, C. (1999). Reflexive Ethnography: A guide to researching selves and others. New York: Routledge.

Denscombe, M. (1998). The Good Research Guide for Small-Scale Social Research Projects. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Dewey, J. (1916). Democracy and Education: An introduction to the philosophy of education. New York: Macmillan.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and Education. New York: Macmillan.

Doyle, W. (1992). Curriculum and pedagogy. In P. W. Jackson (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*. 486-516. New York: Macmillan.

Doyle, W., and Carter, K. (2003). Narrative and learning to teach: implications for teacher-education curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *35* (2), 129-137.

Eisner, E. (1990). A development agenda: creative curriculum development and practice. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, 6 (1) 62-73.

Eisner, E. W. (2000). Those who ignore the past...:12 'easy' lessons for the next millennium. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *32* (2), 343-357.

Eisner, E. W. (2002). From episteme to phronesis to artistry in the study and improvement of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *18*, 375-385.

Englund, T. (1997). Towards a dynamic analysis of the content of schooling: narrow and broad didactics in Sweden. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 29 (3), 267-287.

Erickson, F., and Shultz, J. (1992). Students' experience of the curriculum. In P. W. Jackson (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*. 465-485. New York: Macmillan.

Floden, R., Porter, A., Schmidt, W., Freeman, D., and Schwille, J. (1981). Responses to curriculum pressures: a policy-capturing study of teacher decisions about content. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73 (2), 129-141.

Gahin, G. (2001). An investigation into Egyptian EFL teachers' beliefs. *TESOL Arabia* 2000, 5, 109-131.

Gess-Newsome, J., and Lederman, N. G. (1995). Biology teachers' perceptions of subject matter structure and its relationship to classroom practice. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 32 (3), 301-325.

Glaser, B., and Strauss, A. (1967). The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for qualitative research. Chicago: Aldine.

Gross, R. (1996). Psychology: The science of mind and behaviour, 3<sup>rd</sup> edn. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Guba, E. S., and Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, (pp. 105-117). London: Sage.

Hargreaves, E. (1997). The diploma disease in Egypt: Learning, teaching, and the monster of the secondary leaving certificate. *Assessment in Education*, *4*(1), 161-176.

Heaton, R. M. (1993) Who is minding the mathematics content? A case study of a fifth-grade teacher. *The Elementary School Journal*, *93*, 153-162.

Hedge, T. (2000). Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hytten, K. (2000). The resurgence of Dewey: Are his educational ideas still relevant? *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 32 (3), 453-466.

Jackson, P. W. (1992). Conceptions of curriculum and curriculum specialists. In P. W. Jackson (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*, 3-40. New York: Macmillan.

John, P. D. (2002). The teacher educator's experience: Case studies of practical professional knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *18*, 323-341.

Kamhi-Stein, L., and Galvan, J. (1997). EFL teacher development through critical reflection. *TESOL Journal*, 7(1), 12-17.

King, M. B. (2002). Professional development to promote school-wide inquiry. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *18*, 243-257.

Kirk, D., and MacDonald, D. (2001). Teacher voice and ownership of curriculum change. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *33*(5), 551-567.

Klein, P. D. (2003). Rethinking the multiplicity of cognitive resources and curriculum representations: alternatives to learning styles and multiple intelligences. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *35* (1), 45-81.

Krathwohl, D. R., Bloom, B.S., and Masia, B.B. (1964). Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The classification of educational goals. Handbook II: Affective domain. The classification of educational goals. New York: McKay.

Kvale, S. (1996). Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Latham, N. I. and Vogt, W.P. (2007). Do professional development schools reduce teacher attrition? Evidence from a longitudinal study of 1,000 graduates, *Journal of Teacher Education*, 58 (2), 153-167.

Lee, O. (1995). Subject matter knowledge, classroom management, and instructional practices in a middle school science classroom. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 32, 423-440.

Marker, G., and Mehlinger, H. (1992). Social studies. In P. W. Jackson (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*, 830-851. New York: Macmillan.

Meehan, P. (2006). How an understanding of individual learning styles can pay dividends in class. *TEFL Net*. Retrieved on December 12, 2006 from <a href="http://www.TEFL.net/esl-articles/learning-styles.htm">http://www.TEFL.net/esl-articles/learning-styles.htm</a>.

Morgan, D. (1988). Focus Group as Qualitative Research. Newbury: Sage.

Munby, H. (1990). Metaphorical expressions of teachers' practical curriculum knowledge. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, *6*(1), 18-30.

Musa, R. M. (1997). Policy and practice under the Malaysian philosophy of education. *Unpublished PhD Thesis*, School of Education, The University of Manchester.

Parker, S. (1997). Reflective Teaching in the Postmodern World: A manifesto for education in post modernity. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Patton, M. (1990). Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods, 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. Newbury Park: Sage.

Pennington, M. (1995). The teacher change cycle. TESOL Quarterly, 29(4), 705-731.

Piaget, J. (1951). Play, Dreams and Imitation in Childhood. London: William Heinemann.

Piaget, J. (1955). The Child's Construction of Reality. London: Routledge.

Piaget, J. (1967). The Child's Conception of the World. London: Routledge.

Piaget, J. (1972). The Child and Reality: Problems of genetic psychology. London: Frederick Muller.

