



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION





GUIDELINES FOR THE NOMINEES FOR THE POSITION OF

ELT SUPERVISOR

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1 Active Learning

Active learning can be described as an “umbrella” term that includes several teaching/learning strategies. All of them involve students being actively engaged in content. Active learning embraces approaches such as collaborative and cooperative learning, problem-based learning, simulation, and experiential learning (Barkley, 2010).

Active learning suggests that students make cognitive connections that foster deep learning when they are able to, “read, write, discuss, or be engaged in solving problems.” (Bonwell & Eison, 1991, p.1). Activities such as these allow students to engage in higher-order thinking by analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating the content (Bonwell & Eison, 1991), rather than simply memorizing it. Therefore, by taking an active role in the learning process, students are empowered to become “co-producers of learning” (Barr and Tagg 1995).

(Allen & Tanner 2003) define active learning as an approach that aims “to model the methods and mindsets which are at the heart of scientific inquiry, and to provide opportunities for students to connect abstract ideas to their real world applications and acquire useful skills, and in so doing gain knowledge that persists beyond the course experience in which it was acquired.”

Active Learning is comprised of a student centered environment which raises student’s motivational level to stimulate thinking and go beyond facts and details (Brody 2009).

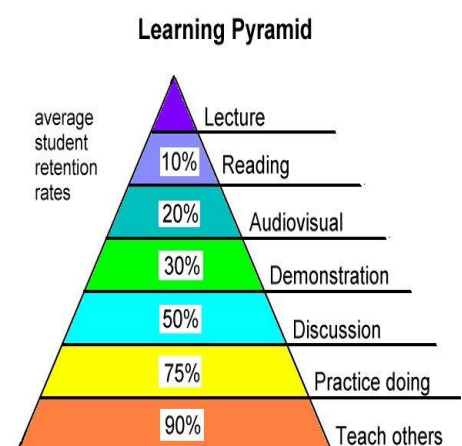
The Main Features of Active Learning:

- Active cognitive attitude of students.
- The student is a discoverer & researcher.
- The teacher is a facilitator.
- Dialogic nature of learning: collaboration of students and teachers, joint problem solving, group interaction feedback.
- Inquiry-based learning, problem solving, cooperative learning.
- Support for different types of thinking (logical, critical, creative).
- Stimulation of autonomy and independence of thought.
- Creative application of knowledge for the achievement of life goals.
- Respectful and trusting style of relationship between students and teacher.
- The variety of techniques and methods, types of activities and sources of information.
- Use the effective methods of organization and evaluation of learning activities.

Cooperative Learning Structures help teachers to meet the highest three layers. **Discussion:** no one student can dominate and no student can sit back and have a ‘free-ride’.

Practice Doing: a higher percentage of the class is active at one time.

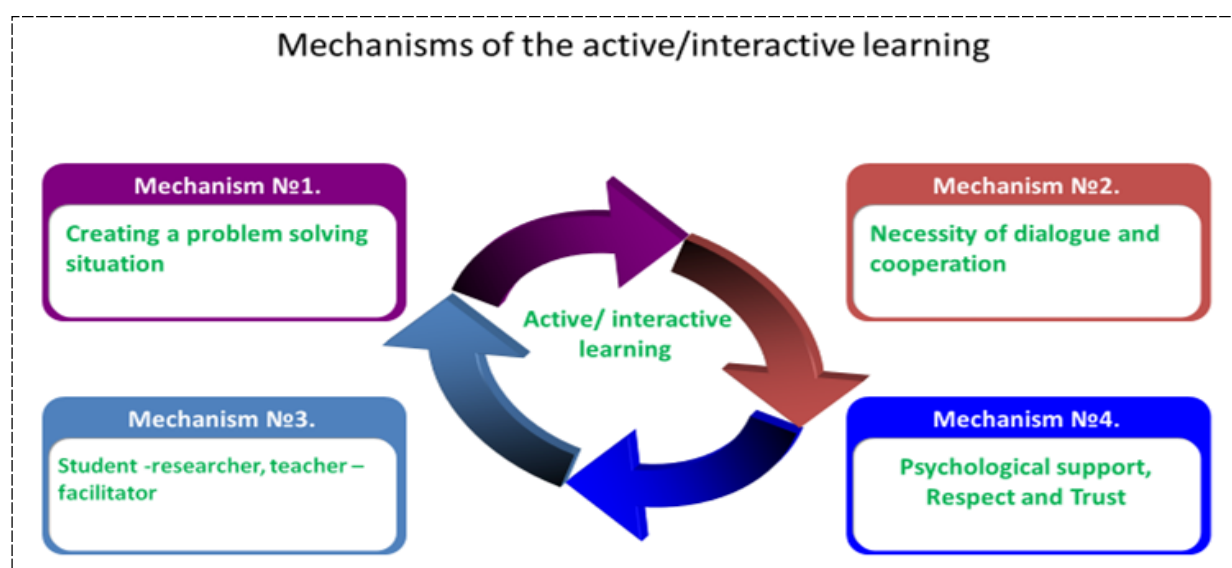
Teach Others: because of the Positive Interdependence principle the students will often coach and tutor each other.



Source: National Training Laboratories, Bethel, Maine

How Teachers Teach In Active Classroom

- Teachers create environments wherein children are actively invited to seek knowledge through exploration and play.
- Children have an active voice in initiating learning needs. teachers respond to these needs by planning learning experiences that are:
- Enjoyable
- Challenging, intellectually interesting
- Allow the learner freedom to make choices, self-direct learning, and collaborate with the teacher in the active construction of knowledge.



*(ELT General Supervision Document)

In Active Learning, Students Learn Best When

- Student motivation is generated and maintained, fostering sustained learning.
- A supportive learning environment is created.
- Learning is developmental i.e. learning experiences are age-appropriate,
- Students' skills and interests are identified and stimulated.
- The transfer of knowledge, values, and attitudes is encouraged.
- Reflective thought and action are promoted.
- The relevance of new learning is enhanced.
- Encouraged to make connections to prior learning and experiences.
- Learning is relevant and situated within a meaningful context.
- Make connections between different subjects.
- Understanding rather than rote learning is fostered.
- Control their own learning.
- Metacognitive strategies are properly implemented. *(ELT General Supervision Document)

Think-Pair-Share The most well-known active learning method is think-pair-share. First, the teacher asks a question that will challenge students, and then gets them to think for two to three minutes by themselves. Then, pairs them in twos or threes to discuss their conclusions for no more than five minutes. After that, groups are called on to share those conclusions, or ask for volunteers. This technique can help to recapture enthusiasm and remind students that their learning is not taking place in isolation. (Preville 2018)

Active Learning Techniques

1. **Minute Papers** During the reflection stage, students, either alone or in pairs, are asked to answer a question in writing. The submitted responses from this active learning construct can be used to gauge student learning and student comprehension of the material. The minute paper wraps up the formal class period by asking two questions:

- What was the most important thing you learned today?
- What question still remains in your mind?

Active
LEARNING

The first question requires students to remember something from class and articulate it in their own words, as well as making sure they do some quick thinking. Students have to reflect on their learning experience, and decide on the main point of that day's class.

The second question encourages them to consider what they haven't truly understood. Most of us are infected by what learning theorists sometimes call "illusions of fluency," which means that we believe we have obtained mastery over something when we truly have not. To answer the second question, students have to decide where confusion or weaknesses remain in their own comprehension. (Preville 2018)

2. **Quick Quizzes** Teachers can administer this technique either at the outset of class or during a pause. It is used to assess comprehension, not meant to be graded. One way to make this a meaningful exercise, and to scale it across a large classroom, is to use technology to ask a multiple-choice question. You can do this at the beginning of class to challenge or to check an assumption before a class begins, and then ask the same question at the end. You can then compare and pair the results of the two questions and get instant feedback about the effectiveness of your lesson. (Preville 2018)

3. **Debates** This technique both helps students to defend different opinions and to structure class discussion. It also ensures that even passive learners have the chance to get engaged. In his active learning-enabled classes, Tony Crider assigns his students roles of historical characters. One of his classes is called the "Pluto Debates," wherein leading lights of the astronomy world argue over whether or not Pluto should be considered a planet. Every student has a character sheet, with his or her secret victory conditions, i.e., "You'll win if the vote turns out this way, or that way." For Crider, the key was getting his students invested in how astronomers make sense of objects, how they classify them and how they make decisions together. In fact, the simulation aspect of this approach really draws students in, to the point where they'll often prepare more for Crider's class than others. (Preville 2018)

4. **Case Studies and Problem Solving** In this active learning technique, students work in groups, applying knowledge gained from reading materials to a given situation. This is more spontaneous than setting your students multi-week formal group projects.

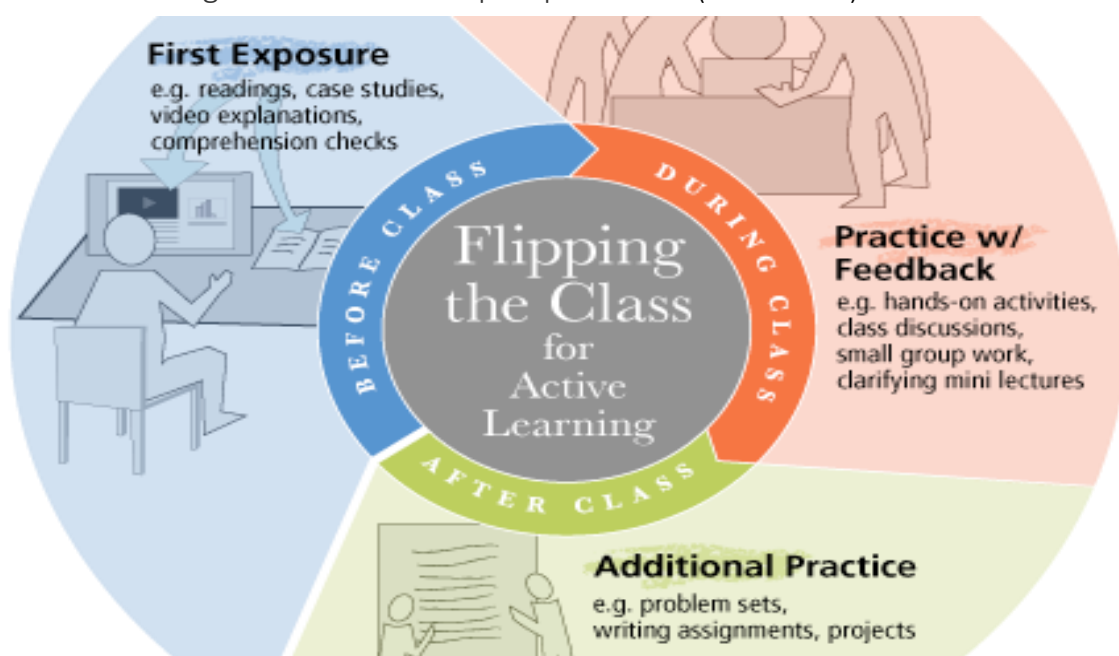
Christopher Bone states that Active learning is an important part of his pedagogy because it encourages students to apply knowledge, rather than recite it back to the class. "I used to tell students, 'click here, click there, do this, do that' so they became good at following instructions," he says. "I think that's an analogy of how we approach education. We're producing students who are good at doing what they're told to do, but they're not good at solving problems on the fly, which is what they'll be expected to do as soon as they enter the job market." (Preville 2018)

It is designed to discover whether a student has a talent or basic ability for learning a new language or not. (Ramadan, 2014)

5. **Peer Instruction** With the help of the teacher, students prepare and present course material to the class. This encourages interaction and trust-building between students, which can be an underappreciated factor in student success.

Thomas Hayden, a professor at Stanford University, explains: “As an introductory assignment, I have the students teach each other about the things they know best. Hayden bans his students from using PowerPoint slides. This forces them to think creatively about how they communicate what they know to an unfamiliar audience. The result is a class primed to learn outside of their field—with those important peer-to-peer relationships already seeded. (Preville 2018)

6. **Flipped Classrooms** Through the use of readings, videos, individual or cooperative activities, students' first exposure to content are shifted outside of the classroom. Then **during class**, a significant portion of the time is used for practice, application exercises, discussion-based activities, team-based learning, or other **active learning techniques**. Some preliminary assessment, such as an online quiz or brief assignment, may be used to gauge student understanding and tailor instructional plans prior to class. (Preville 2018)



*(ELT General Supervision Document)

Stages of Active Learning Lesson	
Stage	Result
1) Motivation - present a problem-issue, generate the several suggestions(hypotheses); formulation of a research question and specific suggestion(hypotheses)	A research question and several specific suggestions.
2) Carrying out research - find facts to check assumptions and answer the research question	Research work, new facts and findings.
3) Sharing information - present the new informational and results of the independent research	New information for discussion.

4) <u>Discussion and organizing of information</u> – discussion of information , finding connections between facts , systemize new knowledge	Systemized information.
5) <u>Generalization and conclusion</u> - summary of results, comparison of result with the initial suggestions, answer to the research question	New knowledge (conclusion).
6) <u>Creative application</u> - using the knowledge in a new context or using the theory in practice	Experiencing and understanding the use of the new knowledge and skills
7) <u>Evaluation and reflection</u> – self-evaluation and reflection of own activity, can be conducted at any stage	Self-evaluation skills, learning how to learn, understanding of the learning process.

Lesson Stage 1: Motivation, Formulation of the Research Question

- To begin the research, the first need is to address the problem. The real problem always is challenging and generates a number of assumptions (hypotheses) based on which the research question will be formulated.
- This stage is called the motivation stage because it induces the beginning of any activity.
- During an active lesson, the problem and the need for its resolution act as motivation that initiates the process of thinking and activates cognitive activity of students. (ELT General Supervision Document,2017)

Lesson Stage 2: Carrying out Research (Inquiry)

- A variety of learning assignments, including the new information and new questions, will contribute to this and lead the students purposefully to the problem solving.
- Finding the new facts and answers to these questions represent the basis for analyzing and discovery of new knowledge.
- Research could be conducted in various ways: with the whole class, in small groups, in pairs or individually. (ELT General Supervision Document)



Lesson Stage 3: Sharing the Information

- At this stage, the students share their findings, new information which was obtained during the inquiry.
- The need to find an answer to the question encourages all students to listen actively to the presentation of research findings of others.
- A new need appears-to put in order and systematize this knowledge, to find the main idea, to draw the conclusion and to answer the research question. (ELT General Supervision Document,2017)

Lesson Stage 4: Discussion and Organizing the Information

- This step is the most difficult, requiring the mobilization of all the thinking skills related to the different types: logical, critical and creative.
- The teacher facilitates a focused discussion on the facts gained during the research and manages the information structure.
- Organizing information is aimed at identifying the relationship between all the facts and their systematization. As a result, the answer to the research question starts to be recognized. (ELT General Supervision Document)

Lesson Stage 5: Generalization and Conclusion

- Students need not only to generalize the knowledge, but also to relate their conclusion with a research question and hypotheses.

