GUIDELINES PAMPHLET
for the nominees for the position of
ELT SUPERVISOR
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Active Learning</td>
<td>3 - 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Basic Communication Skills</td>
<td>10 - 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Classroom Observation</td>
<td>14 - 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Curriculum Development and Evaluation</td>
<td>21 - 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Planning for Supervisors</td>
<td>31 - 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Professional Development</td>
<td>36 - 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Report Writing</td>
<td>40 - 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Roles &amp; Models of Supervision</td>
<td>45 - 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The New Kuwait National Curriculum</td>
<td>55 - 61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.
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.

Mechanisms of the active/interactive learning

* (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)

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?
   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*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages of Active Learning Lesson</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1) Motivation</strong> - present a problem-issue, generate the several suggestions (hypotheses); formulation of a research question and specific suggestions (hypotheses)</td>
<td>A research question and several specific suggestions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2) Carrying out research</strong> - find facts to check assumptions and answer the research question</td>
<td>Research work, new facts and findings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3) Sharing information</strong> - present the new informational and results of the independent research</td>
<td>New information for discussion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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)
References


✓ ELT General Supervision Document October 2017


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.

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)

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 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 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 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.
- **Undeciphered 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)

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 pessimist 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).

### References

A classroom observation is the purposeful examination of teaching and learning events through the systematic processes of data collection and analysis (Bailey, 2001).

The main purpose behind the classroom observation is to allow a teacher to get feedback from an objective, experienced observer and to involve in context-specific discussions about teaching with an adviser. Moreover, data will be collected on what the teacher is doing what they should probably be doing; classroom learning environment will be assessed. Additionally, the teacher’s capability to demonstrate various teaching methods is also observed (Wragg, 1999).

Classroom observation has been used for long time to evaluate the quality of teaching provided and the consistency between the curriculum plan and the actual delivery of the material by teachers. Wragg, (1999) stated that “the purpose of looking at implementation is to see whether there is a mismatch between intention and strategies”.

Finally, it is of merit to mention that teachers teach many lessons of which only few of them are observed. Accordingly, if the observed lessons are considered valuable and eligible to be observed then they must be regarded as worthy to be analyzed appropriately, for little purpose was served if, after a lesson, observers simply exude good will, mumble vaguely or appear to be uncertain why they are there, or what they should talk about (Wragg,1999).

There are different forms of observations encompass various criteria. These criteria may be comprehensive or specific. Some observation forms may focus on the students’ behaviour while others may seek out the response of teachers to such behaviours.

Each method needs special instrument. Observation tools are forms that are to be filled out by the observer. Depending on the observation technique, some forms or instruments may simply be a blank sheet, a worksheet, checklists, or computer software. Some observers may be affected by the setting in which the lesson takes place and may focus on some particular feature of the teaching of one specific subject, like English. This in turn may influence whether they adopt a quantitative style, which is a type of systematic approach; counting and recording of individual events, or a qualitative method, which is a type of the open observation approach, trying to look behind and beneath the mere frequencies (Wragg, 1999).

Furthermore, there are many observation tools used by teachers on their classes or in peer observation settings (Malamah-Thomas 1987, Wajnryb 1992). Such instruments are powerful developmental tools for teachers and for trainee advisors, allowing both to look at the lesson systematically in conjunction with the feedback from advisors.

Nevertheless, classroom observation should be intended at enhancing professional growth of the teacher rather than threatening them. It should also focus on the strengths of the lesson. The tutors and through their dealings with the students will recall which areas delivered in a good manner and the ones that require revisiting. It is valuable to point out that the supervisors’ role is to explore with the teachers so that they have the chance to reflect on their own teaching with the expectation that this approach will turn into a fundamental part of the teaching and learning process. Therefore, it changes into a reflection in action process that is conducted during the teaching learning process. Schon (1983) explained this reflective process by saying:
Therefore, classroom observation is getting more importance than before. The purpose of many of them is intended towards professional development. It is through experiential learning that the tutors will be self-evaluative and hence will be capable of reflecting on their teaching strategy. Heron (cited in Randall and Thornton 2001) said that working from experience the client (the teacher) is prompted to ‘uncover’ incidents, which are important, ‘reflect’ on these incidents and to discover new meanings for these incidents, and then ‘prepare’ to put the learning from experience and reflection back into a new experience.

