ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY

AIOU LIBRARY
aioulibrary.com

Name:

Registration No.:

Course Code: 838

Program: MA/MEd

Semester: Autumn 2026

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD

Course: Curriculum Development and Instruction (838) • Level: MA/MEd

Semester: Autumn 2026

Assignment No. 1 (Units 1–4)

Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks: 40

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book, understand the concepts, and then write the assignment in their own words. Do not copy this guide word for word.

Question 1: Curriculum Development and Curriculum Construction — Meaning and Difference (20 Marks)

What do you mean by curriculum development and curriculum construction? Differentiate between these.

Introduction

Few terms in education are used as loosely as curriculum development and curriculum construction. In staffrooms, in policy documents and even in textbooks the two expressions are often treated as if they meant exactly the same thing, namely the making of a syllabus. That loose use hides an important distinction which every teacher, and especially every student of curriculum studies, should understand clearly. Curriculum construction is the narrower, more technical act of framing or assembling a curriculum document — selecting and organising aims, content, methods and evaluation into a written plan. Curriculum development is the wider, continuous and never-completed process of which that act of construction is only one stage. Development includes studying society and the learner, diagnosing needs, constructing the plan, trying it out in real classrooms, evaluating the results, and then revising and improving it

again and again. This answer first explains what curriculum itself means, then defines development and construction separately, differentiates them point by point with the help of a table, and finally shows how the two are related in practice, particularly in a developing system such as Pakistan's.

What Is Meant by Curriculum?

The word curriculum comes from the Latin currere, meaning to run, and originally signified a racecourse or the track to be run. In education it came to mean the course of study to be followed by the learner in order to reach a goal. Older definitions restricted it to the list of subjects taught in a school, but modern writers give it a much broader meaning. Caswell and Campbell described the curriculum as all the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers, while Smith, Stanley and Shores defined it as a sequence of potential experiences set up in the school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting. For the purposes of this course, the curriculum may therefore be understood as the total planned programme of learning experiences — studies, instruction and activities together — through which a school seeks to achieve its educational aims. This broad meaning is essential, because the distinction between development and construction only becomes clear when curriculum means more than a printed syllabus.

Meaning of Curriculum Development

Curriculum development is the planned, purposeful and progressive process of designing, implementing, evaluating and continuously improving the learning experiences offered to students. It answers questions such as: what should be taught and why, to whom, in what order, by what methods, with what materials, and with what evidence that learning has taken

place. Writers such as Ralph Tyler, in his Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (1949), organised the process around four fundamental questions — the purposes the school seeks to attain, the experiences likely to attain them, the effective organisation of those experiences, and the evaluation of whether the purposes are being attained. Hilda Taba added the important idea that development should be a grassroots process in which teachers themselves diagnose needs, formulate objectives, select and organise content and evaluate outcomes. Development, therefore, is not a single event. It is cyclical: needs are assessed, a plan is made, the plan is tried, evidence is collected, weaknesses are identified, and the plan is revised. A curriculum is never finally developed; it is always developing, because society, knowledge and learners keep changing.

Three characteristics deserve emphasis. First, curriculum development is comprehensive: it covers objectives, content, teaching methods, learning materials, teacher preparation, assessment and the school environment, not content alone. Second, it is collaborative: it involves curriculum specialists, subject experts, teachers, administrators, parents, community representatives and, where appropriate, learners themselves. Third, it is evidence-based and long-term: decisions are expected to rest on foundations — philosophical, psychological, sociological and historical — and on feedback from implementation, rather than on fashion or the preference of a single official. In Pakistan, for example, a genuine development process would not end when a new scheme of studies is printed; it would follow the scheme into classrooms in different provinces, study examination results and teacher reports, and revise the scheme in the light of that evidence.

Meaning of Curriculum Construction

Curriculum construction, sometimes called curriculum framing, making or design in the narrow sense, is the specific task of actually building the curriculum document at a given point in time. It is the stage at which decisions already taken about aims and needs are translated into a concrete, written framework: the subjects to be taught at each class level, the units and topics within each subject, the time allocated to each, the sequence in which topics will be taken up, the textbooks and materials to be used, and the pattern of examination or assessment. Construction is thus a product-oriented activity; its visible result is a syllabus, a scheme of studies, a textbook series or a teacher's guide that can be printed, distributed and followed.

Construction requires considerable technical skill. The constructor must apply the recognised criteria of content selection — validity, significance, learnability, utility, feasibility and interest — and the principles of organisation such as continuity, sequence and integration which Tyler emphasised. Content must be graded from simple to complex and from known to unknown, balanced between subjects, and fitted into the available school year. However well this technical work is done, construction by itself does not test whether the document works. A beautifully constructed syllabus may fail completely in a multigrade rural classroom, with an untrained teacher, or where the prescribed textbook is unavailable. That testing, judging and improving belongs to development, not to construction alone.