- The culmination of the lesson is the joy of discovery and students' satisfaction that they discovered the new knowledge. It is important at this stage that the teacher should refrain from drawing the conclusion of the lesson. (ELT General Supervision Document)

Lesson Stage 6: Creative Application

- The main criterion of the knowledge assimilation is represented by its creative application. Creative application consolidates the knowledge and opens up its practical sense to a child.
- It is desirable to provide students with the opportunity for the creative application of their knowledge because, in this case, the knowledge becomes the property of their consciousness forever. This stage is not strictly bound by time to one academic lesson. (ELT General Supervision Document)

Lesson Stage 7: Evaluation and Reflection

- One of the most important features of active learning is the ability to self-learning skills (learning to learn) and self-development.
- Evaluation is a mechanism to ensure the improvement of any process. In order to improve, students need time to find their weaknesses and their dignity, to determine what prevents and helps in achieving that success.
- Assessment and reflection can be incorporated throughout the various stages of the lesson that can also contribute to improving the learning process. (ELT General Supervision Document, 2017)

Reflection

- Reflection on the process of learning is one of the main mechanisms to analyze and deeper understand all stages of learning acquisition.
- In order to start the process of reflection on the learning process (how to learn) it is enough to ask a few questions that lead to the discovery of new knowledge.
- How did we come to and what do we do in order to further explore the idea?
- What has helped you in solving the problem? (ELT General Supervision Document, 2017)

Questions for Reflective Discussion

- What happened?
- How did you feel when...?
- Did anyone feel differently?
- What did you notice in relation to...?
- How do you feel about the experience...?
- Does anyone in the group feel the same in relation to...?
- Do you agree / disagree with what the others said? Why?
- Does anyone want to add something? What?
- Did that surprise you? Why?
- Would you share with us how you understood...? (ELT General Supervision Document, 2017)



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2 Basic Communication Skills

Effective Communication

The ability to communicate effectively is an essential skill in today's world. Communication is a dynamic process and how you communicate can positively and negatively affect the relationships you have with your kids, boss, or coworkers. You can improve the communication skills that enable you to effectively connect with others, build trust and respect, and feel heard and understood.



What Is Effective Communication?

Communication is more than just exchanging information. It's about understanding the emotion and intentions behind the information. Effective communication isn't only how you convey a message so that it is received and understood by someone in exactly the way you intended, it's also how you listen to gain the full meaning of what's being said and to make the other person feel heard and understood.

More than just the words you use, effective communication combines a set of skills including nonverbal communication, engaged listening, managing stress in the moment, the ability to communicate assertively, and the capacity to recognize and understand your own emotions and those of the person you are communicating with. Effective communication is the key that helps you deepen your connections to others and improve teamwork, decision making, and problem solving. It enables you to communicate even negative or difficult messages without creating conflict or destroying trust. (Lawrence Robinson, Jeanne Segal, and Melinda Smith .2019)

Types of Communication: Verbal, Non-verbal and Written

Communication is a key to maintaining successful business relations. For this reason, it is paramount that professionals working in business environments have first-class communication skills. There are three basic types of communication: verbal, non-verbal, and written. If you want to succeed in business, you need to master each of these types of communication. (Kasia Mikoluk .2013)

Verbal Communication

Verbal or oral communication uses spoken words to communicate a message. When most people think of verbal communication, they think of speaking, but listening is an equally important skill for this type of communication to be successful. Verbal communication is applicable to a wide range of situations, ranging from informal office discussions to public speeches made to thousands of people. (Kasia Mikoluk .2013)

Non-Verbal Communication

Non-verbal communication includes body language, gestures, facial expressions, and even posture. Non-verbal communication sets the tone of a conversation and can seriously undermine the message contained in your words if you are not careful to control it. For example, slouching and shrinking back in your chair during a business meeting can make you seem under-confident, which may lead people to doubt the strength of your verbal contributions. In contrast, leaning over an employee's desk and invading his or her personal space can turn a friendly chat into an aggressive confrontation that leaves the employee feeling victimized and undervalued. (Kasia Mikoluk .2013)



Written Communication

Written communication is essential for communicating complicated information, such as statistics or other data, which could not be easily communicated through speech alone. Written communication also allows information to be recorded so that it can be referred to later. When producing a piece of written communication, you need to be clear and concise in order to communicate information effectively. (Kasia Mikoluk .2013)

Building Rapport

Rapport is getting on well with another person, or group of people, by having things in common. This makes the communication process easier and usually more effective. Sometimes rapport happens naturally without having to try, this is often how friendships are built. However, rapport can also be built and developed by finding common ground, developing a bond and being empathic. Most rapport-building happens; however, without words and through non-verbal communication channels such as non-verbal signals, including body positioning, body movements, eye contact, facial expressions and tone of voice.

Different Types of Barriers to Effective Communication**1) Semantic Barriers**

There is always a possibility of misunderstanding the feelings of the sender of the message or getting a wrong meaning of it. The words, signs, and figures used in the communication are explained by the receiver in the light of his experience which creates doubtful situations. This happens because the information is not sent in simple language. (Vinod Jetley.2016)

**The most common language-related barriers**

- **Badly Expressed Message:**

This barrier is created because of the wrong choice of words, the wrong sequence of sentences and frequent repetitions. This may be called linguistic chaos.

- **Symbols or Words with Different Meanings:**

Symbols or words can have different meanings and this makes the receiver misunderstand the communication.

- **Faulty Translation:**

A manager receives much information from his superiors and subordinates, and he translates it for all the employees according to their level of understanding. Hence, the information has to be molded according to the understanding of the receiver. Faulty translation can be a barrier to communication.

- **Unclear Assumptions:**

It has been observed that sometimes a sender takes it for granted that the receiver knows some basic things and, therefore, it is enough to tell him about the major subject matter.

- **Body Language and Gesture Decoding: When the communication is passed on with the help of body language and gestures, misunderstanding them hinder the proper understanding of the message.**

2) Psychological or Emotional Barriers:

The importance of communication depends on the mental condition of both parties. A mentally disturbed party can be a hindrance to communication. The following are the emotional barriers in the way of communication: (Vinod Jetley.2016)

- ❖ **Premature Evaluation:** Sometimes the receiver of information tries to dig out meaning without much thinking at the time of receiving or even before receiving information, which can be wrong.

- ❖ **Lack of Attention:** When the receiver is preoccupied with some important work he/she does not listen to the message attentively. For example, an employee is talking to his boss when the latter is busy in some

important conversation. In such a situation the boss may not pay any attention to what the subordinate is saying. (Vinod Jetley.2016)

- ❖ **Loss by Transmission and Poor Retention:** When a message is received by a person after it has passed through many people, generally it loses some of its truth. This is called loss by transmission. This happens normally in case of oral communication. Poor retention of information means that with every next transfer of information the actual form or truth of the information changes.
- ❖ **Distrust:** For successful communication, the transmitter and the receiver must trust each other. If there is a lack of trust between them, the receiver will always derive an opposite meaning from the message. Therefore, communication will become meaningless. (Vinod Jetley.2016)

Difficult Types of People and How to Deal with Them

We
all

have difficult people we need to deal with in our lives daily. Psychological research has suggested several ways of coping with difficult people in life.



- 1) **Hostile People** Dealing with hostile people requires both tact and strength. Since persons who feel they have been wronged are more likely to be belligerent and violent, it would be wise to avoid interactions with them that encourage intense emotions or threats of violence. In most cases, strong retaliation against an aggressive person is the worst thing you can do (Tucker-Ladd, 2018).
- 2) **The Chronic Complainer** They are fault-finding, blaming, and certain about what should be done but they never seem able to correct the situation by themselves. Often they have a point, there are real problems, but their complaining is not effective (except it is designed to prove someone else is responsible). Coping with complainers involves, first, listening and asking clarifying questions. Secondly, as you gather facts, create a problem-solving attitude. Be serious and supportive. Acknowledge the facts. Get the complaints in writing and in precise detail; get others, including the complainer, involved in collecting more data that might lead to a solution. Thirdly, plan a specific time to make decisions cooperatively that will help the situation and do it. (Tucker-Ladd, 2018).
- 3) **The Super-Agreeable:** What about the persons who are super nice and smilingly agree with your ideas until some action is required, then they back down or disappear? Such people seek approval. They have learned that one method for getting love is by telling people (or pretending) you really care for and/or admire them. Similarly, the super-agreeable will often promise more than they deliver. (Tucker-Ladd, 2018).
- 4) **The Know-It-All Expert:** Know-it-all experts are of two types the truly competent, productive, self-assured, genuine expert and the partially informed person pretending to be an expert. Both can be a pain. The true expert may act superior and make others feel stupid; they may be bull headed and impatient with differing opinions; they are often self-reliant, don't need or want any help, and don't want to change. If you are going to deal with the true expert as an equal, you must do your homework thoroughly; otherwise, they will dismiss you. First, listen to them and accurately paraphrase their points. Don't attack their ideas but rather raise questions that suggest alternatives. Secondly, show your respect for his/her competence but don't put yourself down. Lastly, if the expert cannot learn to consider others' ideas, you may be wise to graciously accept a subordinate role as his/her helper. True experts deserve respect.

The pretentious-but-not-real expert is relatively easy to deal with because he/she (unlike liars or cons) is often unaware of how little he/she knows. Such a person can be gently confronted with the facts. Do it when alone with them. Help them save face. They simply want to be admired. (Tucker-Ladd, 2018).

- 5) The Pessimist:** The person who always says, it will not work or we tried that. These angry, bitter people have the power to drag us down because they stir up the old pool of doubt and disappointment within us. So, first of all, avoid being sucked into his/her cesspool of hopelessness. Don't argue, don't immediately offer solutions to the difficulties predicted by the pessimist, instead, make optimistic statements showing that change is possible — and encourage the group to brainstorm leading to several possible alternatives. Then ask what the worst possible consequences of each alternative are (this gives the negativist a chance to do his/her thing but you can use the gloomy predictions in a constructive, problem-solving way). Finally, welcome everyone's help but be willing to do it alone because the pessimist won't volunteer (Tucker-Ladd, 2018).
- 6) The Staller:** A person who puts off decisions for fear someone will be unhappy. Unlike the super-agreeable, the staller is truly interested in being helpful. So, make it easier for him/her to discuss and make decisions. Try to find out what the staller's real concerns are. Don't make demands for quick action. Instead, help the staller examine the facts and make compromises or develop alternative plans (and decide which ones take priority). Give the staller reassurance about his/her decision and support the effective carrying out of the decision (Tucker-Ladd, 2018).

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3 Classroom Observation

A classroom observation is a focused examination of teaching and learning processes through systematic data collection and analysis (Bailey, 2001). The primary purpose of classroom observation is to provide teachers with feedback from an objective, experienced observer, facilitating meaningful discussions about teaching with an advisor. During this process, data is collected on what the teacher is currently doing, what they should be doing, and an assessment of the classroom learning environment. Additionally, the teacher's ability to implement various teaching methods is evaluated (Wragg, 1999).

Classroom observations have long been used to assess both the quality of teaching and the consistency between the planned curriculum and its actual delivery. As Wragg (1999) states, "the purpose of looking at implementation is to see whether there is a mismatch between intention and strategies."

It is also important to recognise that while teachers conduct numerous lessons, only a select few are observed. Therefore, when observing lessons deemed valuable, it is crucial that these sessions are thoroughly analysed. Observers must go beyond simply expressing goodwill or vaguely commenting on the lesson; otherwise, the observation serves little purpose (Wragg, 1999).

Methods of Observation

Different forms of observation encompass various criteria, which may be either comprehensive or specific. Some observation forms focus on learners' behaviour, while others examine teachers' responses to such behaviours.

Each observation method requires specific instruments. These instruments can include forms that observers need to complete, which may be as simple as a blank sheet, or they could take the form of worksheets, checklists, or specialised computer software. The setting of the lesson can influence observers, leading them to focus on certain aspects of teaching, particularly in specific subjects like English. This focus can impact their observational approach: some may adopt a quantitative style, systematically counting and recording individual events, while others may prefer a qualitative method, that allows for a deeper understanding of underlying trends and patterns beyond mere frequencies (Wragg, 1999).

There are several observation tools that teachers use during their classes or in peer observation settings (Malamah-Thomas, 1987; Wajnryb, 1992). These instruments serve as valuable developmental tools for both teachers and trainees. They enable both parties to examine the lesson systematically and to benefit from feedback provided by advisors.

Classroom observation should focus on enhancing the professional growth of teachers rather than intimidating them. Emphasising the strengths of lessons is crucial; through their interactions with learners, educators can identify both effective teaching methods and areas that require improvement.

Supervisors / Heads of Departments (HODs) play an important role in collaborating with teachers, providing them opportunities to reflect on their own practices. This process is intended to become a fundamental aspect of teaching and learning. Consequently, it evolves into a reflective-in-action approach, where teachers critically examine their methods during the teaching process.

As a result, classroom observation has become increasingly important, primarily for professional development. Through experiential learning, teachers engage in self-evaluation, allowing them to reflect on their teaching strategies. Heron (cited in Randall and Thornton, 2001) explains that by drawing on their experiences, teachers are prompted to uncover significant incidents, reflect on them to discover new meanings, and then prepare to integrate these insights into their future teaching practices. This ongoing reflection ultimately enhances the quality of education provided to learners.

Phases of Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is conducted through three main phases that were adapted from Day (1993) and Richards and Lockhart (1994):

- **Pre-Observation Phase**
- **Observation (Data Collection) Phase**
- **Post-Observation (Follow-Up) Phase**

Pre-Observation Phase is conducted before the classroom observation. Its primary purpose is to share information that helps both the teacher and the observer prepare for the observation and to illuminate the explicit outcomes of the lesson. It also aims at outlining the activities through which these outcomes are expected to be attained. **Information exchanged** during this meeting includes:

- The purpose of the observation
- Course information
- Lesson plan
- Instructional aim(s)
- Class activities
- Instructional methods
- Specific aspects the observer should pay attention to

Observation (Data Collection) Phase or the execution of the lesson. The observers **gather information** to be discussed later with the teacher. The data typically include:

- Teacher's performance
- Learners' performance
- Instructional methods
- Teacher-learner interaction
- Learner-learner interaction
- Session flow

Generally, the observer will use a checklist tool designed for classroom observation. Analysis of the collected data and preparation for the post-observation phase take place immediately after the lesson.

Post-Observation (Follow-Up) Phase: Shortly after the observation process, the observers emphasise the positive aspects, particularly the strengths demonstrated in the lesson. Initially, the teacher will evaluate and reflect on their own teaching. After this self-assessment, the observers will discuss the data they collected during the observation with the teacher. The discussion centres around the following:

- Organisation and presentation
- Level of learner concentration
- Interaction and participation
- Quality of interpersonal relationships (rapport)
- Effectiveness of instruction
- Teacher self-reflection

This stage is primarily descriptive, allowing the observers to outline the various phases of the lesson while providing constructive feedback on areas the teacher identified for improvement during the pre-observation phase. Many of these areas for improvement are often highlighted by the teachers themselves, as they reflect on their teaching practices.

To ensure that classroom observation is conducted effectively, the supervisors / HODs will focus solely on data collection and will not engage in any other activities. According to Randall and Thornton (2005), a supervisor or HOD whose only responsibility is to observe and take notes is referred to as a non-participant observer (Gebhard and Oprandy, 1999). This type of observation requires the observer to refrain from interacting with the individuals being observed and instead concentrate on specific behaviours that meet predefined criteria (Wragg, 1999; Hopkins, 1999, 2002). Observers need to approach the observation process without preconceptions, maintaining an open mind throughout the experience (Wragg, 1999).

Types of Observers

Classroom observations have traditionally been conducted by administrators and experienced teachers mainly for teacher evaluation. In recent times, however, there has been an increasing emphasis on using observations as a tool for staff development and educational research. Teacher trainers and educational researchers argue that these observations can provide valuable feedback to teachers, leading to improvements in the effectiveness of both teaching and learning. Two main **types of observers** can be distinguished:

- **Internal Observers:** Trainee Teachers / Peer Observers (colleagues) / Heads of Departments / School Principals / Vice Principals / Self-Observers
- **External Observers:** Peer Observers (other schools) / Supervisors / Educational Researchers

Classroom Observation Form

The classroom observation form utilises a four-level rating scale to assess a teacher's overall effectiveness across various professional domains. The scale includes:

- **Highly Effective (HE):** The teacher consistently demonstrates exemplary performance and exceeds expectations.
- **Effective (E):** The teacher meets expectations and performs competently in most areas.
- **Needs Improvement (NI):** The teacher occasionally meets expectations but requires further development or support.
- **Not Observed (NO):** The behaviour or practice was not observed during the lesson.

The observation criteria are organised into several key domains, each focusing on specific aspects of teaching and classroom performance.