**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 phase,
- Post-observation (follow-up phase.)

**Pre-observation phase** is executed before the classroom observation. The purpose of this meeting is to share information that helps both the instructor and the observer prepare for the observation and to illuminate the explicit outcomes of the lesson observed. It also aims at clarifying the activities through which these outcomes will be attained. Information exchanged during this meeting includes:

- the purpose of the observation,
- course information,
- lesson plan,
- instructional objective(s),
- class activities,
- instructional methods,
- What you want the observer to pay attention to

The second stage of the process is the observation phase/ (Data Collection) or the execution of lesson. The observers gather information to be discussed later with the tutor. These data include:

- instructor’s doing /saying,
- students’ doing /saying,
- instructional methods,
- teacher-students’ interaction and flow of the session etc.

Generally, the observer will use a checklist tool designed for this purpose of classroom observation. Analysis of the collected data and preparing for the post-conference take place immediately, next to the observation, it is suggested that observers write the data checked in their notes. Identify information that links to the following:

- Organization and presentation of the lesson,
- Level of student concentration,
- Interactions, and participation,
- The quality of interpersonal relationships between the teacher and students,
- Effectiveness of instruction and how instruction could be improved.

**The third stage is the post-conference phase or follow-up:** Shortly after the observation, the advisors emphasize the positive areas of the observation process such as the strengths of the lesson. The teacher will be asked to evaluate and reflect on his lesson at first. Then, the observers will discuss the collected data with the teacher. It is a descriptive stage where the observers describe the various phases of the lesson. They also provide direct feedback on the areas the teacher has asked for in the pre-observation conference. In doing so, many of
the areas for improvement are originally stated by the teachers because they had a chance to reflect on their teaching.

To pursue the task appropriately, the supervisors will not participate in any other job but collecting data. Randall and Thornton (2005) refer to a supervisor that has no other than to observe and take notes as a non-participant observer (Gebhard and Oprandy 1999). As the name designates, this kind of observation requires the observer not to engage in any interaction with the individuals being observed. Instead, the observer should concentrate on a particular behaviour – a specific criterion (Wragg, 1999, Hopkins 1999, 2002). For an observer, it is very important to avoid preconceptions and afterward approach whatever is to be observed with an open mind (Wragg, 1999).

Classroom observations have traditionally been conducted by administrators and senior teachers mainly for the purpose of teacher evaluation. Recently, however, more attention has been paid to the potential uses of observation for staff-development and observational research purposes. Teacher trainers and educational researchers argue that observations can provide useful feedback to teachers, and can improve the overall effectiveness of the teaching/learning process. Therefore, four types of observers can be mentioned:

- Teachers
- Teacher trainer (Supervisor)
- Trainee teacher (Novice)
- Trainee trainer (Trainee supervisor)

Peter, (1989) "Classroom Observation"

What will you look for during the classroom observation process?

### Teacher’s Competences

1) **Personal Qualities & Linguistic Competences:**

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

Teacher’s competencies are the skills and knowledge that enable a teacher to be successful. To maximize student learning, teachers must have expertise in a wide-ranging array of competencies in an especially complex environment where hundreds of critical decisions are required each day (Jackson, 1990).

A good teacher must have some qualities or characteristics that contribute to success and effectiveness. Here are the most essential characteristics in becoming a good teacher:

- Has the desire to teach
- Has the ability to understand and work well with people
- Manages time effectively
- Is approachable, enthusiastic and caring
- Evaluates students objectively
- Understands adult 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
- Competence in the subject
- Willingly adapts to the ever-changing needs of his learners

2) Planning and Preparation:
A lesson plan is a teacher's detailed description of the course of instruction or "learning trajectory" for a lesson. A daily lesson plan is developed by a teacher to guide class learning. Details will vary depending on the preference of the teacher, subject being covered, and the needs of the students. A lesson plan is the teacher's guide for running a particular lesson, and it includes the goal (what the students are supposed to learn), how the goal will be reached (the method, procedure) and a way of measuring how well the goal was reached (test, worksheet, homework etc.).


3) Instruction:
Instruction (the purposeful guidance of the learning process) is complex and can take many forms. It is a vitally important classroom activity, but must be considered in the context of such factors as measures of desired student learning (including overlapping objectives taught to objectives tested), controlling student behaviour (classroom management activities), individual differences among students, and school processes and characteristics.