Pollard, A., and Triggs, P. (1997). Reflective Teaching in Secondary Education: A handbook for schools and colleges. London: Cassell.

Pratt, D. (1980). Curriculum Design and Development. New York: Harcourt.

Rahmah, M. I. (1997). Developing communicative English learning materials for general secondary schools in Egypt. *Unpublished PhD Thesis*, School of Education, The University of Manchester.

Randolph, D., Duffy, E., and Mattingly, K. (2007). The 3 P's of curriculum redesign: principles, personal qualities and process. *Independent School*, 66(3), 86-92.

Remillard, J. (1999). Curriculum materials in mathematics education reform: A framework for examining teachers' curriculum development. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 29, 315-342.

Richardson, V. (1997). Constructivist teaching and teacher education: theory and practice. In V. Richardson (ed), *Constructivist Teacher Education: Building new understandings* London: Falmer.

Riding, R. and Rayner, S. (1998). Cognitive Styles and Learning Strategies: Understanding style differences in learning and behaviour. London: David Fulton Publishers.

Robson, C. (1993). Real World Research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers. Oxford: Blackwell.

Roelfs, E., and Terwel, J. (1999). Constructivism and authentic pedagogy: state of the art and recent developments in the Dutch national curriculum in secondary education. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 31(2), 201-227.

Rossi, P., and Freeman, H. (1982). Evaluation: A systematic approach, 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Saez, M., and Carretero, A. (1998). Innovations in the Spanish science curriculum: A view of a systemic reform. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 30(6), 719-738.

Sapsford, R., and Abbott, P. (1996). Ethics, politics and research. In R. Sapsford and V. Jupp (eds.), *Data Collection and Data Analysis*, 317-340. London: Sage.

Schön, D. (1983). The Reflective Practitioner: How professionals think in action. Hants: Aldershot.

Schultz, B. and Oyler, C. (2006). We make this road as we walk together: sharing teacher authority in a social action curriculum project, *Curriculum Inquiry*, *36*(4), 424-451.

Scriven, M. (1991). Evaluation Thesaurus. Fourth Edition. Newbury Park: Sage.

Shaw, I. and Lishman, J. (1999). Evaluation and Social Work Practice. London: Sage.

Shawer, S. (2006a). Communicative-based curriculum innovations between theory and practice: implications for EFL curriculum development and student learning and motivation. Ain Shams University, *Faculty of Education Journal*, 30(4), 30-72.

Shawer, S. (2006b). Effective Teaching and Learning in Generic Education and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology: Learners' cognitive styles, foreign language skills instruction and teachers' professional development. Cairo: Dar El-Fikr El-Arabi.

Shawer, S. F. (2001). Teachers' curriculum development: a framework for examining the effects of teachers' conceptualisation of the communicative approach on the development and use of curriculum materials. *Unpublished M Phil Thesis*, Faculty of Education, The University of Cambridge.

Shawer, S. F. (2003). Bringing curriculum-in-action to the classroom: a study of teachers' curriculum development approaches and their implications for student and teacher development. *Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation*, Faculty of Education, The University of Manchester.

Shkedi, A. (1996). School-based workshops for teacher participation in curriculum development. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 28(6), 699-711.

Shkedi, A. (1998). Can the curriculum guide both emancipate and educate teachers? *Curriculum Inquiry*, 28 (2), 209-229.

Siraj-Blatchford, I. (1999). Early childhood pedagogy: practice, principles and research. In P. Mortimore (ed.), *Understanding Pedagogy and its Impact on Learning*. London: Paul.

Snyder, J., Bolin, F., and Zumwalt, K. (1992). Curriculum implementation. In P. W. Jackson (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*, 402-435. New York: Macmillan.

Spillane, J. P. (1999). External reform initiatives and teachers' efforts to construct their practice: The mediating role of teachers' zone of enactment. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 31(2), 143-175.

Stake, R. E. (1995). The Art of Case Study Research. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Stecher, B. (1987). How to Focus an Evaluation. Newbury Park: Sage.

Strauss, A., and Corbin, J. (1998). Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory, 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Taba, H. (1962). Curriculum Development: Theory and practice. New York: Harcourt.

Terwel, J. (1999). Constructivism and its implications for curriculum theory and practice. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *31*, 195-299.

Terwel, J. (2005). Curriculum differentiation: multiple perspectives and developments in education. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 26(4), 653-670.

Tomlinson, B. (1998). Materials Development in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tyler, R. (1949). Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in Society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L., S. (1962). Thought and Language. Cambridge: MIT press.

Watts, M., and Ebbutt, D. (1987). More than the sum of parts: Research methods in group interviewing. *British Educational Research Journal*, 13, 25-34.

Wells, G. (1999). Dialogic Inquiry: Toward a sociocultural practice and theory of education. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wenden, A. (1986). Helping language learners think about learning, *ELT Journal*, 40(1), 3-12.

Wenden, A. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 19 (4), 515-537.

Westbury, I. (1983). How can curriculum guides guide teaching? *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 15 (1), 1-3.

Woods, D. (1991). Teachers' interpretations of second language teaching curricula. *RELC Journal*, 22, 18.

Yin, R. (1994). Case Study Research Design and Methods. Thousand Oaks: Sage.