1) Personal Qualities & Linguistic Proficiency:

“Those who know, do. Those who understand, teach.” Aristotle

An effective teacher possesses essential qualities and characteristics that significantly contribute to their success and effectiveness in the classroom. Key traits for becoming an effective educator include the ability to build learner confidence, maintain a professional demeanor, and exhibit positive body language. Establishing a strong rapport with learners through friendliness and respect fosters an atmosphere of trust and comfort, which is crucial for effective learning.

Moreover, effective communication is enhanced by linguistic proficiency, which encompasses accurate pronunciation, appropriate intonation, and correct stress patterns. These skills not only enable teachers to serve as positive language models but also inspire learners to express themselves clearly and confidently. Overall, these attributes work together to create an engaging and supportive learning environment.

Some of the most essential characteristics of becoming an effective teacher:

- Has the desire to teach
- Understands and works well with people
- Manages time effectively
- Is approachable, enthusiastic, and caring
- Evaluates learners objectively
- Understands learners' learning style
- Can teach with or without audiovisual aids
- Is motivated, well-prepared, self-confident, and patient
- Can effectively use problem-solving scenarios as teaching tools
- Demonstrates competence in the subject matter
- Willingly adapts to the ever-changing needs of his learners

(n.d.). Retrieved from: <http://www.studylecturenotes.com/social-sciences/education/224-qualities-of-a-good-teacher>

2) Planning and Preparation:

Effective teaching begins with careful and purposeful planning. Teachers need to prepare mentally and develop a written plan that outlines the flow of the lesson. It is crucial to manage instructional time effectively to maintain a balanced rhythm among teacher explanations, learner practice, and periods of reflection.

Successful planning involves identifying clear learning outcomes, selecting appropriate activities, and choosing materials and resources that align with those outcomes. When planning is systematic and goal-oriented, it enhances the meaning and coherence of the learning experience for learners.

3) Instruction:

High-quality instruction effectively engages learners by employing a variety of practical strategies that meet their individual needs and interests. Teachers should provide ample opportunities for practice and application, enabling learners to internalise new concepts and language forms. Additionally, instruction should connect classroom content to important values such as cooperation, responsibility, and respect. It is also essential to integrate 21st-century skills, including communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and creativity. By using diverse assessment tools, educators can provide continuous feedback and foster ongoing improvement, ensuring that teaching and learning remain dynamic, responsive and effective.

4) Classroom Environment & Interaction:

An **effective classroom environment** nurtures respect, engagement, and intellectual curiosity. Skilled teachers cultivate a positive atmosphere where learners feel safe to share their ideas, participate actively, and collaborate with one another. Good classroom management plays a crucial role in maintaining discipline and facilitating smooth transitions, resulting in a learning environment that balances structure with freedom. This balance allows learners to thrive both academically and socially.

Use of Questions and discussion techniques. Effective teachers utilise questioning and discussion as essential tools to stimulate curiosity and enhance understanding. Purposeful questioning encourages learners to think critically, articulate their reasoning, and build on the ideas of others. Additionally, structured discussions, whether conducted in pairs, small groups, or as a whole class, allow learners to refine their thoughts, practice language skills, and engage in respectful debates. Together, these techniques transform the classroom into a dynamic environment for communication, problem-solving, and the exchange of ideas.

Effective Questioning Practices. Effective questioning techniques are crucial for fostering higher-order thinking and keeping learners engaged in the classroom. Research and experience in education highlight several effective strategies for teachers:

1. **Start with Thought-Provoking Questions:** Begin lessons with questions that activate prior knowledge and stimulate curiosity.
2. **Vary Question Types:** Employ a range of question types—factual, inferential, analytical, and evaluative—to address different levels of thinking and cater to diverse learner needs.
3. **Use Open-Ended Questions:** Incorporate questions that require learners to explain their reasoning, justify their answers, or provide personal responses, promoting deeper engagement.
4. **Allow Wait Time:** After posing a question, give learners sufficient time to think critically and formulate their responses.
5. **Encourage Learner Questions:** Invite learners to ask their own questions, which fosters a sense of inquiry and independence in their learning.
6. **Implement Follow-Up Prompts:** Use prompts like “Why do you think so?” or “Can you give an example?” to encourage learners to elaborate on their answers and develop their thinking further.
7. **Balance Participation:** Ensure that all learners have opportunities to contribute by evenly distributing questions among them.
8. **Provide Feedback and Reinforcement:** Offer constructive feedback and positive reinforcement to boost motivation and support learner achievement.

By embracing these strategies, teachers can create an inclusive and engaging learning environment. Encouraging collaboration, reflection, and respectful dialogue helps learners build confidence, improve their communication skills, and enhance their critical thinking abilities. This approach transforms the classroom into a dynamic community of engaged and independent learners.

Classroom management skills. Teaching is one of the most challenging and underrated professions in the world. Many people assume that it does not require specialised skills, yet few realise the immense effort and expertise needed to manage a classroom full of learners. A good teacher must be thoroughly knowledgeable in the subject matter and possess the skills necessary to maintain discipline and order among learners. In summary, effective classroom management relies on several key skills:

1. **Authority:** A teacher who is confident and maintains a positive attitude can naturally command authority through their presence.
2. **Knowledge:** To be taken seriously and earn learners' respect, a teacher must have a deep understanding of their subject and a working knowledge of other subjects as well.
3. **Individualisation:** Effective teachers know how to adapt their lessons based on the diverse needs of their learners, considering the varying levels of ability: average, below average, and above average.
4. **Time-management:** When a class is engaging and interesting, managing learners becomes much easier. Conversely, learners are more likely to misbehave when they feel bored or disengaged.
5. **Patience:** Lastly, teachers who excel at classroom management demonstrate considerable patience.

5) Teaching Facilities:

Modern classrooms thrive on the effective integration of technology and teaching aids. Teachers are encouraged to utilise ICT tools and digital resources to engage learners and deepen their understanding. Supplementary materials, like worksheets, visuals, and interactive media, enhance lesson delivery and accommodate various learning styles, including visual and kinesthetic learners. By effectively using available facilities and resources, lessons can be transformed into enriching learning experiences that are engaging, practical, and aligned with the demands of contemporary education.

6) Written Work:

Written work is an essential component of both teaching and assessment, reflecting how effectively learning has been planned, delivered, and monitored. Teachers are expected to follow up on learners' written work regularly to ensure progress and accountability. Consistent checking of notebooks and assignments helps track individual performance, identify learning gaps, and provide timely support.

Regular written feedback encourages learners to value accuracy, presentation, and continuous improvement. Effective teachers ensure that written tasks are **accurate, varied, and adequate**—covering different language skills, task types, and levels of difficulty. They also guide learners in applying corrections, developing handwriting and layout conventions, and maintaining organised notebooks that reflect pride in their work.

Comparison of Evaluation Forms

The table below compares the **Primary/Intermediate Visit Observation Form** and the **Secondary Teacher Evaluation Sheet** provided by the English Language Teaching (ELT) General Supervision. Both aim to evaluate teaching performance but differ in rating scale, structure and educational approach.

Feature	Primary / Intermediate Visit Form	Secondary Teacher Evaluation Sheet
Rating Scale	(Highly Effective – Effective – Needs Improvement – Not Observed).	(Excellent – Very Good – Good – Average – Fair).
Structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Personal Qualities & Linguistic Proficiency - Planning & Preparation - Instruction - Classroom Environment & Interaction - Teaching Facilities - Written Work Follow-up 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Personal Qualities - Language Knowledge - Interpersonal Relations - Planning - Implementation - Written Work Follow-up.
Educational Approach	Outcomes-based: assesses achievement of learning outcomes and teaching impact	Objectives-based: measures performance against specific teaching objectives

Conclusion

In summary, classroom observation is the most widely used method for collecting data related to teacher evaluations and professional development. To capture a comprehensive understanding of a teacher's performance, it is essential to conduct multiple observations, as relying on a single observation does not provide adequate insight.

The interactions between teachers and learners, along with the instructional strategies employed, have a significant influence on learning outcomes. Through classroom observations, supervisors and HODs can provide valuable feedback that supports improvements in teaching practices. As noted by Hopkins (2002), the purpose of classroom observation extends beyond research; it is also crucial for the ongoing professional development of teachers.

Primary / Intermediate Stage Class Visit Sheet

Ministry Of Education
E.L.T. General Supervision

**Observation Form**

School	
Day & Date:	
Teacher's Name:	

Class	Period	Unit	Lesson	SB. P.	WB. P.

Rating Scale: (Highly Effective - Effective – Needs Improvement – Not Observed)				
Personal Qualities & Linguistic Proficiency	HE	E	NI	NO
Displays confidence, professional manner, and effective body language.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Establishes good rapport with learners using friendly attitude & manners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Demonstrates proficiency in English with accurate pronunciation, intonation, and stress.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Planning & Preparation	HE	E	NI	NO
Demonstrates mental planning supported by the written plan.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Uses instructional time effectively maintaining a balance between teacher input, students practice and reflection.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Selects suitable learning outcomes & relevant activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Designs an informative, well organized & systematic lesson plan.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Selects appropriate materials & resources to support learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Instruction	HE	E	NI	NO
Uses varied & effective strategies and techniques appropriate to learners' needs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provides sufficient opportunities for practice and application of new language.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Connects instructional materials with core values and 21 st century skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Uses effective & varied assessment tools.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Classroom Environment & Interaction	HE	E	NI	NO
Utilizes classroom management skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provides constructive feedback & praise to reinforce achievement.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Promotes logical, critical & creative thinking.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Caters for diverse learning styles & multiple intelligences.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provides sufficient opportunities to promote active learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching Facilities	HE	E	NI	NO
Uses ICT tools & digital resources to enhance learners' engagement.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Integrates supplementary materials (work sheets, visuals,..etc..) to enrich lesson delivery.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Written Work Follow-up	Remarks: <input type="checkbox"/> Regular <input type="checkbox"/> Accurate <input type="checkbox"/> Varied <input type="checkbox"/> Adequate
Remarks and recommendations:	

Secondary Stage Class Visit Sheet

Ministry of Education
ELT General Supervision
School Year:



وزارة التربية
التوجيه الفني العام للغة الإنجليزية
العام الدراسي:

Teacher's Evaluation Sheet
(Supervisor / HOD)

Day / Date	Period	Class	Unit :	Lesson :
PB. Page:			WB page:	
Teacher's name:				

RS	Domains of Evaluation			Language / Linguistic Knowledge	Inter - Personal Relations	Planning			Implementation							W. W.									
	voice Audibility & Tone Variety	Self-Confidence	Classroom Management			Accuracy of Pronunciation	Fluency in Spoken English	Correctness of Grammar	Classroom Language (English)	Ensuring Equal Opportunities	Involving learners	Prompting P/P Inter. (P/G Work)	Clarity & Specification of Objectives	Organization & Elaboration	Variety & relevance of Activities		Suitability of Teaching Aids	Design of Wrap-up	Warm-up Activities	Questioning Techniques	Integration of Language Skills	Language Presentation & Practice	Use of Whiteboard / Equivalent	Use of Aural & Visual Stimuli	Assessment techniques & tools

NB: Ranking Scale: (BA) Below Average (A) Average (G) Good (VG) Very good (E) Excellent

Procedure:

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4 Curriculum Development and Evaluation

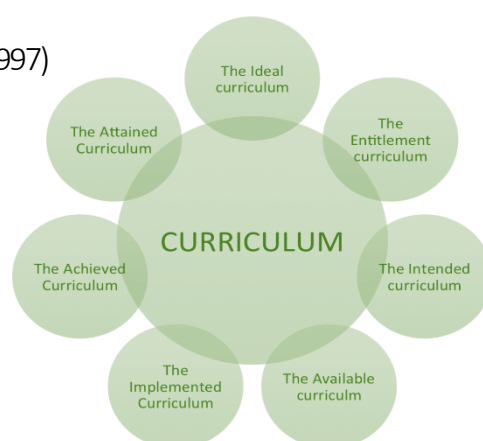
When teachers are asked what curriculum means to them, they always indicate that it means the **overt or written** curriculum—thinking of a curriculum manual with goals and objectives, or their textbooks. However, the word “curriculum” as it is defined from its early Latin origins means literally “to run a course.” If one thinks of a marathon with mile and direction markers, signposts, water stations, and officials and coaches along the route, this beginning definition is a metaphor for what the curriculum has become in the education of our children.

Curriculum design is a term used to describe the purposeful, deliberate, and systematic organization of curriculum (instructional blocks) within a class or course. In other words, it is a way for teachers to plan instruction. When teachers design curriculum, they identify what will be done, who will do it, and what schedule to follow.

Here are some other various definitions of curriculum, from (Oliva, 1997)

Curriculum is:

- that which is taught in schools
- A set of subjects.
- content
- A program of studies.
- A set of materials.
- A sequence of courses.
- A set of performance objectives.
- A course of study.
- Everything that goes on within the school, including extra-class activities, guidance, and interpersonal relationships.
- Everything that is planned by school personnel.
- A series of experiences undergone by learners in a school.
- That which an individual learner experiences as a result of schooling.



Purpose of Curriculum Design

Teachers design each curriculum with a specific educational purpose in mind. The ultimate goal is to improve student learning, but there are other reasons to employ curriculum design as well. For example, designing a curriculum for middle school students with both elementary and high school curricula in mind helps to make sure that learning goals are aligned and complement each other from one stage to the next. If a middle school curriculum is designed without taking prior knowledge from elementary school or future learning in high school into account it can create real problems for students.

Types of Curriculum Design

There are **three basic types of curriculum design**:

- Subject-centered design
- Learner-centered design
- Problem-centered design

Subject-Centered Curriculum Design

Subject-centered curriculum design revolves around a particular subject matter or discipline. For example, a subject-centered



curriculum may focus on math or biology. This type of curriculum design tends to focus on the subject rather than the individual. It is the most common type of curriculum used in public schools.

Subject-centered curriculum design describes what needs to be studied and how it should be studied. Core curriculum is an example of a subject-centered design which can be standardized across schools, states, and the country as a whole. In standardized core curricula, teachers are provided with a pre-determined list of things that they need to teach their students, along with specific examples of how these things should be taught. You can also find subject-centered designs in large college classes in which teachers focus on a particular subject or discipline. (Banks, 2019)

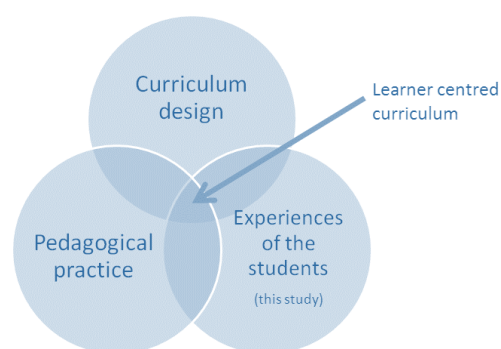
The primary drawback of subject-centered curriculum design is that it is not student-centered. In particular, this form of curriculum design is constructed without taking into account the specific learning styles of the students. This can cause problems with student engagement and motivation and may even cause students to fall behind in class.

Learner-Centered Curriculum Design

In contrast, learner-centered curriculum design takes each individual's needs, interests, and goals into consideration. In other words, it acknowledges that students are not uniform and adjusts to those student needs. Learner-centered curriculum design is meant to empower learners and allow them to shape their education through choices.

Instructional plans in a learner-centered curriculum are differentiated, giving students the opportunity to choose assignments, learning experiences or activities. This can motivate students and help them stay engaged in the material that they are learning.

The drawback to this form of curriculum design is that it is labour intensive. Developing differentiated instruction puts pressure on the teacher to create instruction and/or find materials that are conducive to each student's learning needs. Teachers may not have the time or may lack the experience or skills to create such a plan. Learner-centered curriculum design also requires that teachers balance student wants and interests with student needs and required outcomes, which is not an easy balance to obtain. (Ellis, 2019)



Problem-Centered Curriculum Design

Like learner-centered curriculum design, problem-centered curriculum design is also a form of student-centered design. Problem-centered curricula focus on teaching students how to look at a problem and come up with a solution to the problem. Students are thus exposed to real-life issues, which helps them develop skills that are transferable to the real world.