Huitt,(2003). Classroom instruction

4) Classroom Environment & Interaction:
Classroom Climate is the classroom environment, the social climate, the emotional and the physical aspects of the classroom. It’s the idea that teachers influence student growth and behavior. The student’s behavior affects peer interaction—the responsibility of influencing these behaviors is placed with the instructor. The way the instructor organizes the classroom should lead to a positive environment rather than a destructive and/or an environment that is not conducive to learning.

Bierman & Karen, (2011) SI Teachers and Classroom Social Dynamics

Use of Questions and discussion techniques Questions can and have been used for a wide variety of educational purposes: reviewing previously read or studied material; diagnosing student abilities, preferences, and attitudes; stimulating critical thinking; managing student behavior; probing student thought process; stirring creative thinking; personalizing the curriculum; motivating students; and assessing student knowledge.

Effective Questioning Practices William Wilen, Margaret Ishler, and Janice Hutchinson, among others, have synthesized the research on effective questioning techniques and suggested several helpful directions for teachers:
1. Effective questions are clearly phrased, reducing the possibility of student confusion and frustration. A major problem occurs when a teacher asks a series of run-on questions, while attempting to sharpen the focus of the original question.
2. Teachers should wait at least three to five seconds after asking a question that requires higher-order thinking (wait-time I), and three to five seconds after a student response to provide precise feedback (wait-time II).
3. Effective teachers encourage all students to respond, rather than depending on volunteers, or answering the question themselves. Longer wait time, probing questions, and a pattern of expectation for student responses are all helpful strategies in promoting student responses.
4. The research on student call-outs suggests that although call-outs need to be controlled, their response can be a helpful technique in promoting student participation among reticent and low-socioeconomic students.
5. The research on the effectiveness of higher-level teacher questions, those questions on Bloom’s taxonomy that require analysis, synthesis or evaluation, is mixed. However, the consensus is that higher-level questions encourage higher-level student thinking.

6. Teacher feedback should be specific and discriminating. Students should be acknowledged for their contribution, praise should underscore genuine accomplishment, while criticism and remediation should point out areas in need of improvement (focusing on the behavior, skills, and knowledge, rather than the individual).

7. While researchers consider the frequency of teacher questions (well into the hundreds a day) as too high, there is an increasing emphasis on the need to encourage more student-initiated questions—an indication of student involvement and increased student comprehension.


Classroom management skills

It’s one of the most underrated professions in the world – most people assume that you don’t need any special skills to be a teacher, yet few realize that it takes a great deal of effort and ability to handle a classroom full of students. You not only have to be thoroughly knowledgeable in the subject you’re handling, you also need to know how to control a class and maintain discipline and order in it. In short, to be a good teacher, you also need the following classroom management skills:

- **Authority:** When a teacher is sure of himself and adopts a positive attitude, it becomes easy to command authority just by the way he looks.
- **Knowledge:** In order to be taken seriously by his class and earns students’ respect, a teacher must be thoroughly knowledgeable in his subject and knows more than a little in most others as well. In short, he needs to be a jack of all subjects and a master of one in order to impress and command.
- **Individualization:** Good teachers know how to tailor their lessons based on the students they teach bearing in mind the three levels: average, below average and above average students.
- **Time-management:** When a class is interesting, there is no difficulty in managing students. It’s only when they get bored and listless that they start to act up and behave badly.
- **Patience:** And finally, teachers who manage their classrooms well have immense patience.

Oakey, (2010) "Classroom Management"

5) **Teaching Facilities:**

The Importance of School Facilities in Improving Student Outcomes

School facilities can have a profound impact on both teacher and student outcomes. With respect to teachers, school facilities affect teacher recruitment, retention, commitment, and effort. With respect to students, school facilities affect health, behavior, engagement, learning, and growth in achievement. Thus, researchers generally conclude that without adequate facilities and resources, it is extremely difficult to serve large numbers of children with complex needs.

The Importance of School Facilities in Improving Student Outcomes. Retrieved from: https://sites.psu.edu/ceepa/2015/06/07/the-importance-of-school-facilities-in-improving-student-outcomes/

6) **Written Work:**

The purpose of homework is to help reinforce what was taught in class or to have students gather extra information beyond what was demonstrated in class.
Homework is one part of daily classroom management that can cause many teachers problems. Homework must be assigned, collected, reviewed and assessed. That amount of work means homework must be designed to serve an academic purpose; otherwise, the results may be a great waste of student and instructor time.