Differentiation Between Curriculum Development and Curriculum Construction

The difference between the two terms can now be stated systematically. In scope, development is broad and all-embracing, while construction is narrow and specific. In time, development is continuous and has no finishing point, whereas construction is episodic and is

completed when the document is ready. In focus, development is concerned mainly with process, growth and improvement, while construction is concerned mainly with product, structure and arrangement. In personnel, development involves many stakeholders over a long period; construction is usually performed by a smaller committee of subject specialists and officials working within a fixed schedule. In orientation, development is dynamic and responsive to social change and evaluation evidence; construction tends to be comparatively static once the framework is approved, until the next revision is ordered.

Table 1: Curriculum development and curriculum construction compared

Basis	Curriculum Development	Curriculum Construction
Meaning	The continuous process of planning, trying out, evaluating and improving learning experiences.	The act of framing the written curriculum — subjects, content, sequence and time — at a given time.
Scope	Broad: aims, content, methods, materials, teacher training, assessment and environment.	Narrow: mainly the document — syllabus, scheme of studies, textbooks and guides.
Time	Ongoing and cyclical; never finally complete.	Episodic; ends when the document is approved and printed.
Focus	Process, growth and improvement over time.	Product, structure and arrangement.
People involved	Specialists, teachers, administrators, parents, community and evaluators.	Usually a small committee of subject experts and officials.
Relation to change	Anticipates and manages change on the basis of evidence.	Records decisions already taken; changes only when a new construction is ordered.
Evaluation	Built into every stage; feedback drives revision.	Comes after construction, if at all; the document itself is not evaluation.

A simple analogy makes the distinction memorable. Construction is like drawing the plan of a house and building it once; development is like building the house, living in it, discovering that the kitchen is too small and the roof leaks in the monsoon, redesigning those parts, and continuing to maintain and improve the house for as long as it is occupied. To confuse the two

is to assume that education is finished once the syllabus is printed — an assumption responsible for many failures, where revised documents are issued every few years but classroom realities, teacher capacity and assessment practices are never studied or changed.

Relationship Between the Two and a Critical Note

The two terms are different, but they are not rivals. Construction is an essential stage inside development: without a constructed document, development would have nothing concrete to implement or evaluate, and without the wider developmental process, construction becomes a mechanical, one-time exercise. A sound system therefore institutionalises both. It maintains standing curriculum bodies that continuously study needs and evidence — the developmental function — and it commissions expert committees, including practising teachers, to construct and reconstruct documents at planned intervals — the constructional function. Critically, in many systems including Pakistan's, the balance has been tilted too far towards construction. Committees are formed, documents are produced, and the exercise is declared complete, while piloting, teacher orientation, provision of materials and systematic evaluation receive little attention. The result is the familiar complaint that the curriculum is excellent on paper and weak in the classroom. The remedy is not to abandon construction but to place it firmly inside a continuing process of development, with time, money and responsibility assigned to try-out, feedback and revision.

Conclusion

To conclude, curriculum construction means the framing of a curriculum document — the selection and organisation of aims, subjects, content, sequence, time and assessment into a usable written plan. Curriculum development means the much wider, continuous, collaborative

and cyclical process of assessing needs, constructing the plan, implementing it, evaluating it and improving it in the light of foundations and evidence. They differ in scope, duration, focus, personnel and relation to change, yet each needs the other. A student preparing an assignment, and a teacher working in a school, should therefore never ask only, “Has a new curriculum been constructed?” The more professional question is, “Is our curriculum developing — are we learning from its working and making it better?” Where that second question is asked regularly, construction ceases to be a paper exercise and becomes a genuine instrument of educational improvement.

Question 2: Elements of the Curriculum and Developing Programmes of Studies, Instruction and Activities (20 Marks)

Explain the different elements of the curriculum. If you will have to develop a curriculum, how will you develop a) a program of studies, b) a program of instruction, and c) a program of activities?

Introduction

A curriculum is not a heap of subjects. It is an organised whole whose parts must fit together, and the first step towards understanding or building it is to identify its elements and the relationship among them. Most curriculum writers agree on four basic elements: aims, goals and objectives; subject matter or content; teaching-learning methods and experiences; and evaluation. If any one element is changed, the others are affected — new objectives demand new content, new content demands new methods, and all three demand new ways of judging success. The second half of the question moves from analysis to practice. A complete school curriculum expresses itself in three interlocking programmes: a programme of studies, which

organises what is to be learned; a programme of instruction, which organises how teaching and learning will actually take place; and a programme of activities, which organises the co-curricular experiences through which much character, social and physical development occurs. This answer explains each element, then shows step by step how the writer would develop all three programmes for a school.