Problem-centered curriculum design increases the relevance of the curriculum and allows students to be creative and innovate as they are learning. The drawback to this form of curriculum design is that it does not always take learning styles into consideration.

What are the different kinds of curricula?

Obviously the answer to this question is subject to interpretation. Since curriculum reflects the models of instructional delivery chosen and used, some might indicate that curriculum could be categorized according to the common psychological classifications of the four families of learning theories **“Social, Information Processing, Personalist, and Behavioral.”** Longstreet and Shane have dubbed divisions in curricular orientations as: **child-centered, society-centered, knowledge-centered, or edectic.** Common philosophical orientations of

curriculum parallel those beliefs espoused by different philosophical orientations – **Idealism**, Realism, Perennialism, Essentialism, Experimentalism, Existentialism, Constructivism, Re-constructivism and the like.

The following represent the various different types of curricula used in schools today

Type of Curriculum	Definition
1. Overt, explicit, or written curriculum	Is simply that which is written as part of formal instruction of schooling experiences. It may refer to a curriculum document, texts, films, and supportive teaching materials that are overtly chosen to support the intentional instructional agenda of a school. Thus, the overt curriculum is usually confined to those written understandings and directions formally designated and reviewed by administrators, curriculum directors and teachers, often collectively.
2. Societal curriculum (or social curricula)	As defined by Cortes (1981). Cortes defines this curriculum as: [the] massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighborhoods, churches, organizations, occupations, mass media, and other socializing forces that “educate” all of us throughout our lives. This type of curricula can now be expanded to include the powerful effects of social media (YouTube; Facebook; Twitter; Pinterest, etc.) and how it actively helps create new perspectives, and can help shape both individual and public opinion.
3. The hidden or covert curriculum	That which is implied by the very structure and nature of schools, much of what revolves around daily or established routines. Longstreet and Shane (1993) offer a commonly accepted definition for this term – the “hidden curriculum,” which refers to the kinds of learning children derive from the very nature and organizational design of the public school, as well as from the behaviors and attitudes of teachers and administrators....” Examples of the hidden curriculum might include the messages and lessons derived from the mere organization of schools — the emphasis on: sequential room arrangements; the cellular, disciplined messages where concentration equates to student behaviours. In what I term floating quotes, popularized quotes that have no direct, cited sources, David P. Gardner is reported to have said: <i>We learn simply by the exposure of living. Much that passes for education is not education at all but ritual. The fact is that we are being educated when we know it least.</i>
4. The null curriculum	That which we <u>do not teach</u> , thus giving students the message that these elements are not important in their educational experiences or in our society. Since it is physically impossible to teach everything in schools, many topics and subject areas must be intentionally excluded from the written curriculum. But Eisner’s position on the “null curriculum” is that when certain subjects or topics are left out of the overt curriculum, school personnel are sending messages to students that certain content and processes are not important enough to study. Unfortunately, without some level of awareness that there is also a well-defined implicit agenda in schools, school personnel send this same type of message via the hidden curriculum. These are important to consider when making choices. We teach about wars but not peace, we teach about certain select cultures and histories but not about others. Both our choices and our omissions send messages to students.

There are other types of curricula used in schools nowadays such as:

- Phantom curriculum
- Concomitant curriculum
- Rhetorical curriculum
- Curriculum-in-use
- Received curriculum
- The internal curriculum
- The electronic curriculum

**The Curriculum Development Process**

The development of an effective curriculum guide is a multi-step, ongoing and cyclical process. The process progresses from

evaluating the existing program, to designing an improved program, to implementing a new program and back to evaluating the revised program.

Many school districts carryout this process in a planned and systematic manner that includes the eleven components listed in Figure 1-1. Each of these components is addressed in the sections that follow. (Shane, 1993)

Figure 1-1**Components of an Effective Curriculum Development Process****A. Planning:**

- 1) Convening a Curriculum Development Committee
- 2) Identifying Key Issues and Trends in the Specific Content Area
- 3) Assessing Needs and Issues

B. Articulating and Developing:

- 4) Articulating a Program Philosophy
- 5) Defining the Program, Grade-Level and Course Goals
- 6) Developing and Sequencing of Grade-Level and Course Objectives
- 7) Identifying Resource Materials to Assist with Program Implementation
- 8) Developing and/or Identifying Assessment Items and Instruments to Measure Student Progress

C. Implementing:

- 9) Putting the New Program into Practice

D. Evaluating:

- 10) Updating the Program
- 11) Determining the Success of the Program

A. Planning**1) Convening a Curriculum Development Committee:**

Such a committee, consisting primarily of teachers who represent the various schools and grade levels in a district, administrators, members of the public and perhaps students, becomes the driving force for curriculum change and the long-term process of implementing the curriculum. It is critical that an effective, knowledgeable and respected chairperson lead such a committee and it includes knowledgeable and committed members who gradually become the district's de facto "experts" during the development phases of the process as well as the implementation phases. (• Eisner, 1994)

2) Identifying Key Issues and Trends in the Specific Content Area:

The first step in any curriculum development process involves research that reviews recent issues and trends of the discipline, both within the district and across the nation. This research allows a curriculum committee to identify key issues and trends that will support the needs assessment that should be conducted and the philosophy that should be developed.

Research often begins with a committee's reading and discussing timely, seminal and content specific reports from curriculum associations. Committee members should examine what is currently being taught in the curriculum. They should examine national/local standards in the discipline. Committee members should also be provided with recent district Mastery Test and Academic Performance Test results and be familiar with the instructional materials and assessments in use throughout the program. In addition, the committee should become familiar with newly available instructional materials— particularly those that may eventually be adopted to help implement the new curriculum. Committee members should also broaden their perspective and gather information by visiting other school systems that are recognized leaders in education.

As a result of this process, committee members are likely to identify many of the following **issues and trends that will need to be addressed as the curriculum development process moves forward for:**

- Meeting the needs of all students
- Learning theory and other cognitive psychology findings on how students learn
- what determines developmental readiness or developmental appropriateness
- the current expectations of the field
- the knowledge of and readiness for change on the part of teachers
- the availability of resources;
- the role and availability of information and technology resources
- scheduling issues
- methods and purposes of assessments
- Professional development.



3) Assessing Need and Issues.

Curriculum development should be viewed as a process by which meeting student needs leads to improvement of student learning. Regardless of the theory or model followed, curriculum developers should gather as much information as possible. This information should include the desired outcomes or expectations of a high-quality program, the role of assessment, the current status of student achievement and actual program content. The information should also consider the concerns and attitudes of teachers, administrators, parents and students. The data should include samples of assessments, lessons from teachers, assignments, scores on national/local standardized tests, textbooks currently used, student perception and feedback from parents.

Armed with a common set of understandings that arise from the identification of issues and trends, a curriculum development committee is wise to conduct a needs assessment to best ascertain the perceptions, concerns and desires of each of the stakeholders in the process. By examining this data carefully, it may reveal **key issues that should influence the curriculum design.** For example:

- Teachers maybe dissatisfied with older content and techniques in light of recent research
- test scores may be declining or lower than expected in some or all areas
- teachers may not have materials or may not know how to use materials to enhance understandings
- teachers may want to make far greater use of technology to enhance learning

- teachers and
- others may wish to relate the content of the program more closely to contemporary problems and issues
- teachers maybe looking for ways to increase the amount of interdisciplinary work in which students are engaged
- students may express a need for different and enriched curricular opportunities
- parents and others may have concerns about implementation

Whatever the particular circumstances, an effective curriculum development process usually entails a structured needs assessment to gather information and guide the curriculum development process. **The information, commonly gathered through surveys, structured discussions and test data, most frequently includes:**

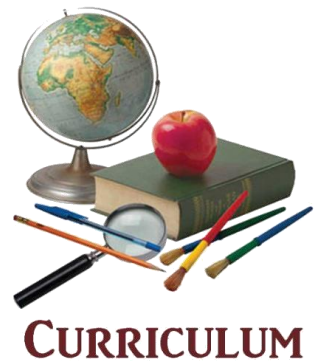
- teacher analysis of the present curriculum to identify strengths, weaknesses, omissions and/or problems
- sample lessons that illustrate curriculum implementation
- sample assessments that illustrate the implementation of the curriculum
- identification of what teachers at each grade level perceive to be the most serious issues within the curriculum;
- a detailed analysis of state and local test data, including test scores, grade-level criterion-referenced test data and course final examination results;
- suggestions for change and improvement generated by meetings with teachers, guidance counselors and administrators; and
- parent and other community members concerns and expectations for the program obtained through surveys and invitational meetings.

B. Articulating and Developing

4) Articulating a Program Philosophy.

These fundamental questions guide the overarching philosophy of the program.

- "Why learn (specific discipline)?"
- "Upon what guiding principles is our program built?"
- "What are our core beliefs about teaching and learning in (specific discipline)?"
- "What are the essential questions?"
- "How will we use assessment to improve the program and student learning?"



CURRICULUM

As such, the program philosophy provides a unifying framework that justifies and gives direction to discipline based instruction. After having studied curriculum trends and assessed the current program, curriculum developers should be ready to construct a draft philosophy guiding the program. Such a philosophy or set of beliefs should be more than just "what we think should be happening, "but rather" what our curriculum is actually striving to reflect." (• Cortes, 1981)

Figure 1-2 provides a checklist for evaluating program philosophy statements.

Figure 1-2

An effective philosophy statement has the following characteristics:

A. Accuracy

The philosophy represents claims that are supportable.

The philosophy states an educationally appropriate case for the role of (Specific discipline) in the Curriculum and its importance in the education for all students.

B. Linkages

The program philosophy is consistent with the country's philosophy of education.

The philosophy provides a sound foundation for program goals and objectives

The country's teachers are sincerely committed to each belief outlined in the philosophy.

C. Breadth and Depth

The philosophy is aligned with sound pedagogical practices.

The philosophy provides a clear and compelling justification for the program

D. Usefulness

The philosophy is written in language that is clear and can be understood by parents and other non-educators.

5) Defining Program, Grade-Level and Course Goals. The purpose of the program philosophy is to:

describe the fundamental beliefs and inform the process of instruction. The curriculum guide delineates the program goals as well as grade-level and course goals that address the key cognitive and affective content expectations for the program.

What are the characteristics of effective program goals?

- *Each goal is broadly conceived, to provide for continuous growth into adult life.*
- *Each goal grows logically out of the philosophy of the specific discipline and the linkage is clear.*
- *Each goal grows out of a National/local goal and the linkage is clear.*
- *The goals are comprehensive enough to provide the basis for a quality program for all learners at all places on the learning continuum.*
- *The goals include each of the outcomes suggested by the philosophy.*
- *Each goal is realistic.*
- *There should be a manageable number of goals.*
- *Each goal lends itself to developing one or more objectives.*

6) Developing and Sequencing of Grade-Level and Course Objectives.

If the philosophy and goals of a curriculum represent the guiding principles of the curriculum, then the grade-level and course objectives represent the core of the curriculum. The specific grade-level and course objectives include clear expectations for what each learner is expected to know and be able to do and how it will be measured.

The committee should consider **several key questions to identify, select, write and sequence objectives**:

- ❖ Is the objective measurable and how will it be measured?
- ❖ Is the objective sufficiently specific to give the reader a clear understanding of what the student should be able to do, without being so detailed as to make the statement labored or the objective insignificant?
- ❖ Is the objective compatible with the goals and philosophy of the program and the real and emerging needs of students?
- ❖ Is the objective realistic and attainable by students?
- ❖ Are appropriate materials and other resources available to make the objective achievable?

As objectives are selected and written, they should be organized in an orderly fashion. This order can be achieved in numerous ways: by grade, by strands, in units, in sequential levels of instruction, through essential questions or through some combination of these. Decisions about the organization of a curriculum guide should be made carefully and reflect the overarching philosophy of the program and the preferences of the teachers who are to use the guide.

- A **graded** structure organizes objectives by the grade in which a student is enrolled and is the most commonly used structure.
- An organization by **units** groups objectives by main topics. Units may or may not be of differing difficulty and maybe large or small, sequential or non-sequential. A unit organization is most commonly used for middle or high school courses.
- A **strand** organization places all of the objectives for a specific topic or strand together in a sequential order, without regard to specific grade. Such an organization lends itself to individual instruction and continuous progress within a strand.
- A **sequential** organization outlines objective in a continuous chain without regard for grade level or strand, and allows for individual student progress along a continuum of skills and experiences. (Ellis, 2019)
- An organization by **big ideas or essential questions** centers the curriculum on enduring understandings. This method develops assessments and determines criteria of acceptable performance related to the essential questions.

Often, an effective guide will incorporate more than one format. For example, a common arrangement lists objectives grouped by strand within each grade level. In this manner the third-grade teacher is provided with a complete listing of the third-grade objectives organized by strand or major topic. However, it is important for this teacher to have access to the second-grade objectives containing skills that may have been introduced, but not taught for mastery, as well as forthcoming fourth grade objectives. This information is often provided in a scope and sequence listing by strand that would place a specific grade objective. Thus, one of the most important roles of grade-level and course objectives is assuring smooth transitions and curricular coordination among levels, particularly between elementary schools and middle schools, and between middle schools and high schools. (Shane, 1993)

In addition to the delineation and sequencing of content through objectives, many curriculum guides provide additional information to help teachers more effectively implement the curriculum. **For example, some curriculum guides:**

- provide an example of what is meant by each objective;
- suggest instructional techniques and strategies for teaching specific objectives;
- suggest appropriate instructional materials that support instruction of specific objectives;
- provide examples of how to differentiate instruction and modify curriculum materials to meet the needs of high performing and/or highly interested students;

- provide information on how the objectives can be evaluated; and
- suggest interdisciplinary links, such as literature connections.

Accordingly, curriculum developers have a range of options for formatting and designing an effective curriculum guide.

7) Identifying Resource Materials to Assist with Program Implementation.

An effective curriculum guide goes beyond a listing of objectives and identifies suggested instructional resources to help answer the question, “What instructional materials are available to help me meet a particular objective or set of objectives?” As teachers and programs move away from a single textbook approach and employ a broad range of supplementary materials, instructional modules for particular units, computer software and the like, it is increasingly important that the curriculum guide suggests and links available resources to curriculum objectives.

8) Developing and/or Identifying Assessment Items and Instruments to Measure Student Progress.

In many cases, a set of grade-level criterion-referenced tests, performance-based tasks and course final examinations that answer concretely the question, “How will I know that my students know and are able to do what is expected of them?” holds an entire curriculum together. This piece of the curriculum development process helps to focus instruction and ensures the often elusive, but critical, alignment of curriculum, instruction and assessment. Essentially the assessment piece of a curriculum is what drives curriculum. The assessments measure not only student progress, but also the effectiveness of the goals and objectives of the curriculum in meeting student needs.

Common grade-level, course criterion-referenced assessments and performance-based assessments should be created along with the curriculum and become part of the curriculum guide itself. The assessments should include clear performance expectations and a rubric that clearly defines the expectations for students and teachers alike. They help to clarify exactly what the grade or course objectives mean and provide a common standard for evaluating how successfully they are achieved.

C. Implementing

9) Putting the New Program into Practice.



Too often, traditional practice entails sending a committee away for several after-school meetings and two weeks of summer writing as prelude to a back-to-school unveiling and distribution of the updated or revised curriculum. The process envisioned here entails a much more in-depth and systematic approach to both development and implementation. Instead of assuming that the process ends with the publication of a new guide, an effective curriculum committee continues to oversee the implementation, updating and evaluation of the curriculum.