**Conclusion**

To put the whole matter in a nut shell, classroom observation is certainly the most common form of collecting data not only for teacher appraisal but also for his professional growth. So as to attain a representative sample of the tutor’s performance in the class, a number of different classroom observations need to be implemented. One classroom observation does not impart adequate data.

The way teachers behave in the classroom and the instructional approaches they use influence the degree students learn. Using classroom observations, educators and researchers are able to provide feedback that may lead to changes in teaching practices. Hopkins, (2002) believes that the motivation behind any school observation does not stop at classroom research but it also extends to the professional development of teachers.

---

**Class Visit Sheet**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s Name:</th>
<th>Day &amp; Date</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Unit:</th>
<th>Period No:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Teacher’s Competences**

- **Planning & Preparation**: 
  - Using clear, success criteria and assessment methods
  - Using appropriate language

- **Instruction**: 
  - Using materials, including textbooks & visual aids
  - Using effective & affective strategies

- **Classroom Environment & Interaction**: 
  - Using different assessment methods
  - Presenting logical, critical & creative thinking

- **Use of Teaching Facilities**: 
  - Using appropriate & varied technological tools

**Rating Scale**: 
1. Ineffective 
2. Developing 
3. Effective 
4. Highly Effective

**Written Work Follow up**: 
1. Regular 
2. Accurate 
3. Varied 
4. Adequate

**Recommendations**

- Procedure:
- Remarks:
- Recommendations:

**Teacher**

**HOD**

**Supervisor**

---

Table of Contents
References

- Thomas 1987, Wajnryb, 1992 Classroom interaction
- Richards and Lockhart, 1994 Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classroom
- Peter, (1989) classroom observation: training the observers
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 eclectic. 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Curriculum</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Overt, explicit, or written curriculum</td>
<td>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 <strong>intentional instructional agenda</strong> 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Societal curriculum (or social curricula)</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The hidden or covert curriculum</td>
<td>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: 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The null curriculum</td>
<td>That which we do not teach, 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.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 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 carry out 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 may be 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

Table of Contents
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?”

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.

References

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).


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)
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 uses 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 fit 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 derived from the vision, mission and value 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

*Table of Contents*
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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategic plan goal (general supervision level): Excellence in teaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Operational/action plan goal (Area level): teaching methods and techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation plan objectives (individual supervisor):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Identify techniques used to introduce vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Determine the range and effectiveness of techniques used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Track new technique implementation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Objective 1:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action steps</th>
<th>Responsible</th>
<th>Start date</th>
<th>End date</th>
<th>Resources needed</th>
<th>Progress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify techniques used to introduce new vocabulary</td>
<td>School supervisor</td>
<td>15/9/2019</td>
<td>26/9/2029</td>
<td>Lesson plans</td>
<td>Ongoing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**References**

- **Christison, M.A. (2008).** Strategic planning for english language teachers and leaders. In C.T, Coombe et al. (Eds.). Leadership in English Language Teaching and Learning (pp. 128-140). Ann Arbor : The University of Michigan Press.
Professional Development has been shown to have significant positive effects on teachers, students and the implementation of educational reform.

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”.

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)

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 easy available 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.

---

**References**

- Burns M. 2014 “Five models of teacher-centered professional development” Retrieved from: https://www.globalpartnership.org/blog/five-models-teacher-centered-professional-development
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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT (Mandatory)</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION (Optional)</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGMENTS (Optional)</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREFACE (Optional)</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF SCHEMES</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 1 – Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 2 – Method</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 3 – Results</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 4 – Discussion</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 5 – Summary, Conclusion, Recommendation</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES or BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDICES (Optional)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix A – Correspondence</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix B</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix C</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.
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**
- University of Leicester (2009) Report Writing, (Online) retrieved from: https://www2.le.ac.uk/offices/id/resources/writing/writing-resources/reports
- top-8-types-of-reports (Online) retrieved from: http://www.businessmanagementideas.com/business-reports/report-types-top-8-types-of-reports/3317
- table of contents (Online) retrieved from: https://www.template.net/business/word-templates/table-of-contents/
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 changes in the teaching plan, distribution of the syllabus, new textbooks...etc.
6) He/She investigates the availability of textbooks, school utilities, teaching aids and teaching resources.
7) 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.
3) 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:

- 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. |
| Clarity | • 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.