The Elements of the Curriculum

1. Aims, Goals and Objectives

Objectives are the starting point and the controlling element of the curriculum. Aims are the broad, long-term directions of education, such as developing a patriotic, honest and God-fearing citizen who can earn a respectable living and serve society. Goals translate aims into the outcomes expected from a stage or a subject, while objectives state, in specific and preferably observable terms, what the learner will know, be able to do, or appreciate after a lesson, unit or course. Objectives are commonly classified into the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains described by Bloom and his associates. Well-formulated objectives guide the selection of content, suggest suitable methods, and provide the standard against which evaluation is made. Vague objectives, by contrast, produce vague teaching and examinations that test memory alone.

2. Subject Matter or Content

Content is the body of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values selected from the vast store of human culture and organised for learning. It includes facts, concepts, principles, procedures and problems in subjects such as languages, mathematics, science, social studies, Islamiyat and computer science, as well as cross-cutting themes such as health, environment and citizenship.

Content must satisfy criteria of validity and significance — it must be true and important; learnability — it must be within the learner's reach; utility — it must be useful in life; feasibility — it must be teachable with available time and resources; and interest — it must engage the learner. It must also be organised with continuity, sequence and integration, so that each year's work builds on the previous year and subjects support rather than contradict one another.

3. Methods, Learning Experiences and Materials

The third element concerns how the content is transacted. The same topic can be memorised from a textbook, discovered through an experiment, debated in a discussion, or applied in a project, and the learning produced in each case is very different. This element therefore covers teaching methods and strategies, the learning experiences arranged for students inside and outside the classroom, grouping patterns, assignments, and the materials and technology that support them — textbooks, workbooks, charts, models, laboratories, libraries and digital resources. Modern curriculum thinking insists that methods must be chosen to suit the objectives: an objective requiring scientific inquiry cannot be achieved by dictation of notes, and an objective requiring cooperation cannot be achieved if pupils never work together.

4. Evaluation

Evaluation is the element that judges whether the objectives have been achieved, how far the content and methods have succeeded, and what should be changed. It includes classroom tests, examinations, observation, portfolios, projects and other assessment of learners, as well as evaluation of the curriculum programme itself. Good evaluation is continuous, comprehensive and aligned: it assesses the same knowledge, skills and attitudes that the objectives promised and the instruction practised. Its results feed back into every other

element — objectives may be clarified, weak content replaced, and ineffective methods retrained. Without evaluation, a curriculum is a hope; with it, a curriculum becomes an accountable programme that can be improved on evidence.

Table 1: The four elements of the curriculum and their guiding questions

Element	Guiding Question	Main Decisions
Objectives	Why teach? What should the learner become?	Aims, stage goals, subject and lesson objectives in three domains.
Content	What should be taught?	Selection and organisation of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values.
Methods and experiences	How should it be taught and learned?	Methods, activities, grouping, materials, timetable and technology.
Evaluation	How will we know it worked?	Assessment of learners and evaluation of the programme; feedback for revision.

(a) Developing a Programme of Studies

If I had to develop a programme of studies, I would begin not with subjects but with a situation analysis: the needs of society and the nation, the constitutional and policy aims of education in Pakistan, the characteristics and backgrounds of the learners, the demands of further study and employment, and the resources realistically available. On that basis I would formulate the aims and stage-wise goals, taking care that they cover knowledge, skills, character and citizenship rather than examination success alone. Next I would constitute subject committees including practising teachers, and charge each committee with selecting content by the criteria explained above, grading it from class to class, and removing duplication and obsolete material. The committees would then prepare a scheme of studies showing subjects, weekly periods and marks, a detailed syllabus for each subject, and specifications for textbooks and supplementary readers. Before general adoption, the programme would be piloted in a sample of urban, rural,

boys' and girls' schools, revised in the light of pilot evidence and teacher feedback, and only then implemented with a published plan for periodic review. At every stage I would keep the other elements in view, so that no topic entered the programme unless a feasible method and a fair method of assessing it could also be indicated.

(b) Developing a Programme of Instruction

A programme of studies states what is to be learned; a programme of instruction converts that statement into living teaching. To develop it I would first break each syllabus into units and lessons with specific instructional objectives, sequenced across the school year in a scheme of work that allows time for revision, testing and holidays. For each unit, teachers would be provided, or would collectively prepare, guidance on the most suitable methods, the questions and activities likely to make pupils think, the common difficulties and misconceptions to be watched for, and the materials required — preferring low-cost and locally available aids where laboratories or technology are lacking. The programme would include a realistic timetable, a homework and assignment policy, arrangements for remedial help for slow learners and extension work for the able, and a continuous assessment plan linked to the objectives. Crucially, instruction cannot be improved by circulars alone, so the programme would provide for teacher orientation before implementation, demonstration lessons, peer observation and regular subject-teacher meetings in which problems of teaching particular units are discussed honestly. Supervisors would be asked to support instruction rather than merely inspect registers. In this way the programme of instruction becomes the bridge between the written curriculum and the experienced curriculum of the child.