It is important to remember that any innovation introduced into a system—including a new curriculum—requires time and support to be fully implemented. First, teachers need time and opportunities to become **aware** of the new curriculum and its overall design, particularly how it differs from the past. Then teachers need time and opportunities to become **familiar** with the new curriculum—often school or grade level sessions that focus on those specific parts of the curriculum for which individuals are responsible. Next, teachers need at least two years to **pilot** the new curriculum and new materials in their classrooms. It is not unusual for this period to take up to two years before the new curriculum is fully **implemented** and comfortably integrated into day-to-day practice. It is critical that the curriculum development committee, resource teachers and principals are aware of this process and are available to nurture it.

D. Evaluating

10) Updating the New Program.

In this age of word processing and loose-leaf bound curriculum guides, it is easier than ever to update the guides and keep them as living, changing documents.

One of the most common methods of periodically updating a curriculum guide is through grade-level meetings designed to share materials, activities, units, assessments and even student work that support the achievement of the curriculum goals that were unknown or unavailable when the guide was first developed. These approaches are invaluable professional development opportunities wherein teachers assume ownership of the curriculum they are responsible for implementing. In this way, the guide becomes a growing resource for more effective program implementation. Resource teachers are particularly effective vehicles for the preparation and distribution of these updates.

11) Determining the Success of the New Program.

The curriculum development cycle ends and then begins again with a careful evaluation of the effectiveness and impact of the program using surveys, focused discussions and meetings. A curriculum development committee needs to periodically gather data on perceptions of program strengths, weaknesses, needs, preferences for textbooks and other materials, and topics or objectives that do not seem to be working effectively. This information should be gathered from data that represents overall student performance that is linked closely to daily instruction. Teams of teachers responsible for the specific discipline could accomplish this by sharing samples of assessments, performance tasks, student work, lessons and instructional practices related to the curricula. The data from these surveys and meetings must then be combined with a careful analysis of more numerical data on the program such as:

- ❖ ongoing grade-level and course criterion-referenced exam data
- ❖ teacher developed assessments, performance assessments, student portfolios
- ❖ course enrollments (particularly by level in middle and high schools)
- ❖ different types of test results (overall, over time and by objective) This detailed review and analysis of quantitative and qualitative information on the program's impact and on people's perceptions of its strengths and weaknesses forms the foundation for the next round of curriculum development and improvement.

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5 Planning for Supervisors

Christison and Murray (2008, p.128) have noted that, as consultants in ELT, successful ELT programs and organizations are characterized by two qualities: they have a strategic plan and they have leaders who understand the process of strategic planning and competent in developing and implementing strategic planning. It follows that for any language program to succeed there should be a plan and competent leadership to create the plan and to oversee its implementation. The aim of this chapter, then, is to acquaint nominee supervisors with the process of strategic planning, develop a strategic plan as well as leadership skills to implement a strategic plan.

What is strategic planning?

Pearce, Freeman and Robinson (1997 cited in Christison and Murray, 2008 p. 129) define strategic planning as “the process of determining the mission, major objectives, strategies and policies that govern the acquisition and allocation of resources to achieve organizational aims”.

The role of strategic planning in ELT

Strategic planning originated from business and was adopted in education in general and in English language teaching “to improve the educational outcomes of language learners” (p.130), to provide direction and to ensure that all staff share the same goals.

Steps in strategic planning

Christison and Murray (2008, p.128) note that “there is no perfect way to conduct strategic planning” but there are three main steps that experts in strategic consider to be the most important namely: (1) assessing the situation, (2) determining the organization’s goals, and (3) deciding on a path for getting from the present to the goal at some point in the future. (Christison and Murray (2008, p.131).

Klinghammer (1997, p. 64) cited in Richards (2001, p. 203) outlines the function of strategic planning in language teaching and identifies six elements of a good strategic plan: vision, mission, values, purpose, goals and strategies.

Assessing the situation

Assessing the situation looks at the “current situation with a focus on key issues/ problems and their implications” (UNHCR,1999, p.38). In this phase, information is gathered, analyzed and interpreted about the stakeholders involved in teaching English including, learners, teachers, supervisors and other stakeholders. Some of the questions that should be answered at this stage are the following:

- What is the current situation?
- What are we currently doing to effect change towards the desired situation?
- What are the core problems we must address, and what are their causes and effects?
- What constraints must be overcome or deal with?
- What lessons have we learned thus far that we should apply in the future? (UNHCR,1999, p.39)

Determining the organization's goals / strategy formulation

Once the assessment of the current situation is carried

out, the information gathered at this stage will form the basis on which the strategic plan will be developed. It includes vision, mission and value statements development as well as goals and objectives development.

Vision statement

Christison and Murray (2008, p.133) define vision statements as “brief written descriptions of the purpose of the organization, used to communicate with individuals external to the organization”. They give the following example to illustrate what is meant by vision “Full participation in a cohesive and diverse society”. The UNHCR (1999, p.39) describe vision as “our image of how things should be, i.e., the desired situation in terms of how we want the situation to be transformed as a result of the impact of our and our partners' efforts.” Klinghammer (1997, p. 64) cited in Richards (2001, p. 203) defines vision as “a statement of where a language program is going in the long term and what its members hope to accomplish”.

Key questions that should be answered during vision development include:

- What is the desired situation we want and within what time frame?
- What overall impact do we want our efforts to have?
- What is the chain of results necessary to achieve the overall impact we want?
- If we make maximum use of all available resources in the most efficient way possible, what will be the result?
- How will we measure our impact? (UNHCR, 1999, p.39)

Mission statement

Christison and Murray (2008, p.134) define a mission statement as “an aim for the future, based on the vision”. They further add that “a mission statement is usually a description of how the organization will or should operate in the future and of how customers or clients [in our case learners and teachers] will benefit from the organization's ... services.” Klinghammer (1997, p. 64) cited in Richards (2001, p. 203) defines mission as “a description of the institution's vision in terms of specific goals that it seeks to achieve, usually within a particular period of time. This is expressed in the form of a mission statement”.

Value statements

Christison and Murray (2008, p.134) define value statements as “the overall priorities for the organization “which “can be focused on moral values such as acting with integrity, honesty and respect” or professional behavior and values such as “planning lessons carefully, showing concern for students or returning papers in a timely manner”. They further add that value statements “can be also focused on organizational values such as improving the quality of instruction at all levels and creating more opportunities for teacher growth and development.” Klinghammer (1997, p. 64) cited in Richards (2001, p. 203) defines values as “the principles that guide the conduct of a program in terms of responsibility to students, teachers and other stakeholders”.

The following constitute examples of value statements of the professional organization TESOL:

- Professionalism in language education
- Accessible high quality education
- Interaction of research and reflective practice for educational improvement (Christison and Murray 2008, p.134)

Determining goals and objectives

Goals and objectives have to be aligned with the vision, mission and values statements. Goals are

defined as “desired end states that a group of individuals decide are important for the success of an organization.” (Christison and Murray 2008, p.135). Klinghammer (1997, p. 64) cited in Richards (2001, p. 203) describe goals as “specific steps that relate to each aspect of the mission such as developing teaching materials, or providing an environment in which teachers can carry out classroom research”. However, they are not well specified and need to be formulated into objectives which are “are lists of activities that help you achieve your goals”.

Implementing the goals and achieving the strategic plan

For the minimum conditions to be met in order for a strategic plan to be implemented, Klinghammer (Christison and Murray, 2008, p.135) lists the following:

- 1) Each goal has been clearly articulated and individuals have agreed on how it can be achieved by delineating objectives clearly
- 2) The resources necessary to achieve the goals are available
- 3) A detailed timeline for achieving each goal has been established
- 4) The outcomes for each objective are measurable
- 5) A person or persons have been identified to take responsibility to see that each goal is completed

Strategy implementation is important in strategic planning. Klinghammer (1997 cited in Christison and Murray, 2008, p.135) defines strategies as “the methods and activities that will be used to attain the goals”. The (UNHCR, 1999, p.39) states that strategy implementation “involves identifying a range of means (i.e., tactics, the "how") for achieving your vision and determining which ones seem most appropriate”.

Key questions that should be answered in this phase of strategy implementation include:

- What are all the options and alternatives we have available to achieve our vision/objectives?
- What new and creative approaches can we take to make more efficient and effective use of our resources?
- What are the activities necessary to be implemented to deliver the outputs which collectively will achieve the desired impact?

The following are some of the techniques strategic planners use to identify strategic options:

- 1) Brainstorming
- 2) Lateral Thinking
- 3) The Outside Expert
- 4) External Strategy
- 5) Operations Review
- 6) People-Oriented Planning

Monitoring implementation of the strategic plan

It is not enough to create a strategic plan and implement it. The process of implementation needs to be monitored. The following have to be monitored on a regular basis:

- 1) Evaluating the progress on strategies implementation
- 2) Monitoring performance against objectives
- 3) Identifying barriers and obstacles
- 4) Making adjustments to strategies and objective
- 5) Reprioritize, remove or add new strategies

Mission statement		
Goal 1:	Goal : 2	Goal : 3
Objectives	Objectives	Objectives
•	•	•

The Operational plan

What is an operational plan? While a strategic plan is a plan that is formulated at the level of the general supervision and is a long term plan that sets up strategies for the years to come (five years at the minimum), another type of plan that derives from the strategic plan is the operational or action plan. The National Health Service (2011, p.4) defines operational or action planning as “the process that guides the day-to-day activities of an organization or project. It is the process of planning what needs to be done, when it needs to be done, by whom it needs to be done, and what resources or inputs are needed to do it. It is the process of operationalizing the strategic objectives. The Ontario Organizational Development Program (ODDP, 2018, p.3) stresses that an action plan “intended to complement the other planning documents used by the organization, including the strategic plan ... and to support the development of Staff work plans”.

Elements of an operational plan

The National Health Service (2011, p.4) states that most action plans consist of the following elements:

- **Goals** that need to be achieved and that are derived from the strategic plan (the outputs areas that result from the strategic planning process);
- **Objectives** derived from the goals
- **Action steps** that have to be followed to reach this objective; they should be concrete, memorable and attainable. They contribute to the achievement of the goals and objectives.
- A **time plan** or schedule for when each step must take place and how long would take;
- Allocating **responsibility** as to who will carry out the successful completion of each step and who will be supporting them.
- Listing **resources** needed for accomplishing each step. The resources include among others the following:
 - People
 - Materials
 - Services
 - Transport
- **Monitoring progress** of the implementation of the operational plan. Monitoring in the context of action planning is the ongoing assessment of how an organization or project is performing against its action plans. In this context it addresses questions such as:
 - Are results being achieved within the timeframes set?
 - Are resources being efficiently and effectively used?
 - Are we doing what we said we would do and if not, why not?
 - Are we meeting their objectives?

Monitoring helps us determine whether we are implementing our action plan effectively and

efficiently. It helps us account to other stakeholders for what is happening in the project or organization. It helps us learn from mistakes and take corrective action when necessary. (NHS, 2011, p.39)

The following is a template to be used by supervisors to **plan for their action plans**; it can cover any development goal derived from the strategic plan or any problematic area faced while monitoring performance.

Strategic plan goal (general supervision level): Excellence in teaching					
Operational/action plan goal (Area level): teaching methods and techniques					
Operation plan objectives (individual supervisor): 1. Identify techniques used to introduce vocabulary 2. Determine the range and effectiveness of techniques used 3. Track new technique implementation					
Objective 1:					
Action steps	Responsible	Start date	End date	Resources needed	Progress
Identify techniques used to introduce new vocabulary	School supervisor	15/9/2019	26/9/2029	Lesson plans	Ongoing

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6 Professional Development

Introduction

Professional development has been shown to have significant positive effects on teachers, students and the implementation of educational reform.

What is Professional development (PD)?

Glatthorn (1995, p. 41 cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.11) defines professional development as “the growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and examining his or her teaching systematically”.

Characteristics of professional development

Effective professional development has the following **characteristics**:

- A teacher is an active learner engaged in the process of learning and not a recipient of knowledge. (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.13).
- Professional development should be approached as a long term process where teachers continually learn over time and are engaged in a series of learning experiences with continuous follow up and support from their supervisors to allow for change to occur in teachers’ performance and the whole educational system.
- The process of professional development should be school-based where schools are transformed into communities of learners, communities of inquiry, professional communities and caring communities (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.13) engaged on-the-job learning’ activities such as study groups, action research and portfolios (Wood and McQuarrie, 1999 cited in (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.14).
- A teacher should be considered a reflective practitioner “who will acquire new knowledge and experiences based on his prior knowledge”, “building new pedagogical theories and practices” and “developing expertise in the field” (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.14).
- Professional development should be looked upon as a collaborative process that is most effective when meaningful interactions not only among teachers but between teachers, administrators and parents occur. (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.14)

Factors that contribute to successful professional development

The following **principles and**

guidelines have been put forward to make teacher professional development successful.

- Supporting teachers, schools and district initiatives should be supported by trainers.
- Professional development should be rooted in active learning and teaching where active learning is promoted.
- Teachers should be provided with continuous follow up and support.
- Teachers should be provided with feedback on their results. (Gusky 1995; Corcoran 1995; Fullan 1987 cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.18)

The importance of professional development

Professional development is important because it impacts teachers'

performance, student learning and educational change. The following points have been identified as outcomes of effective professional development:

- PD leads to changes in teachers' beliefs which lead to a change in classroom practice. (Baker and Smith 1999 cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.20)
- PD impacts teachers' ability to define teaching goals for their students.
- PD improves teachers' behaviour in the classrooms and schools.
- PD plays an important role in changing teachers' teaching methods, which has a positive impact on students' learning (Borko and Putnam, 1995 cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.21).
- PD improves teachers' pedagogical content knowledge.
- PD enhances teachers' classroom teaching and student achievement.
- PD positively affects teachers' professional knowledge which leads to higher levels of student achievement (cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.21).
- PD has an effect on the success of the implementation of educational reform (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.24).



The role of the trainer/supervisor in CPD:

Supervision means instructing, guiding, monitoring and observing teachers while

they are performing their job. The word supervision is the combination of two words “super” and “vision” where “super” means over and above and “vision” means seeing. So, supervision means seeing the activities of employees from over and above (Vincent, 2019). It follows that a supervisor has a vital role in planning, designing material, implementing and evaluating training:

1. Planning:

In this stage, a supervisor designs a work plan that includes the **main objectives of training** such as:

- 1) Increasing teachers' knowledge about a specific topic.
- 2) Improving teachers' attitudes about the importance of CP for present and future needs.
- 3) Building and strengthening teachers' skills.
- 4) Improving work behaviour so that teachers function better in their environment (Abbatt F R, 2004).

2. Designing training materials

While designing materials for professional development, the following points need to be kept in mind:

- Focusing primarily on the learning needs of teachers and students, and not on what is easily available to the trainer.
- Creating training content and assessments that relate directly to the learning objectives.
- Including as much hands-on practice or simulation as possible as people learn by doing.

- Enabling trainees to talk and interact with the trainer and with each other during the training.
- Breaking the training materials up into small “chunks” that are easier to absorb and understand.
- Using a “blended learning” approach that includes training in several different formats (computer-based, instructor-led, etc.) (Dalto J, 2014)

3. Implementing the Training

The supervisor might conduct the training or arrange for it to be delivered by another trainer. Training could range from on-the-job advice to more formal training programs. (Dalto J, 2014)

4. Evaluating the training

If the supervisor’s goal is to deliver effective training that changes teachers’ behaviour and practice, then the supervisor needs to evaluate the extent to which the training was effective. (Dalto J, 2014)

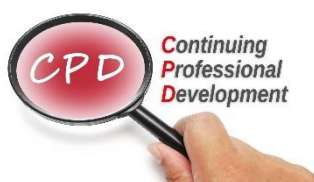
Types of Professional Development

There are different types of professional development for teachers, using a variety of methodologies and tools. The following are some of the widely used **training tools** in professional development:

1. Online courses: These have become so popular during the last decades as a result of the **advancement of** information technology. Their popularity is due to the easiness of access to online materials available. For example, a teacher can get free access to so many online courses around the world with just a click. What makes these courses more useful is that they are interactive. That is, you can take part in activities, you can get peer observation, you can get truthful feedback and you can also share information with almost zero-cost. (Carol F, 2019)

2. Seminars and workshops: School districts usually organize these activities where teachers can share practical experiences about class management, time management, methodologies, different assessment tools, different teaching strategies and different techniques. In addition to that, many schools tend to arrange these seminars and workshops in partnership with other local and international organizations. Many of these training courses may extend to many hours per term or per year and may have a continuing education requirement, with a specific number of courses or hours of teaching required per year to obtain or maintain a license or certification. (Carol F, 2019)

3. One-day training: One of the most popular options of professional development for teachers is a one-day seminar or workshop. Topics can range from classroom management to technology. The format is usually a morning session followed by some practical techniques or a micro-teaching activity. (Carol F, 2019)



4. Observation: In this type of professional development, the supervisor observes teachers in their classrooms, assesses their instructional practices and provides structured feedback. (Mary Burns, 2014)

5. Peer-observation: This model of PD may be used as a support measure following workshops or periodically throughout the school year as a form of peer coaching (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1989). Teachers observe other teachers in action. In such a model, teachers create lessons and invite colleagues to observe the lesson and provide feedback in a post-observation session.