**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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presenting</th>
<th>a) Identify the problem. / Make observations and gather information from other sources.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clarifying</td>
<td>b) Ask the teacher for input into the problem. / Gather direct information from the teacher. / Use the teacher in an advisory capacity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>c) Understand the teacher’s point of view. / Attend carefully to what the teacher says.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>d) Mentally determine the best solution / Process the information and think about an appropriate action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarifying</td>
<td>f) Ask the teacher for input into the expectations. / Find out the possible difficulties associated with the directive from the teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardizing</td>
<td>g) Detail and modify expectations. / Build the necessary assistance, resources, time lines, and criteria for expected success.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reinforcing</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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

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

### 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clarifying</th>
<th>Identify the problem as seen by the teacher. / Ask the teacher about the immediate problem or concern.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflecting</td>
<td>Verify the teacher’s perception. / Check for accuracy by summarizing the teacher’s statements and asking if the summary is accurate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presenting</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarifying</td>
<td>Seek the teacher’s understanding of your perception of the problem. / Ask the teacher to paraphrase your perceptions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>Exchange suggestions of options.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging</td>
<td>Accept conflict. / Conflict between two caring professionals is productive for finding the best solution. / Assure the teacher that disagreement is acceptable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negotiation</td>
<td>Find an acceptable solution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardizing</td>
<td>Agree on the details of plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflecting</td>
<td>Summarize the final plan. / Conclude the conference by checking that both of you agree to the action and details.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.

References
In its simplest definition, curriculum is a system of learning experiences and opportunities planned and implemented for the development of children and young people through their education.

The new 2015 National Curriculum represents a highly organized body of knowledge, skills and attitudes/values that learners are offered by the Kuwaiti educational system and that are useful for personal fulfilment and development as well as for future social inclusion and employment.

The Kuwait National Curriculum defines what Kuwait learners are expected to know, be able to do, and how they should behave as values-oriented human beings and citizens forged as a result of their education. (KNC P.8)

**Competence-based Curriculum**

Like most current-day curricula in the world, the Kuwait National Curriculum is based on the competences children and learners are expected to acquire after completing their programme of education. In a competence-based curriculum, the aims of education are achieved by gradually developing a coherent system of key, general and specific competences. A curriculum that explains and plans the learning process in terms of developing learners’ competences is called “competence-based curriculum”. (KNC P.8)

**What are competences?**

Competences are defined as integrated systems of knowledge, skills and attitudes, values and beliefs developed through formal and informal education. They allow individuals to become responsible and autonomous persons, able to solve a diversity of problems and perform satisfactorily in everyday life-settings at the quality level expressed by the standards. Through the new Kuwait National Curriculum one develops three types of competences:

- Key competences.
- General competences.
- Specific competences.

**Key competences**

Key competences represent a package (a system) of knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, beliefs, and personal/social attributes that all individuals need to acquire by the end of their Secondary Education, i.e. at the end of Grade 12.

These competences are not generated by one of the subjects (e.g. Mathematics or Arabic). On the contrary, they are developed by the joint and simultaneous contribution of all subjects that learners learn over their schooling. This cross-curricular (i.e. non-subject specific) nature of the key competences is self-explanatory when it comes to some of their main features, such as: high level generality (synthetic character), consistency and sustainability over time. (KNC P.8)
These competences (e.g. Islamic and Ethical Competences, Communicative competence in Arabic Language, etc.) are the foundation of successful personal and social lifelong development, including further employability and career advancement. (KNC P.9)

**General Competences**

General competences, in contrast to key competences, are subject-specific. They define the most general subject-based knowledge, skills and attitudes/values integrated in learners’ expected outcomes by the end of grade 12, when a certain subject is taught (see the system of general competences of English taught in Kuwait education. (KNC P.9)

**Specific Competences**

Specific competences are sub-divisions of the above defined general competences and represent lower level, underlying stages in the development of the general competences related to a certain subject. The specific competences are structured and acquired by learners during a school year in the limits of certain subjects displayed in the Teaching Plan. Under each subject, the specific competences cover specialized, topic-based competences (knowledge, skills and values/attitudes) which learners are expected to demonstrate by the end of each Grade. (KNC P.9)