(c) Developing a Programme of Activities

Much of what a school claims to value — honesty, teamwork, leadership, physical fitness, aesthetic taste, service to others and love of the country — is learned less from lectures than from activities. A programme of activities therefore deserves the same careful development as studies and instruction. I would begin by listing the developmental purposes to be served and the broad families of activities: physical activities and games; literary activities such as debates, declamations, spelling contests and a school magazine; scientific and hobby clubs; social and community service, including cleanliness drives and help for needy families; cultural activities, national days and educational visits; and student self-government through class monitors, societies and a school council. Activities would be planned in an annual calendar so that they enrich rather than disrupt studies, distributed fairly across classes, and provided with a teacher in charge, a budget or resource plan, and simple rules for safety and discipline. Participation would be encouraged for all pupils rather than reserved for a talented few, talent would be recognised through certificates and house systems, and each major activity would be reviewed briefly afterwards: what was learned, what went wrong, and what should be changed next year. Properly developed, the programme of activities is not an extra; it is the part of the curriculum in which attitudes and character are most powerfully formed.

Conclusion

To conclude, the curriculum consists of four interdependent elements — objectives, content, methods and learning experiences, and evaluation — and it reaches the learner through three programmes. The programme of studies organises what is to be learned, the programme of instruction organises how it will be taught and learned, and the programme of activities

organises the wider experiences through which physical, social, moral and aesthetic development takes place. Developing any one programme in isolation invites failure: studies without instruction remain paper, instruction without activities produces narrow examinees, and activities without purpose degenerate into entertainment. The curriculum developer's real skill lies in keeping the elements and the programmes in balance, piloting changes before imposing them, supporting teachers who must carry them out, and evaluating results so that the next version is better than the last.

Question 3: Sociological Foundations of Curriculum Development and the Effects of Ignoring Them (20 Marks)

Why sociological foundations are important in curriculum development. What will be the probable effects if these foundations are ignored in the curriculum development process?

Introduction

No school stands outside society. Children come to school from families, neighbourhoods, languages, occupations and faith communities, and they return to that society as workers, parents and citizens. Sociology — the study of society, its institutions, culture, groups and processes of change — is therefore not an optional decoration on curriculum development; it is one of its foundations, alongside philosophy, psychology and history. The sociological foundation asks the curriculum developer three practical questions: what does this society need and value, what is actually happening in this society now, and how is this society changing? A curriculum built with those questions in mind can preserve what is best in a culture, prepare learners for real social and economic life, and help a nation solve its problems. A curriculum built without them may be learned for examinations and yet be rejected, resented

or simply useless in life. This answer explains the importance of the sociological foundations in detail and then examines, honestly and concretely, the probable effects of ignoring them.

What the Sociological Foundations Contribute

Society's Aims, Values and Culture

Every society educates its young partly to transmit its culture — its language, religion, history, customs, moral values and achievements — to the next generation. In Pakistan this means, among other things, the values of Islam, the ideology and history of Pakistan, respect for parents and teachers, honesty, service and tolerance for fellow citizens. Only a sociological study of the community can tell the developer which traditions are living and cherished, which need reinterpretation for a new age, and which harmful practices, such as discrimination or violence, the curriculum must deliberately counter. The school is also expected to develop culture, not merely copy it: literature, science, technology and civic awareness enrich the inheritance before passing it on. A curriculum detached from the community's values will be treated by parents as a foreign imposition, however impressive its academic design.

Social Needs, Problems and Institutions

The curriculum must also respond to the society's present needs and problems. Population growth, public health, clean water, road safety, drug abuse, unemployment, environmental pollution, energy saving and digital safety are not abstract topics; they are the conditions in which pupils will live. Sociological analysis of institutions — the family, the economy, the polity, religious institutions and the media — shows what the school can realistically do and what must be left to other agencies. It also prevents duplication and contradiction: it is wasteful for the school to teach cooperation and honesty while its own examination system rewards copying,

just as it is futile to preach dignity of labour in a curriculum that treats every manual occupation as failure. By studying institutions, the developer can design a curriculum that supports the family and the community instead of competing with them.