6. Staff meetings: It is where teachers can exchange ideas and negotiate about the best strategies, pedagogies and the best techniques for delivering and enhancing classroom practice and learning.



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7 Report Writing

What is a report?

A report is written for a clear purpose and to a particular audience. Specific information and evidence are presented, analysed and applied to a particular problem or issue. The information is presented in a clearly structured format making use of sections and headings so that the information is easy to locate and follow. When you are asked to write a report you will usually be given a report brief which provides you with instructions and guidelines. The report brief may outline the purpose, audience and problem or issue that your report must address, together with any specific requirements for format or structure. This guide offers a general introduction to report writing; be sure also to take account of specific instructions provided by your department.

What makes a good report?

An effective report presents and analyses facts and evidence that are relevant to the specific problem or issue of the report brief. All sources used should be acknowledged and referenced. The style of writing in a report is usually less discursive than in an essay, with a more direct and economic use of language. A well written report will demonstrate your ability to:

- Understand the purpose of the report.
- Gather, evaluate and analyze relevant information.
- Structure material in a logical and coherent order.
- Present your report in a consistent manner.
- Make appropriate conclusions that are supported by the evidence and analysis of the report.
- Make thoughtful and practical recommendations where required.



The structure of a report

The main features of a report are described below to provide a general guide.

a. Title Page

This should briefly but explicitly describe the purpose of the report (if this is not obvious from the title of the work). Other details you may include could be your name, the date and for whom the report is written.

Geology of the country around Beacon Hill, Leicestershire

Angus Taylor

2 November 2004

Example of a title page

b. Terms of Reference

Under this heading you could include a brief explanation of who will read the report (audience), why it was written (purpose) and how it was written (methods). It may be in the form of a subtitle or a single paragraph.

A report submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for Course GL456, Department of Geology, University of Leicester.

Example of terms of reference

c. Summary (Abstract)

The summary should briefly describe the content of the report. It should cover the aims of the report, what was found and what action is called for. Aim for about 1/2 a page in length and avoid detail or discussion; just outline the main points. Remember that the summary should provide the reader with a clear, helpful overview of the content of the report.

Exposure of rocks belonging to the Charnian Supergroup (late Precambrian) were examined in the area around Beacon Hill, north Leicestershire. This report aims to provide details of the stratigraphy at three sites - Copt Oak, Mount St. Bernard Abbey and Oaks in Charnwood. It was observed that at each of these sites, the Charnian Supergroup consists mainly of volcanoclastic sediments (air-fall and ash-flow tuffs) interbedded with mudstones and siltstones. These rocks show features that are characteristic of deposition in shallow water on the flanks of a volcano. Further studies are required to understand depositional mechanisms and to evaluate the present-day thickness of individual rock units.

Example of a summary (abstract)

d. Contents (Table of Contents)

The contents page should list the different chapters and/or headings together with the page numbers. Your contents page should be presented in such a way that the reader can quickly scan the list of headings and locate a particular part of the report. You may want to number chapter headings and subheadings in addition to providing page references. Whatever numbering system you use, be sure that it is clear and consistent throughout.

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e. Introduction

The introduction sets the scene for the main body of the report. The aims and objectives of the report should be explained in detail. Any problems or limitations in the scope of the report should be identified, and a description of research methods, the parameters of the research and any necessary background history should be included.

The purpose of this report is to
In this report we
The focus of this report is

Example of an introduction**f. Methods**

Information under this heading may include: a list of tools used, procedures followed; relevant information on materials used, including sources of materials and details of any necessary preparation; reference to any problems encountered and subsequent changes in procedure.

g. Results

This section should include a summary of the results of the investigation or experiment together with any necessary diagrams, graphs or tables of gathered data that support your results. Present your results in a logical order without comment. Discussion of your results should take place in the main body (Discussion) of the report.

h. Discussion

The main body of the report is where you discuss your material. The facts and evidence you have gathered should be analyzed and discussed with specific reference to the problem or issue. If your discussion section is lengthy you might divide it into section headings. Your points should be grouped and arranged in an order that is logical and easy to follow.

Use headings and subheadings to create a clear structure for your material. Use bullet points to present a series of points in an easy-to-follow list. As with the whole report, all sources used should be acknowledged and correctly referenced.

i. Conclusion

In the conclusion you should show the overall significance of what has been covered. You may want to remind the reader of the most important points that have been made in the report or highlight what you consider to be the most central issues or findings. However, no new material should be introduced in the conclusion.

j. Appendices

Under this heading you should include all the supporting information you have used that is not published. This might include tables, graphs, questionnaires, surveys or transcripts. Refer to the appendices in the body of your report.

In order to assess the popularity of this change, a questionnaire (Appendix 2) was distributed to 60 employees. The results (Appendix 3) suggest the change is well received by the majority of employees.

Example of use of appendices

k. Bibliography

Your bibliography should list, in alphabetical order by author, all published sources referred to in your report. There are different styles of using references and bibliographies.

l. Acknowledgements

Where appropriate you may wish to acknowledge the assistance of particular organizations or individuals who provided information, advice or help.

Writing the report: the essential stages

All reports need to be clear, concise and well structured. The key to writing an effective report is to allocate time for planning and preparation. With careful planning, the writing of a report will be made much easier. The essential stages of successful report writing are described below. Consider how long each stage is likely to take and divide the time before the deadline between the different stages. Be sure to leave time for final proof reading and checking.

Stage One: Understanding the report brief

This first stage is the most important. You need to be confident that you understand the purpose of your report as described in your report brief or instructions. Consider who the report is for and why it is being written.

Stage Two: Gathering and selecting information

Once you are clear about the purpose of your report, you need to begin to gather relevant information. Your information may come from a variety of sources. Begin by reading relevant literature to widen your understanding of the topic or issue before you go on to look at other forms of information such as questionnaires, surveys etc. As you gather information you need to assess its relevance to your report and select accordingly.

Stage Three: Organizing your material

Once you have gathered information you need to decide what will be included and in what sequence it should be presented. Begin by grouping together points that are related. These may form sections or chapters. Remember to keep referring to the report brief and be prepared to cut any information that is not directly relevant to the report. Choose an order for your material that is logical and easy to follow.



Stage Four: Analyzing your material

Before you begin to write your first draft of the report, take time to consider and make notes on the points you will make using the facts and evidence you have gathered.

What conclusions can be drawn from the material? What are the limitations or flaws in the evidence? Do certain pieces of evidence conflict with one another? It is not enough to simply present the information you have gathered; you must relate it to the problem or issue described in the report brief.

Stage Five: Writing the report

Having organized your material into appropriate sections and headings you can begin to write the first draft of your report. You may find it easier to write the summary and contents page at the end when you know exactly what will be included. Aim for a writing style that is direct and precise. Avoid waffle and make your points clearly and concisely. Chapters, sections and even individual paragraphs should be written with a clear structure. The structure described below can be adapted and applied to chapters, sections and even paragraphs.

- **Introduce** the main idea of the chapter/section/paragraph
- **Explain** and expand the idea, defining any key terms.
- **Present** relevant evidence to support your point(s).
- **Comment** on each piece of evidence showing how it relates to your point(s).
- **Conclude** your chapter/section/paragraph by either showing its significance to the report as a whole or making a link to the next chapter/section/paragraph.



Stage Six: Reviewing and redrafting

Try to read the draft from the perspective of the reader. Is it easy to follow with a clear structure that makes sense? Are the points concisely but clearly explained and supported by relevant evidence? Writing on a word processor makes it easier to rewrite and rearrange sections or paragraphs in your first draft.

Stage Seven: Presentation

Once you are satisfied with the content and structure of your redrafted report, you can turn your attention to the presentation. Check that the wording of each chapter /section /subheading is clear and accurate. Check that you have adhered to the instructions in your report brief regarding format and presentation. Check for consistency in numbering of chapters, sections and appendices. Make sure that all your sources are acknowledged and correctly referenced. You will need to proof read your report for errors of spelling or grammar. If time allows, proof read more than once. Errors in presentation or expression create a poor impression and can make the report difficult to read.

Types of Reports

Type 1. Formal or Informal Reports:

- Formal reports are carefully structured; they stress objectivity and organization, contain much detail, and are written in a style that tends to eliminate such elements as personal pronouns.

- Informal reports are usually short messages with natural, casual use of language.

Type 2. Informational or Analytical Reports:

- Informational reports (annual reports, monthly reports, and reports on personnel absenteeism) carry objective information from one area of an organization to another.
- Analytical reports (scientific research, feasibility reports, and real-estate appraisals) present attempts to solve problems.

Type 3. Proposal Reports:

The proposal is a variation of problem-solving reports. A proposal is a document prepared to describe how one organization can meet the needs of another.

Type 4. Periodic Reports:

Periodic reports are issued on regularly scheduled dates. They are generally upward directed and serve management control. Preprinted forms and computer-generated data contribute to uniformity of periodic reports.

Type 8. Functional Reports:

This classification includes accounting reports, marketing reports, financial reports, and a variety of other reports that take their designation from the ultimate use of the report. Almost all reports could be included in most of these categories. And a single report could be included in several classifications.

Reference

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- ✓ table of contents (Online) retrieved from : <https://www.template.net/business/word-templates/table-of-contents/>



8 Roles & Models of Supervision

Roles of Supervision

No doubt, the role played by the technical supervision is increasingly elevated day by day, in order to cope with the speedy progress and fast going up developments of educational objectives, construction, curricula and the upgrading of the professional standards of everyone concerned.

The Technical Supervisor's Personal and Professional Characteristics.

He / She should be:

- ✓ of good conduct, resourceful, flexible, straightforward, objective, fair, and adherent to the values, traditions, customs and ethics of the society.
- ✓ psychologically balanced
- ✓ self-confident
- ✓ fluent, cultured, fair and well versed in the art of teaching and supervision
- ✓ well aware of modern trends in teaching and supervising,
- ✓ Knowledgeable in his/her major field work.
- ✓ well aware of the school curricula, their objectives, and the most recent teaching methodology adopted and aware of other subjects as well.
- ✓ able to conduct events and report them.
- ✓ co-operative, impartial, democratic and able to make the right decision at the right time.
- ✓ able to encourage teachers to be creative and innovative.
- ✓ able to enhance self-learning, self-enrichment and self-education.

The Technical Supervisor as A Leader Is to; (Innovate & Develop):

This Role Entitles Him/ Her to:

- Be fully aware of the most recent technology and its applications.
- Develop and upgrade teachers' performance.
- Be capable of developing and updating curricula.
- Experiment recently adopted educational methods and pursue their results.
- Design creative programmes to cater for the needs of high and low achievers.

The Technical Supervisor as A Trainer.

This Role Entitles Him/ Her to:

- Properly classify and diagnose the training needs of teachers.
- Discretely plan the needed training courses and assess them.
- Hold specific training courses for needy teachers and recruits.
- Train teachers to use modern educational technology.

The Technical Supervisor as an Evaluator.

This Role Entitles Him/ Her to:

- assess the curriculum in terms of its components including textbooks and participate in authoring and modification committees.
- objectively evaluate teachers' performance.
- help teachers to assess learners using different assessment techniques.
- evaluate school performance to improve it.



- participate in area-wide and state-wide examinations.

The Technical Supervisor as a Researcher.

This Role Entitles Him/ Her to:

- pinpoint the educational problems and think of relevant solutions to each.
- provide teachers with concise summaries of researches on their field of work.
- conduct researches related to field problems and encourage teachers to do so.



The Technical Supervisor as a Coordinator and a Motivator.

This Role Entitles Him/ Her to:

- take the initiative in solving problems among the staff and the school administration.
- boost teachers' morale and alleviate the feelings of job dissatisfaction.
- build up balanced relationships with the teachers.
- facilitate communication channels between the parts of educational process.
- Encourage teachers to work co-operatively.

The Relationship between the Technical Supervisor and School Administration:

- The technical supervisor represents the link between the school administration and the educational zone, being the technical element in the educational process.
- He / She offers recommendations concerning the distribution of school timetable based on each teacher's competence and experience.
- He / she reports about teachers' performance to the principal.
- He / She receives the necessary data from the school administration.
- He / She takes part in planning and evaluating the school activities and competitions

The Relationship between the Technical Supervisor and the Senior Technical Supervisor:

He/ She:

- submits a comprehensive periodical plan of the tasks and activities to be achieved.
- suggests and participates in training courses for teachers according to their needs.
- prepares reports about periodical test results with his/her remarks.
- submits reports about the underachieving teachers to the senior supervisor.
- suggests transfer of teachers among schools.
- submits his / her achievements biweekly to the senior supervisor.

The Relationship between the Technical Supervisor and His/ Her Colleagues and Educational Administrations:

He / She:

- develops and strengthens human relations with his/her colleagues by cooperating and coordinating with them in different tasks, activities and educational projects.
- is keen on attending meetings, seminars, and occasions as planned by his/ her seniors.

The Technical Supervisor's Field Rounds

First: The orientation round.

Second: The instructive round.

Third: The instructive evaluation round.

First: The Orientation Round

- 1) During this round, priority of visits is given to new schools, schools with new administrations, schools with new teachers, schools without a HOD or schools with newly appointed HODs.
- 2) The technical supervisor provides his / her schools with necessary circulars.
- 3) He / She takes notes of teachers' data and introduces him/herself to the staff.
- 4) He / She gives his/her recommendations as to the teachers' timetables.
- 5) He / She holds a meeting to discuss new and urgent educational issues like
- 6) changes in the teaching plan, distribution of the syllabus, new textbooks...etc.
- 7) He / She investigates the availability of textbooks, school utilities, teaching aids and teaching resources.
- 8) He / She records his/ her notes into official registers.

Second: The Instructive Round

- 1) During this round, priority is given to the schools that need more visits based on the orientation round observations.
- 2) The technical supervisor pays visits to some classes then holds a meeting to discuss:
 - ✓ the goals of the school subject, the means to achieve them and the most suitable activities.
 - ✓ teaching aids and how to use them effectively.
 - ✓ tools of assessing learners' performance.
 - ✓ the newly adopted trends in teaching and how to apply them.
 - ✓ the newly applied curricula and modifications if any.
 - ✓ field problems and how to deal with them.
 - ✓ school competitions and field trips.



The technical supervisor records the minutes of his/her meeting into the supervision register.

Third: The Instructive Evaluation Round

- 1) During this round all teachers are paid visits. A variety of classes and objectives are to be considered. Teachers are given feedback about their performance and necessary recommendations are recorded into official registers.
- 2) The technical supervisor frequently holds meetings with teachers of identical grades to discuss specific issues that matter to their classes only.
- 3) He / She checks HODs' registers, and puts his/her remarks clearly into the supervision record.
- 4) He / She informs the school principal about teachers' performance, pupils' achievement, and his/her suggestions for improvement.

Models of Supervision:

Gebhard (1984) devised five models of language teacher supervision. These models are direct supervision; alternative supervision, non-directive supervision, collaborative supervision and creative supervision.

1. Directive Supervision

In directive supervision the role of the supervisor is to direct and inform the teacher, model-teaching behaviours and evaluate the teacher's mastery of defined behaviours. Directive supervision behaviours are divided into two major sections.

(A) Directive informational behaviours. (B) Directive control behaviours.**A. Directive Informational Behaviours:**

- Acts as information source for the goal and activities of the improvement plan, considers teacher feedback.
- Provides a range of alternatives for the teacher to choose one.

- Determines a clear classroom goal for the teacher and directs the teacher to those activities that will lead to the realization of the goal.
- Addresses the what, when, and how of implementing the activities, sets criteria for improvement and reinforces the understanding of what is to be done.

Directive Informational Continuum of Behaviours

Presenting	• Identify the goal. / Review your observation and previous experience and present the goal.
Clarifying	• Ask the teacher for inputs into the goal. / Be careful not to move too quickly into a planning phase until you check to see what the teacher thinks of your interpretation and goal.
Listening	• Understand the teacher's point of view. / Listen to determine if the teacher accepts the goal as an important one or if he/she needs to provide further explanation.
Problem Solving	• Mentally determine possible actions/alternative actions or suggestions.
Directing	• Telling alternatives for teachers to consider. / Give alternative actions as possibilities, based on his/her experience and knowledge, for the teacher to judge, consider, and respond.
Listening	• Ask the teacher for inputs into the alternatives. / Ask the teacher to react to the alternatives. / The teacher has the chance to give the supervisor information to modify, eliminate, and revise before finalizing the choices.
Directing	• Frame the final choices. In a straightforward manner lay out what the teacher could do.
Clarifying	• Ask the teacher to choose. / Ask the teacher to decide and clarify which activities or combinations he/she will use.
Standardizing	• Detail the action to be taken. / Assist the teacher in developing the specifics of the activities and the criteria for success.
Reinforcing	• Repeat and follow up on the plan. / Conclude the conference by restating the goal, the activities to be taken, the criteria for success, and follow-up time for the next observation and/or conference.

Issues in Directive Informational Behaviours

- Issues of confidence and credibility are crucial.
- The supervisor must be confident that his / her own knowledge and experience are superior to and different from those of the teacher.
- The teacher must believe that the supervisor possesses a source of wisdom that he /she does not have.
- The teacher exercises some control in choosing which practices to use.

Supervisor

When to Use Directive Informational Behaviours

- When the teacher is functioning at fairly low developmental levels.
- When the teacher does not possess the knowledge about the issue that the supervisor clearly possesses.
- When the teacher feels confused, inexperienced, or is at a loss for what to do, and the supervisor knows the successful practices.
- When the supervisor is willing to take responsibility for what the teacher chooses to try.
- When the teacher believes that the supervisor is credible.
- When the time is short, the constraints are clear, and quick, concrete actions needed to be taken.

B. Directive Control Behaviours

- They are based on the assumption that the supervisor has greater knowledge and expertise about the issue at hand.

- The supervisor knows better than the teacher what needs to be done to improve instruction.
- The supervisor initially identifies the problem by gathering information from his own observations.
- The supervisor then discusses this information with the teacher.
- The supervisor later tells the teacher what to do and provides an explanation of why.
- The supervisor later reviews the proposed action and reiterates his expectations for the teacher.

Directive Control Continuum of Behaviours

Presenting	a) Identify the problem. / Make observations and gather information from other sources.
Clarifying	b) Ask the teacher for input into the problem. / Gather direct information from the teacher. / Use the teacher in an advisory capacity.
Listening	c) Understand the teacher's point of view. / Attend carefully to what the teacher says.
Problem Solving	d) Mentally determine the best solution / Process the information and think about an appropriate action.
Directing	e) Tell expectations to the teacher. / Tell the teacher in a matter- of- fact way what needs to be done. / Make statements based on your position, credibility and authority.
Clarifying	f) Ask the teacher for input into the expectations. / Find out the possible difficulties associated with the directive from the teacher.
Standardizing	g) Detail and modify expectations. / Build the necessary assistance, resources, time lines, and criteria for expected success.
Reinforcing	h) Repeat and follow up on expectations. / Review the entire plan and establish times for checking on progress. / Close the meeting by making sure the teacher clearly understands the plan.

Issues in Directive Control Behaviours

- Power and authority, respect, expertise, line and staff relationships.
- Tell the teacher exactly and honestly what is to be done.
- Write word-for word the critical statement.
- Supervisor is convinced of practices that will improve instruction.
- Supervisor is willing to assume full responsibility for the decision.
- Measure of last resort when an immediate decision is needed.
- In an emergency, a supervisor, whether ultimately right or wrong, must be directive.



When to Use Directive Control Behaviours

- When teachers are functioning at a very low developmental level.
- When the teachers do not have awareness, knowledge, or inclination to act on an issue that a supervisor, who has organizational authority, thinks to be of critical importance to the students, the teachers, or the community.
- When teachers will have no involvement and the supervisor will be involved in carrying out the decision.
- When the supervisor is committed to resolving the issue and the teachers are not.
- In an emergency, when the supervisor does not have time to meet with teachers.

2. Alternative Supervision

There is a way to direct teachers without prescribing what they should do. This way is through a model called alternative supervision. In this model, the supervisor's role is to suggest a variety of alternatives to what the teacher has done in the classroom.

Having a limited number of choices can reduce teachers' anxiety over deciding what to do next, and yet it still gives them the responsibility for decision making. It is pointed out that alternative supervision works best when the supervisor does not favour any alternative and is not judgmental. The purpose of offering alternatives is to widen the scope of what a teacher will consider doing.

3. Non-Directive Supervision

In a nondirective supervisory approach, the teacher has the freedom to express and clarify his/her ideas, and a feeling of support and trust grows between the supervisor and the teacher.

Nondirective supervision, however, can also have a different result. It may make the teachers feel anxious and alienated. One reason for anxiety may be due to the inexperience of the teacher.

The way the supervisor understands nondirective supervision could also cause the teacher's anxiety. Perhaps the supervisor has simply been using the surface techniques while ignoring the deeper philosophical principles. To borrow only certain outward features of the approach without understanding what its real power is would be like using an airplane only as a car or a sophisticated computer only as a typewriter.

- This model is based on the assumption that an individual teacher knows best what instructional changes need to be done and has the ability to think and act on his or her own.
- The decision belongs to the teacher.
- The role of the supervisor is to assist the teacher in the process of thinking through his /her actions.

Examples of Nondirective Behaviours are eye contact, asking probing questions, facial expressions and paraphrasing.

Nondirective Continuum of Behaviours

Listening	a) Wait until the teacher's initial statement is made. / Understand what the teacher is saying. / Avoid thinking about how you see the problem.
Reflecting	b) Verbalize your understanding of the initial problem. / Capture what the teacher is saying. / Do not offer your opinion.
Clarifying	c) Probe for the underlying problem./additional information. / Guide the teacher to reframe the problem. / Clarifying is done to help the teacher further identify, not solve the problem. / Avoid asking questions that are solutions.
Encouraging	d) Show willingness to listen further as the teacher begins to identify the real problems. / Do not praise the teacher.
Reflecting	e) Constantly paraphrase the understanding of the teacher's message./ Check on the accuracy of what you understand the teacher to be saying.
Problem Solving	f) Ask the teacher to consider consequences of various actions. / Have the teacher move from possible to probable solutions.
Presenting	g) Ask the teacher for a commitment to a decision. / Have the teacher select actions that are doable, feasible and concrete (accountable).
Standardizing	h) Ask the teacher to set time and criteria for action.
Reflecting	i) Restate the teacher's plan.

Issues with Nondirective Behaviours

- Can a supervisor really remain nonjudgmental and not influence the teacher's or groups' decision?
- What happens if the teacher or group desires the supervisor's input?
- What does a supervisor do with a teacher or group that is reluctant or not capable of generating solutions?
- How exact or variable is the sequence of Nondirective Behaviours?
- In what circumstances should Nondirective Behaviours be used?

When to Use Nondirective Behaviours

- When the teacher or group is functioning at high developmental levels.
- When the teacher or group possesses most of the knowledge and expertise about the issue and the supervisor's knowledge and expertise are minimal.
- When the teacher or group has full responsibility for carrying out the decision and the supervisor has little involvement.
- When the teacher or group is committed to solving the problem but the problem doesn't matter to the supervisor.

4. Collaborative Supervision

Within a collaborative model the supervisor's role is to work with teachers but not direct them. The supervisor actively participates with the teacher in any decisions that are made and attempts to establish a sharing relationship. It is believed that teaching is mostly a problem-solving process that requires a sharing of ideas between the teacher and the supervisor. The teacher and supervisor work together in addressing a problem in the teacher's classroom teaching. They pose a hypothesis, experiment, and implement strategies that appear to offer a reasonable solution to the problem under consideration.

Collaborative supervision can be used thus: Instead of telling the teacher what he/ she should have done, the supervisor can ask, "What did you think of the lesson? How did it go? Did you meet your objective?" This would be said in a positive, interested, and nonjudgmental way.

The collaborative model of supervision is based on these ideas:

- Frank exchange of ideas.
- The supervisor encourages the teacher to present his/ her own perceptions and ideas, but also honestly gives his/ her own views.
- Disagreement is encouraged, not suppressed.
- The supervisor and the supervisee either agree to an action or wind up stalemated situations.
- A stalemate will mean further negotiating, rethinking, and even possible use of a third-party mediator.

Collaborative Continuum of Behaviours

Clarifying	Identify the problem as seen by the teacher. / Ask the teacher about the immediate problem or concern.
Listening	Understand the teacher's perception. / Use nondirective Behaviours (e.g. eye contact, paraphrasing, asking probing questions) to gather as much information about the problem as possible before thinking about action.
Reflecting	Verify the teacher's perception. / Check for accuracy by summarizing the teacher's statements and asking if the summary is accurate.
Presenting	Provide your point of view. / Become part of the decision-making process. / Give your own point of view about the problem and give information the teacher might be unaware of.
Clarifying	Seek the teacher's understanding of your perception of the problem. / Ask the teacher to paraphrase your perceptions.
Problem Solving	Exchange suggestions of options.
Encouraging	Accept conflict. / Conflict between two caring professionals is productive for finding the best solution. / Assure the teacher that disagreement is acceptable.
Negotiation	Find an acceptable solution.
Standardizing	Agree on the details of plan.
Reflecting	Summarize the final plan. / Conclude the conference by checking that both of you agree to the action and details.

Issues in Collaborative Supervision

- Asking the more qualified person to make a decision (undemocratic).
- Two people can appear to make a collaborative decision, but one person will discreetly let the other know of his or her power.
- When the teacher or group believes that the supervisor is manipulating the decision.

When to Use Collaborative Behaviours

- When teachers are functioning at moderate or mixed developmental levels.
- When the teacher and supervisor have approximately the same degree of expertise on the issue.
- When the teacher and supervisor will both be involved in carrying out the decision.
- When the teacher and supervisor are both committed to solving the problem.

5. Creative Supervision

The creative model considers any particular way of looking at things. It, thus, encourages freedom and creativity in at least three ways. It can allow for:

- a combination of models or a combination of Supervisory Behaviours from different models.
- a shifting of supervisory responsibilities from the supervisor to other sources.
- an application of insights from other fields that are not found in any of the models.

Working with only one model can be appropriate, but it can also be limiting. Sometimes a combination of different models or a combination of Supervisory Behaviours from different models might be needed.

A second way that a creative model of supervision can be used is to shift supervisory responsibility from the supervisor to another source. For instance, teachers can be responsible for their own supervision through the use of teacher centers. Teacher centers are places where teachers can go to find answers to questions, use resources, and talk about problems with other teachers or special "consultants" or "supervisory experts." Rather than the supervisor going to the teachers, the teachers can go to the teacher center. Another way to shift responsibility away from the supervisor is to have peer supervision, where fellow teachers observe each other's classes.

A third way that creative supervision can be used is through the application of insights from other fields which are not found in any of the models.



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9 Kuwait National Curriculum Standards-Based

The curriculum is a structured system of planned learning experiences aimed at promoting the intellectual, emotional, and social development of learners. It outlines what learners should know, the skills they should acquire, and the expectations for them to act as responsible individuals guided by values. The modern curriculum emphasises holistic growth in cognitive, emotional, and physical areas, ensuring that education equips learners for personal fulfillment and active participation in society.

Standards are broad, grade-specific expectations that outline what learners should know and be able to do by specific points in their education. Based on this standard approach, the framework translates broad educational goals into measurable outcomes at various levels—framework, unit, and lesson. Learning outcomes are articulated in clear, student-friendly language, allowing teachers to plan effectively and enabling learners to track their own progress. Teaching is seen as an interactive and reflective process in which understanding is developed through dialogue, meaningful tasks, and continuous assessment.

Aligned with national priorities and international benchmarks, the curriculum integrates knowledge, skills, and values within meaningful contexts that foster a deeper understanding of these elements. It promotes critical and creative thinking, effective communication, collaboration, and responsible citizenship. Learning experiences are structured according to Bloom’s Taxonomy to ensure cognitive progression, while formative assessment provides continuous feedback that supports learning and improvement. Inclusivity, differentiation, and digital literacy are embedded throughout the curriculum to address the diverse needs and abilities of all learners.

This curriculum framework provides a coherent, transparent, and internationally informed pathway for high-quality teaching and learning. It supports balanced development by integrating knowledge, skills, and values, preparing learners for lifelong learning, ethical participation, and future employability.

Standards

General Standards

General standards are broad, cross-unit expectations (often based on strands) that frame the scope and sequence for a stage of education (e.g., “Reading comprehension—main idea, details, inference at CEFR levels). They provide the framework under which general learning outcomes and unit or lesson outcomes are structured, with the goal of being fully accomplished by the end of Grade 12.

Curriculum Standards

Curriculum standards are authoritative statements of the expected knowledge, skills, and dispositions that learners should demonstrate by designated points in their education (grade or stage). They are derived from the general standards and are expected to be achieved partially by the end of each grade and entirely by the end of the educational stage.

Learning Outcomes

Learning outcomes are clear, measurable, and observable statements detailing what learners should know, understand, and be able to do by the end of a specified period (lesson, unit, or grade band). These outcomes are student-centered, written in performance terms, and used for planning teaching, learning, and assessment.

General Learning Outcomes

General learning outcomes are high-level framework descriptors that outline the curriculum standards expected across grades. They set the direction for terms and units, aligning with CEFR level expectations and Cambridge strands to ensure spiral, vertical, and horizontal progression.

Unit Learning Outcomes

Unit learning outcomes are targets presented at the beginning of each unit that represent the framework's general learning outcomes in relation to the unit's theme, skills, language focus, and assessment products. They are measurable, teachable within the unit timeframe, and directly linked to relevant CEFR "can-do" statements and Cambridge objectives.

Lesson Learning Outcomes

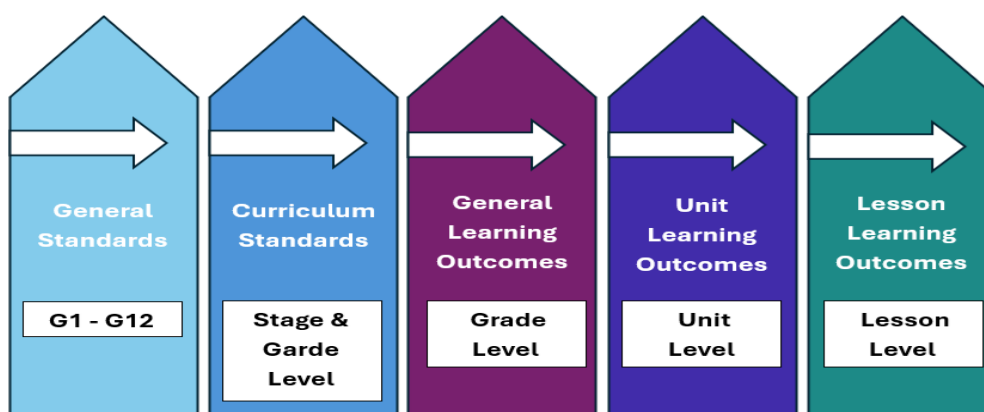
Lesson learning outcomes are student-friendly statements. They convert unit outcomes into lesson-sized performance goals, typically phrased as "I can..." statements, which guide activities, success criteria, and formative assessments. This phrasing follows the CEFR self-assessment conventions.