Social Change, Mobility and Equal Opportunity

Societies change — through urbanisation, migration, technology, women's education and employment, and new forms of communication — and the curriculum must prepare learners for the society that is coming, not only for the society that is passing away. Sociology helps the developer distinguish temporary fashions from durable changes, and to plan for both continuity and change. It also brings the question of equality to the centre. Access to good schooling, the language of instruction, the cost of books and tuition, and the expectations held for girls, for rural children, for children with disabilities and for the poor, all determine who actually benefits from a curriculum. A sociologically informed curriculum therefore provides for equal opportunity, relevant examples from learners' own environments, and bridges between home language and school language, so that the curriculum becomes an instrument of social mobility rather than a filter that reproduces privilege.

How Sociological Foundations Are Used in Practice

In practical curriculum work, sociological foundations are applied through definite procedures. A situation or needs analysis surveys the community: its occupations, languages, enrolment and dropout patterns, parental expectations, and the reasons children leave school. Community members, employers, religious and social leaders, parents and former students are consulted, not as a formality but because they hold knowledge that office-based experts lack. Content is then selected and illustrated with examples drawn from local life — local crops, trades, crafts,

geography, folk literature and public services alongside national and universal knowledge — so that learning begins from the known. Social studies, languages, Islamiyat, health, civics and work-related subjects carry a specially heavy sociological load, but every subject is affected: a science curriculum for an agricultural district that never touches soil, water or animal health has ignored its sociological foundation, and a mathematics curriculum full only of foreign shopping examples has done the same. Finally, sociological evidence is used in evaluation: developers ask not only whether marks improved, but whether the curriculum reduced dropout, was accepted by parents, and served the groups it claimed to serve.

Probable Effects If Sociological Foundations Are Ignored

The effects of ignoring these foundations are predictable, and many of them can be observed wherever curricula are imported or imposed without social study. Each effect below follows logically from the contributions described above, read in reverse.

- Alienation and loss of relevance: learning feels foreign and pointless. Pupils memorise content that has no visible connection with their homes, occupations or problems, motivation falls, and dropout rises — especially among poor and rural learners who can least afford wasted years.
- Conflict with community values and parental resistance: if the curriculum contradicts cherished religious, moral or cultural values without explanation or consultation, parents withdraw cooperation, rumours flourish, and enrolment — particularly of girls — suffers. Even good reforms can be defeated by this loss of trust.
- Failure to solve social problems: health, sanitation, population, environment and safety messages never enter the curriculum in convincing local form, so schooling produces

certificate-holders who cannot apply knowledge to the problems of their own streets and villages.

- Widening inequality: a curriculum designed implicitly for urban, affluent, majority-language children quietly disadvantages rural, poor, minority-language and disabled learners. Examinations then certify social background as if it were ability, and education hardens rather than softens social divisions.
- Unemployment and mismatch with economic life: without study of the economy and occupations, the curriculum overproduces candidates for a few white-collar posts and underprepares learners for agriculture, trades, small business, technology and self-employment, feeding the familiar problem of the educated unemployed.
- Poor preparation for social change: learners are surprised and unsettled by urban life, new media, changing family roles and new technologies, because the curriculum described a society that no longer exists. Schools lose public respect when their product appears helpless in real life.
- Weak national cohesion: if regions, languages and communities never see themselves fairly represented in textbooks, grievance grows instead of unity. A curriculum that ignores the sociology of a diverse federation can unintentionally teach exclusion.

These effects compound one another. An irrelevant curriculum loses parental support; loss of support raises dropout; dropout is then blamed on parents or pupils, when the deeper cause was a development process that never studied the society it claimed to serve. Ignoring sociological foundations does not make a curriculum neutral — it makes it sociologically blind, and blindness in a foundation produces cracks throughout the building.

Conclusion

To conclude, sociological foundations are important because education is a social process, conducted by society, in society and for society. They connect the curriculum with culture and values, with present needs and problems, with institutions, with social change, and with justice in opportunity. Ignoring them produces alienation, resistance, inequality, unemployment, and curricula that are impressive documents and weak social instruments. The professional lesson for Pakistan is direct: before content is selected and textbooks are written, the community must be studied and consulted, and after implementation the social effects — acceptance, equity, retention and usefulness in life — must be evaluated as seriously as examination marks. A curriculum so grounded earns the society's trust, and trust is the condition on which all other educational success depends.

Question 4: Significance of Situation Analysis and Formulation of Objectives (20 Marks)

Discuss the significance of situation analysis and formulation of objectives in the curriculum development process.

Introduction

Curriculum development fails most often not at the printing press but at the beginning — when developers start selecting content before they know the situation for which they are planning, and before they have stated clearly what the finished learner should be able to do. Two early stages guard against that failure: situation analysis and the formulation of objectives. Situation analysis is the disciplined study of all the factors that will affect the curriculum, inside and outside the school, before decisions are taken. Formulation of objectives is the translation of

needs and aims, discovered through that analysis, into precise statements of intended learning. Together they convert curriculum making from guesswork and imitation into a rational process: analysis supplies the facts, objectives supply the direction, and every later stage — content, method, materials and evaluation — can be checked against both. This answer explains each stage, shows its significance with examples, and clarifies the relationship between them.