Effective Learning Outcomes

Outcomes are a powerful tool for ensuring that teaching and learning goals are clear, realistic, and results-oriented. By making outcomes **SMART**, teachers can shift from vague intentions to precise learning outcomes:

- **Specific:** Make the outcomes clear, precise, and avoid vague terms.
- **Measurable:** Define how success will be measured (percentages, scores, counts, etc.).
- **Achievable:** Ensure the target is realistic given resources, time, and abilities.
- **Relevant:** Connect the outcomes to curriculum standards, school goals, or professional priorities.
- **Time-bound:** Set a deadline or timeframe for achieving the goal.

This structure assists teachers in lesson planning with clear targets, tracking learners' progress, and assessing effectiveness. Additionally, it clarifies for learners what is expected and what success entails.



Foundational Pillars of Kuwait National Curriculum

KNC is organised as a standards-based framework. It represents a comprehensive approach to language education, built on foundational pillars that work in concert to create compelling learning experiences.

1. Global & Local Standards

1.1 - Balanced Approach

KNC adopts a balanced approach that nurtures Kuwaiti identity while developing learners' global perspectives and intercultural competence—skills essential for success in today's interconnected world. Focus Areas: (Kuwaiti Identity/ Global Perspectives/ Balanced Integration).

1.2 - Alignment with International Frameworks

KNC maps its learning outcomes to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and Cambridge objectives to ensure clarity, comparability, and international credibility. This alignment supports clear expectations, consistent assessment, and smooth progression across grades while maintaining Kuwait's cultural values at the core.

1.3 - Understanding CEFR

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is an international standard describing language proficiency using six levels (A1–C2).

Key Features:

- Levels: A1–A2 (Basic), B1–B2 (Independent), C1–C2 (Proficient)
- “Can-do” Descriptors: Define what learners can understand, say, and write
- Competence Areas: Linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic
- 2020 Update: Adds online interaction and mediation

1.4 - CEFR/Cambridge Alignment in KNC

KNC outcomes are mapped to CEFR levels and Cambridge objectives, and then translated into unit outcomes and “I can...” lesson statements.

Result: Clear expectations, coherent progression, and consistent assessments across schools.

CEFR Levels and KNC Stage Mapping

School Stage	CEFR Band	Language Characteristics	Example ‘I can...’ Outcomes
Primary (Grades 1-5)	A1 → A2	Short, familiar texts; simple sentences; everyday vocabulary; heavy visual support.	A1: I can introduce myself and follow short classroom instructions. A2: I can write short messages and understand simple texts about daily topics.
Intermediate (Grades 6-9)	A2 → B1	Longer texts; broader topics; express opinions; beginning mediation.	A2: I can identify main ideas in short articles. B1: I can give a short talk or write an opinion paragraph with reasons.
Secondary (Grades 10-12)	B1 → B2	Extended, detailed language; complex sentences; academic themes.	B1: I can write multi-paragraph opinion pieces. B2: I can write analytical reports and follow extended discussions.

2. Kuwait Vision 2035

Through a forward-thinking approach, KNC aligns with Kuwait Vision 2035, supporting Human Capital Development and the nation's shift toward a sustainable, knowledge-based economy. It aims to develop skilled, creative, and globally aware learners ready to meet future challenges.

Key Focus Areas:

- Lifelong Learning – Cultivate habits and skills for continuous self-improvement.
- Innovation – Promote creativity, problem-solving, and entrepreneurial thinking.
- Future-Ready Competencies – Develop digital literacy, cross-cultural communication, and adaptability to thrive in the modern workforce.

3. 21st - Century Skills & Values

In today's interconnected world, education must go beyond language skills to develop critical thinkers, effective collaborators, and responsible citizens. KNC blends Kuwait's cultural identity with modern learning approaches to help learners master English while building the social, emotional, and cognitive skills needed for lifelong success.

3.1 - Collaborative Learning for Real-World Skills

Learners engage in projects and problem-solving tasks that foster teamwork, leadership, and conflict resolution—key skills for today's workplace.

3.2 - Balancing Cultural Identity and Global Competence

KNC integrates Kuwaiti values with critical thinking, creativity, collaboration, and digital literacy, preparing learners for active participation in a global society.

Key Features:

- Thematic & Values Integration – Units link real-life themes (e.g., community, celebrations, innovation) with explicit values like respect, responsibility, and citizenship, connecting language learning with character development.
- 21st-Century Skill Infusion – Collaboration, communication, creativity, and problem solving are embedded in every lesson, ensuring a holistic approach to language and values education.

4. Balanced Learning Domains

Bloom's Taxonomy- Three Domains of Learning

KNC promotes balanced learner development across three domains: **Cognitive** (thinking), **Psychomotor** (doing), and **Affective** (feeling and valuing). Each lesson builds knowledge, skills, and attitudes together, with teachers actively guiding, assessing, and providing feedback across all domains.

Domain	Levels	Purpose	Example
Cognitive (Thinking and Knowing)	Remember, Understand, Apply, Analyse, Evaluate, Create.	Tasks and assessments progress from comprehension to higher-order thinking, ensuring clear alignment between outcomes, activities, and learning evidence.	Identifying main ideas, analysing arguments, evaluating evidence, creating written or oral products.
Psychomotor (Performing and Producing)	Perception, Response, Mechanism, Adaptation, Origination	Develop learners' pronunciation, handwriting, coordination, and presentation skills through active, performance-based tasks.	Role-play, oral presentations, poster creation, using digital tools.
Affective (Valuing and Behaving)	Receiving, Responding, Valuing, Organising, Characterising.	To foster engagement, empathy, respect, responsibility, and positive participation — essential for citizenship and lifelong learning.	Collaboration, reflection, leadership, willingness to participate.

Bloom's Taxonomy – Levels of Thinking

Bloom's Taxonomy classifies levels of cognitive thinking from basic to advanced. It helps teachers design tasks and assessments that promote deeper learning and critical thinking.

1. Remembering: Recalling or recognising facts and basic concepts.

Examples: list, define, identify.

2. Understanding: Explaining ideas or concepts in one's own words.

Examples: summarise, describe, interpret.

3. Applying: Using knowledge in new situations.

Examples: use, demonstrate, solve.

4. Analysing: Breaking information into parts and examining relationships.

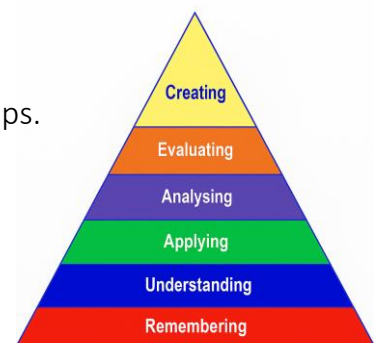
Examples: compare, categorise, differentiate.

5. Evaluating: Making judgments based on evidence or criteria.

Examples: justify, assess, critique.

6. Creating: Combining ideas to produce something new or original.

Examples: design, develop, plan.



5. Smooth Progression

The fifth pillar, smooth progression, ensures that learning develops systematically, allowing knowledge and skills to grow in a connected, meaningful sequence. This pillar provides a structured pathway from simple understanding to complex application, supporting confidence, mastery, and continuity. Smooth progression ensures that each learning experience builds upon prior knowledge, leading to steady advancement rather than isolated achievement.

5.1- Spiral and Cumulative Learning

The curriculum follows a spiral model, where essential concepts reappear with increasing depth and complexity. Rather than introducing topics once and moving on, lessons revisit key ideas through fresh contexts, encouraging learners to refine and extend their understanding. This repetition with purpose fosters deeper comprehension and long-term retention.

5.2- Horizontal and Vertical Coherence

Curriculum design ensures both horizontal and vertical coherence. Horizontal coherence aligns lessons within a level so that listening, speaking, reading, and writing complement one another. Vertical coherence establishes logical growth between levels—each stage prepares learners for the next by expanding the range and sophistication of skills. Together, these two dimensions ensure smooth, balanced, and sustainable progression.

5.3- The Progression Ladder

A progression ladder is used to monitor and describe learners' development across key dimensions.

- **Content Range:** Topics evolve from familiar, concrete themes to broader and more abstract ones.
- **Language Structures:** Learners move from simple patterns to connected, coherent discourse.
- **Purpose and Audience Awareness:** Learners learn to adjust tone, style, and register appropriately.
- **Delivery and Presentation Skills:** Confidence, fluency, and clarity in expression are refined.
- **Genre Awareness:** Learners gain an understanding of text organisation and communicative purpose.

This structure provides measurable indicators of growth and ensures that advancement is both visible and attainable.

6. Modern Pedagogical Models

This pillar, modern pedagogical models, defines how learning happens in the classroom. It unites global best practices with learner-centred principles, creating spaces where learners learn through collaboration, inquiry, and reflection. Teaching goes beyond information delivery to purposeful experiences that build communication, creativity, and critical thinking. Learning is seen as an active, social process shaped by interaction and reflection, with teachers scaffolding, guiding, and monitoring progress as learners build on prior knowledge and demonstrate understanding.

6.1- Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

At the heart of the curriculum lies communicative language teaching, which treats language as a tool for interaction rather than a list of rules. CLT emphasises authentic communication, fluency, and the ability to use English for real-life purposes. Learners engage in discussions, pair work, and role-plays that simulate real-life contexts, balancing fluency with accuracy. Grammar and vocabulary are taught in the service of meaning, ensuring that linguistic form supports genuine expression.

6.2- Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

TBLT is a communicative approach where the task—a meaning-focused activity with a real-world goal—is the core unit of instruction. TBLT develops functional communicative ability by prioritising meaning before form. Learners complete authentic tasks—such as designing a poster, planning an event, or conducting a survey—and then analyse the language used. This sequence mirrors natural language use, where communication drives grammatical development.

6.3- Project-Based Learning (PBL)

PBL organises learning around extended, creative projects requiring inquiry, collaboration, and communication. Learners investigate questions or challenges that lead to tangible products such as presentations, reports, or digital pieces. PBL integrates skills across disciplines, promoting autonomy, critical thinking, and problem-solving. It empowers learners to take ownership of learning while using English as a functional medium for discovery and expression.

Learning Process:

- **Initiation:** Introduce a meaningful problem or driving question.
- **Planning:** Learners identify resources, roles, and timelines.
- **Investigation:** Learners research and collaborate in English.
- **Creation:** They produce and refine their final output.
- **Presentation:** Results are shared, discussed, and reflected upon.

Through this process, PBL connects classroom learning to real-world contexts and fosters long-term engagement.

6.4- Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

- **CBI** teaches language through engaging content such as science, culture, or civic themes, embedding linguistic aims within topic study.
- **CLIL** is a dual-focus approach where content and language are taught together, guided by Coyle's 4Cs—**Content, Communication, Cognition, and Culture**.

These approaches link language learning with meaningful themes and values, promoting vocabulary growth, discourse skills, and higher-order thinking. They align naturally with thematic units and cross-curricular learning, enabling learners to develop academic and linguistic competence simultaneously.

6.5- Scaffolding

Scaffolding supports learners step by step, providing assistance that is gradually reduced as independence grows. Grounded in Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (published 1978), scaffolding transforms challenging tasks into achievable successes.

6.6- Differentiated Instruction

Recognising that learners learn in diverse ways, differentiated instruction ensures equal access to success. Teachers adapt materials, processes, and outcomes to accommodate readiness levels, interests, and learning preferences. Strategies include tiered activities, flexible grouping, and choice-based assignments that allow learners to demonstrate learning in multiple forms.

6.7 Active Learning

Active learning views learning as a dynamic process driven by learners' cognitive engagement and collaboration. Rather than relying on memorisation, it focuses on developing thinking, self-acquisition, and learning skills. Under the teacher's facilitative guidance, learners learn to access, analyse, and interpret information independently, drawing logical and coherent conclusions. When faced with challenges, learners employ problem-solving and dialogue to explore solutions—hence, "problem-based" or "interactive learning" are often synonymous with this approach.

Its core features include active cognitive engagement throughout lessons, self-discovery through problem-solving, and the teacher's role as a facilitator who fosters inquiry, collaboration, and constructive feedback. Lessons begin with a problem or question that directs inquiry, encouraging logical, critical, and creative thinking. Group work, trustful teacher–student relationships, and effective organisational strategies ensure purposeful, collaborative learning. Ultimately, active learning leads to both short- and long-term mastery of knowledge, deeper understanding, enhanced critical and creative thinking, positive attitudes toward learning, and greater engagement and confidence in applying knowledge.

Guidelines for Teaching the Four English Language Skills

Listening

Incorporating active learning principles into listening instruction involves establishing a clear purpose for listening, whether it is for understanding the main idea, specific details, or making inferences. It is essential to use authentic and meaningful materials, such as interviews, songs, and podcasts. Teachers should guide learners through various activities, including pre-listening predictions, active note-taking, and post-listening reflections, which help reinforce understanding.

Assessment of comprehension should occur through interactive pair or group tasks that encourage discussion, negotiation of meaning, and critical reflection. On the contrary, passive approaches limit listening to a single exposure followed by immediate answer checking. Focusing solely on whether answers are correct or incorrect, using outdated or artificial texts, or neglecting learners' comprehension challenges can undermine both engagement and skill development.

Speaking

Active learning in speaking emphasises student participation, purposeful communication, and the development of interactional competence. Teachers should foster a psychologically safe classroom environment that encourages all learners to express their ideas confidently. Lessons should include communicative activities such as role plays, interviews, debates, and discussions to promote the authentic use of language. Teachers model effective pronunciation, intonation, and turn-taking while providing constructive feedback on fluency, accuracy, and interaction strategies.

In contrast, passive speaking instruction is marked by excessive error correction, teacher dominance, and limited student output. Interrupting learners for minor mistakes, restricting participation to a few confident speakers, or relying solely on mechanical drills hinders fluency and discourages real-life communication.

Reading

Active reading pedagogy involves preparing learners by pre-teaching vocabulary and activating background knowledge. Teachers should assist learners in applying strategic reading techniques such as skimming, scanning, predicting, and summarising to enhance comprehension and engagement. Critical thinking questions that explore the author's intent, tone, and textual evidence should also be integrated to promote a deeper understanding of the text.

Conversely, passive reading approaches reduce learners to mere recipients of information. These methods include teacher-dominated read-aloud sessions, questions focused solely on literal recall, or lessons that emphasise grammar and vocabulary at the expense of meaning. Avoiding interactive post-reading tasks or reflective discussions further restricts comprehension and analytical thinking.

Writing

In an active learning structure, writing is viewed as a recursive and developmental process. Teachers guide learners through successive stages: brainstorming, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing, while providing scaffolding materials such as outlines, examples, and rubrics. Peer review and self-assessment are essential for fostering reflection and autonomy. Feedback should focus on content, organisation, and communicative effectiveness rather than just mechanical accuracy.

Alternatively, passive writing instruction treats writing as a one-time, product-oriented task. A narrow focus on grammar correction, neglecting the planning and revision stages, and omitting opportunities for creativity or self-expression can hinder learners' growth as competent writers.

Conclusion

The Kuwait National Curriculum establishes a strong foundation for holistic learner development through well-defined standards and learning outcomes. By emphasising measurable and student-centered goals, it facilitates effective teaching and assessment, ensuring that all learners are prepared for future challenges. The integration of critical thinking, collaboration, and inclusivity fosters the necessary growth for responsible citizenship. Ultimately, the curriculum aims to equip learners for lifelong learning and active participation in a dynamic society.

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