What Is Situation Analysis?

Situation analysis, also called context analysis or needs assessment, is the systematic collection and interpretation of information about the learners, the teachers, the school, the community, the subject matter and the wider social, economic, political and technological environment. Internally, it examines who the learners are — their age, previous learning, language, interests and difficulties; who the teachers are — their number, qualifications and training needs; and what the school actually possesses — rooms, laboratories, libraries, timetable time and funds. Externally, it examines national aims and policy, community needs and expectations, employment patterns, examination requirements, and the changes taking place in society and in knowledge itself. Skilbeck's well-known sitational model of curriculum development made this analysis the starting point precisely because a curriculum that fits one situation may misfit another: a science programme designed for a well-equipped urban school cannot simply be transferred to a two-teacher rural school and expected to work.

Situation analysis is significant, first, because it makes the curriculum realistic. It exposes constraints early — shortage of science teachers, lack of electricity, multigrade classes, a short school year — while there is still time to design around them, instead of discovering them after textbooks have been printed. Second, it reveals needs that no office committee would guess,

such as the seasonal absence of children at harvest, the language in which children actually speak at home, or the local diseases and accidents about which health education is most needed. Third, it identifies strengths and resources to build on: skilled local craftsmen, agricultural extension services, a public library, or motivated parent committees. Fourth, it gives a baseline against which later evaluation can measure change. Without a record of the starting situation, claims of improvement are only impressions. Finally, the act of analysis itself creates ownership: teachers, parents and community representatives who have been genuinely consulted and studied are far more likely to support the curriculum that follows.

What Is Meant by Formulation of Objectives?

To formulate objectives is to state, before teaching begins, what learners are expected to learn as a result of the curriculum. Objectives exist at several levels. At the top stand the broad aims of education derived from philosophy, national policy and social needs. Below them are the goals of a stage or programme, then the objectives of a subject and a course, and finally the specific instructional objectives of a unit or lesson, which should describe observable learner behaviour, the conditions under which it will be shown, and where possible the standard expected. Objectives are commonly organised into three domains: the cognitive domain of knowledge and intellectual skills, the affective domain of attitudes, interests and values, and the psychomotor domain of physical and practical skills. A complete formulation attends to all three, because a curriculum whose written aims praise honesty, patriotism and skill, but whose stated and tested objectives reward only memorised information, will in practice produce only memorisation. Objectives must also be derived from the recognised sources — the study of

learners, the study of contemporary life, and the suggestions of subject specialists, screened through the philosophy and psychology of learning, as Tyler proposed.

Significance of Formulation of Objectives

The significance of well-formulated objectives can be seen at every later stage of development. First, objectives give direction and coherence: they are the destination that turns a collection of topics into a purposeful journey, and they allow developers working in different subjects and provinces to pull in the same direction. Second, they govern the selection and organisation of content. When the objective is that pupils should measure, record and interpret rainfall, content about instruments, tables and graphs is essential and ornamental content can be dropped; without such an objective, content selection degenerates into including everything the committee members happen to know. Third, objectives determine method. An objective in the affective domain, such as appreciation of honest labour, requires discussion, example and activity, not dictation; a psychomotor objective requires demonstration and supervised practice. Fourth, objectives make fair evaluation possible, because tests can be built to sample exactly the behaviours the objectives promised — this alignment of objectives, instruction and assessment is the single most practical quality check available to a teacher. Fifth, objectives communicate expectations clearly to learners, parents, textbook writers, examiners and inspectors, reducing the hidden misunderstandings in which each party works towards a different target. Sixth, they make accountability and revision possible: a programme can be judged, and improved, only against outcomes it stated in advance.

At the same time, a critical caution is necessary. Objectives are servants, not masters. If they are written only for easily measured behaviours, important outcomes such as curiosity,

judgment, faith and character may be squeezed out because they are harder to specify. If they are imposed in excessive detail from above, teacher initiative and responsiveness to a particular class are lost. The professional course is to formulate objectives clearly at the levels where clarity helps — programme, subject and unit — to include all three domains, and to treat lesson-level objectives as guides for planning rather than as a script that forbids intelligent deviation. Objectives badly formulated are still worse than this balanced approach: hundreds of trivial, copied objectives that no teacher reads help no one, and their production is a warning sign that formulation has become ritual instead of thinking.

Table 1: How situation analysis and objectives guide the later stages

Later Stage	Contribution of Situation Analysis	Contribution of Objectives
Content selection	Shows local needs, resources and learners' background.	Decides what content is essential, optional or unnecessary.
Methods and materials	Shows teacher capacity, class size, equipment and time available.	Indicates whether inquiry, practice, discussion or activity is required.
Textbooks	Shows reading level, language and affordability in the area.	Sets the outcomes each unit and exercise must serve.
Evaluation	Provides the baseline and context for interpreting results.	Provides the standard against which achievement is judged.
Revision	Shows what has changed in society, school and learners.	Shows which outcomes were attained, missed or need restating.

Relationship Between Situation Analysis and Formulation of Objectives

The two stages are distinct but inseparable. Situation analysis without objectives produces a pile of interesting facts and no decisions; objectives without situation analysis produce elegant statements that belong to some other school, district or country. In a sound process the sequence is reciprocal: analysis reveals needs and possibilities, aims are screened in that light, objectives are formulated, and the draft objectives are then tested again against the situation — can these teachers teach this, in this time, with these materials, to these children? Where

the answer is no, either the objective, the support, or the timetable must change before implementation. The process is also repeated: evaluation at the end of a cycle becomes the situation analysis of the next, which is why mature curriculum systems treat both stages as continuing responsibilities rather than ceremonies performed once at the start of a project. In Pakistan, where conditions differ sharply between provinces, districts and even neighbouring schools, this discipline is especially valuable: national objectives can remain common while the analysis ensures that examples, pacing and support are fitted to real situations.

Conclusion

To conclude, situation analysis is significant because it grounds the curriculum in reality — in real learners, teachers, schools, communities and social change — and exposes needs, constraints and resources before expensive decisions are locked in. Formulation of objectives is significant because it converts that understanding into clear, balanced and assessable intentions that direct content, method, materials and evaluation, communicate expectations, and make improvement possible. One supplies the facts, the other the destination. A curriculum development process that performs both stages carefully may still face difficulties in implementation, but it will face them knowingly; a process that skips them is building without a survey and travelling without a destination, and its later confusion is not an accident but a consequence.

Question 5: Curriculum Design — Relationship Between Sources and Elements: A Critical Examination (20 Marks)

Critically examine curriculum development design in terms of reference between sources and elements.

Introduction

Every curriculum design must answer two sets of questions. The first concerns sources: from where do the ideas, values and information come that shape the curriculum? The recognised sources are the learner, society, and the accumulated body of knowledge or subject matter, screened through philosophy and psychology. The second concerns elements: into what components is the curriculum organised? The standard elements are objectives, content, teaching-learning methods and experiences, and evaluation. A design is strong when its elements are honestly derived from its sources and remain in balance with one another, and weak when one source is allowed to dominate, or when the elements are assembled without reference to any source at all. To examine curriculum development design critically, therefore, means tracing the lines of reference between sources and elements: showing how each source should inform each element, judging what happens when the reference is broken or distorted, and asking what a balanced design would look like, particularly for Pakistan. That is the task of this answer.

The Sources of the Curriculum

The learner is the first source. Study of the learner provides knowledge of growth and development, of interests, needs, abilities, previous experience and individual differences. A curriculum that ignores this source asks the impossible of young children and the trivial of older ones. Society is the second source. Study of contemporary life — its values, institutions, occupations, problems and direction of change — tells the designer what education is for in this place and time, and what the community will support. Subject matter or knowledge is the third source. The disciplines embody tested ways of understanding the world; subject specialists

guard accuracy, structure and sequence within each field, and warn against content that is obsolete, false or trivial. None of the three sources is self-sufficient. Tyler therefore insisted that objectives tentatively derived from all three must be screened through the school's educational and social philosophy, which decides what is truly worthwhile, and through a psychology of learning, which decides what is actually attainable by these learners at this stage. The sources propose; the screens dispose.

The Elements and Their Dependence on the Sources

The reference between sources and elements is most visible in the first element, objectives. Objectives derived from the learner alone would collapse into whatever children happen to fancy; objectives derived from society alone would become state slogans indifferent to children's capacity; objectives derived from subject matter alone would become a miniature university syllabus indifferent to both. Sound objectives are a negotiated product of all three sources, philosophically screened and psychologically checked. Content, the second element, shows the same dependence in reverse emphasis: its substance comes chiefly from the subject-matter source, but its selection, grading and illustration must refer constantly to the learner — can this be understood now, in this language, from this experience — and to society — is this the knowledge this community needs and values? Methods and learning experiences, the third element, refer principally to the learner source and to psychology: how children of this age learn, what motivates them, and what experiences will actually produce the intended behaviour. Yet method also refers to society, through available resources and cultural expectations, and to subject matter, since the honest teaching of science, history or a language each demands its characteristic methods of inquiry. Evaluation, the fourth element, refers back

to all three: it measures the learner's achievement against objectives, judges content against the standards of the discipline, and judges the programme against the needs of society. Evaluation is thus the element that audits the fidelity of all the others to their sources.

Table 1: Reference between sources and elements — principal lines of influence

Element	From the Learner	From Society	From Subject Matter
Objectives	Needs, interests, abilities and developmental stage.	National aims, values, occupations and social problems.	Structure and worthwhile outcomes of each discipline.
Content	Grading, language, examples from the child's experience.	Local and national relevance; cultural and moral selection.	Accuracy, significance, sequence and balance of knowledge.
Methods and experiences	How this age learns; motivation and differences.	Available resources, class conditions and community support.	Characteristic inquiry methods of the subject itself.
Evaluation	Fair tasks suited to age and opportunity to learn.	Whether the programme serves social needs and equity.	Whether standards of the discipline have truly been met.

Critical Examination: What Happens When the Balance Is Lost?

The history of curriculum reform is largely a history of one source capturing the design. The subject-centred design, the oldest and still the most common, exalts the knowledge source: its strengths are logical organisation, depth and clear standards, but its characteristic vices follow directly from neglecting the other sources — content overload, indifference to learners' interests and differences, teaching for coverage, and examinations that reward reproduction. The learner-centred design arose as a protest, exalting the learner source: its strengths are motivation, activity and respect for individual growth, but unchecked it risks fragmentary learning, neglect of essential common knowledge, and difficulty in maintaining standards and sequence across schools. The society- or problem-centred design exalts the social source: it produces relevance and commitment to real problems, but it can become propagandist if the

screening philosophy is weak, and it may sacrifice the internal logic of the disciplines, leaving pupils enthusiastic but ill-equipped. The critical point is that none of these failures is an accident of personality; each is a broken reference between sources and elements, in which one line of influence has been cut and another inflated.

A second critical problem is that the elements themselves can lose reference to the sources even inside an apparently balanced design. Objectives may be copied from foreign documents without study of local learners or society; content may be retained by tradition long after the discipline itself has discarded it; methods may be prescribed that the actual teachers, class sizes and materials in the situation make impossible; and evaluation — most powerfully of all — may quietly override every declared intention, because teachers and pupils rationally pursue what the examination rewards. In Pakistan, the dominance of board examinations is the clearest example: whatever the curriculum documents say about inquiry, character and skills, the operative curriculum in many classrooms is set by past papers, because the evaluation element has broken free from the objectives element and from all three sources. A critical examination must therefore judge a design not by its printed diagram but by asking, element by element, what evidence connects this decision to the learner, to society and to knowledge — and what evidence would reveal the connection had failed.

A third criticism concerns who controls the reference. In highly centralised designs, the sources are consulted once, at the centre, by experts, and the resulting elements are delivered to teachers as instructions. Teachers, who alone observe the learner source daily, then have no legitimate channel through which fresh evidence from that source can amend objectives, content or methods. Walker's naturalistic model and Taba's grassroots approach both arose

from this defect, arguing that design should be a deliberative process in which those closest to the sources participate continuously. The criticism is not that expertise is unnecessary — without subject and measurement expertise the knowledge source is betrayed — but that a design which silences any source will eventually be falsified by it, usually in the classroom, where the cost is paid by children.

Towards a Balanced Design

A balanced curriculum design, on this analysis, has identifiable features. It begins from all three sources and records, however briefly, the evidence taken from each. It screens tentative objectives through an explicit philosophy — in Pakistan, the aims derived from Islam, the Constitution and national policy — and through a realistic psychology of learning. It keeps the four elements in alignment, checking in particular that evaluation samples what objectives promised and instruction practised. It distributes roles sensibly: common national elements where unity matters, provincial and school-level space where situation and learners differ, and a formal role for teachers in feedback and revision. Above all, it treats design as provisional. Because the sources themselves change — children, society and knowledge are never still — the lines of reference must be retraced at planned intervals, and the design amended before its disconnection from reality becomes a public failure.

Conclusion

To conclude, curriculum development design is best understood and best judged as a pattern of references between sources and elements. The learner, society and subject matter, screened by philosophy and psychology, should jointly generate objectives; content should be drawn from knowledge but selected and graded by reference to learner and society; methods should

be governed by how learners learn, disciplined by the nature of the subject and the resources of the situation; and evaluation should audit the whole against all three sources. Critically examined, the familiar designs fail exactly where a reference is broken — subject-centred designs starve the learner, learner-centred designs can starve knowledge, society-centred designs can starve both, and examination-dominated systems allow one element to dictate to all the rest. The developer's duty is therefore not to choose a fashionable source but to maintain the full circuit of reference, with evidence, participation and revision, so that the curriculum remains at once true to knowledge, fitted to children, and answerable to the society that sustains it.

AIOU LIBRARY
aioulibrary.com
AIOU LIBRARY