Within the curriculum, the specific competences are clustered in the following four areas (ranges):

- A range of realities specific to the subject (i.e. a cluster of knowledge, facts, and information related to the subject).
- A range of operations specific to the subject (i.e., a cluster of skills and strategies related to the subject);
- A range of attitudes, somehow related to the subject (a cluster of attitudes, values, beliefs of all sorts, mobilized by the knowledge and skills acquired in a certain subject);
- A range of connections with other subjects and domains of knowledge (a cluster of associations of knowledge, skills, etc. from other areas of study and experience). (KNC P.9)

**Standards to be attained through the new Kuwait National Curriculum**

As a competence-based curriculum, the new Kuwait National Curriculum resorts to the concept of ‘standards’. The **standards** define the quality levels that learners achieve in developing their competences at different stages of the learning process.

The Kuwait National Curriculum refers to two types of standards: **Curriculum Standards** and **Performance Standards**. The curriculum standards refer to the quality level to be achieved by learners in attaining the specific competences by the end of each grade. As they describe learners’ progress in learning, the curriculum standards are basic for all types of formative and summative classroom assessment. The performance standards are a measuring tool that defines the quality level to be achieved by learners in attaining general competences by the end of each of the school stages, Primary, Intermediate and Secondary. The measurement of the performance standards is basic for different types of national assessments and examinations. (KNC P.9)
Teaching and learning in a competence-based, learner- and learning-centered curriculum environment

1. Undertaking effective teaching

The new Kuwait National Curriculum is, first and foremost, learner and learning-centered. This means that the focus of the educational process is on the student and her/his learning. (KNC P.32)

Effective teaching strategies within a competence-based curriculum need to consider:
- the characteristics of the situation, the learner and prior learning,
- the student's internal motivation, interest, relevance and attitude.
- the learning environment created by the teacher (motivation, interest, relevance, attitude of the student). (KNC P.32)

Thus, a teacher needs to:
- realize that learning should start from the students’ previous knowledge. This means it starts from what the student already knows and from what is relevant for the student’s personal development and the development of what may be considered agreeable social relationships.
- recognize that education takes place through individual study by students and group activities, both of major importance, depending on the context of the process.
- appreciate the importance of the curriculum standards (what the students are expected to achieve). This gives the teacher a better understanding of students’ gradual learning progression. It also allows the teachers to take the best measures in order to enhance every student's individual performance, even going beyond the curriculum standard where appropriate.
- develop a clear plan of action, indicating, step by step, how the students will concretely achieve these curriculum standards. With this in mind, teachers need to apply effective techniques to enhance students' on-going learning.
- apply teaching approaches that proved to be effective. (KNC P.32)

Successful learning frequently takes place when the teacher:
- enhances student learning by employing different learning styles at different speeds of presentation and also at different dynamic levels.
- promotes learning via constant inquiry, effort and self-discipline.
- recognizes that learning develops relationships and abilities and contributes to acquiring competences (knowledge, skills and attitudes/values).

Most recent teaching approaches aim at developing the students’ competences through gaining a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values. This ensures that students can meet the challenges of today’s rapidly evolving world both in terms of functionality and employability.

Learners need to acquire skills, process, analyse and interpret new knowledge independently in a flexible and creative manner, think critically, reflect on ideas, etc.
Experience demonstrates that the learner-centered teaching approach and active/interactive teaching methods effectively provide learners with these skills and abilities. (KNC P.32)

2. Key principles underlying learner-centered teaching
Learner-centered teaching is an approach that shifts the focus of the activity from the teacher to the learner: it stresses how the students are to learn rather than what the teacher does to promote the learning. Key principles of learning-centered teaching are:

- Learners discover and construct the meaning from information and experience based on their unique perceptions, thoughts and feelings. Learning does not occur in a vacuum.
- More information does not necessarily mean more learning. Learners seek to create meaningful uses of knowledge regardless of the quantity of the information presented.
- Learners link new knowledge to existing information in ways that make sense to them. The remembering of new knowledge is facilitated when it can be tied to a learner’s current knowledge.
- A learner’s ‘personality’ influences his/her learning. Learners have varying degrees of self-confidence and differ in the clarity of their personal goals and expectations for success and failure and this affects their learning levels.
- Learners want to learn but personal insecurities and fear of failure often get in the way of learning. Individuals are naturally curious and enjoy learning.
- Learners like challenges and are most creative when the learning is challenging.
- Learners are individuals and not all learners are at the same stage of physical, intellectual, emotional, and social development. Learners also differ in their cultural backgrounds. Although the basic principles of learning apply to all learners regardless of these differences, teachers must take into account such differences between learners.
- The learning environment is important. Learners learn best in a friendly, socially interactive and diverse environment.
- Learners like positive reinforcement. Learning environments that support the self-esteem and respect of the individual learner tend to be more successful.
- Past experiences affect learning. Personal beliefs and impressions from prior learning color the learners' world views and their approach to learning. (KNC P.33)

3. Active learning within a learner-centered teaching
Active-learning describes the learning as a process based on the lively and dynamic cognitive activity of students in collaboration with other students. The essence of this approach is that learning is not based on the memorization of new scientific knowledge or information, but on the systematic development of thinking, self-acquisition and learning skills. Under the guidance and facilitation of the effective teacher, students learn how to access, analyse and interpret information and draw logical and coherent conclusions by themselves. (KNC P.33)
Faced with a challenge, students use problem solving and learning through dialogue ways to address the challenge and seek solutions. Very often, "problem-based learning" and “an interactive teaching method” are used as synonyms for the “active-learning approach”.
The main features of active/interactive learning are:
• an active cognitive attitude of students throughout the lesson, based on the activation of thinking;
• students are considered as discoverers and researchers: self-discovery and mastery of knowledge in the process of problem solving;
• the role of the teacher is a facilitator, creating the conditions for self-discovery and learning;
the collaboration of students and teachers and thus joint problem solving, group interaction and feedback are significant;
• the challenge or problem-issue put forward at the beginning of the lesson forms the focus of learning;
• a tendency to emphasize inquiry-based learning (lessons are presented as “research” problems);
• students are guided to undertake different types of thinking, for example logical, critical, and creative thinking;
• stimulation of student’s autonomy and independence of thought are stimulated by the teacher;
• a focus on the creative application of knowledge for a meaningful and useful purpose;
• Extensive use of group work (not necessarily of one type), for example work in large groups, in pairs, in groups of intentionally selected diverse individuals etc.);
• a respectful and trusting style of relationship between students and teacher;
• Use of effective methods of organization and indicators of success of the learning activities; (for example, worksheets and handouts; forms of organizing the learning environment; various methods of determined achievement, etc.) (KNC P.34)

The outcomes expected by students when successfully employing active learning include:
• Short-term mastery of information,
• Long-term retention of what has been studied,
• Depth of understanding of material learned,
• Acquisition of critical thinking or creative problem-solving skills,
• Development of positive attitudes toward learning, as well as
• Increase in learner engagement with the subject being taught, or level of confidence in knowledge or skills. (KNC P.34)

4. Making teaching effective by engaging students in active learning
Engaging students and supporting them to develop knowledge, insights, problem solving skills, self-confidence, self-efficiency, and a passion for learning are common expectations associated with effective teaching. (KNC P.34)
As teachers, you may ask, “When do children learn best?”
According to current theories and practices, the learning will be motivated (“learning engagement”) best if:
• learners see a worthwhile end-product to the process;
• learning content is relevant to personal interest and choices;
• learners learn by doing. Understanding is essential to effective performance and only through doing one can obtain true understanding.
• learners have a freedom to make mistakes safely. Learning by doing means that people run the risk of failure. Learning events or experiences must therefore ensure that individuals know that it is safe and permitted to fail, but teachers have to help them learn from their mistakes.
• learners receive feedback on their work and their educational progress. Learners need feedback on how they are doing but this is best provided by giving learners the means to evaluate their own progress, i.e. self-checking.
• learners have a freedom to learn in their own time and at their own pace. Learning will be more effective if trainees can manage their learning themselves in accordance with their own preferences as to how it should progress. (KNC P.34)

Effective teaching needs to include learning approaches and activities in the three domains of learning: knowledge, skills and attitudes/values. These are also termed as cognitive, psychomotor, and affective domains of learning. This can be considered as:
• cognitive (thinking) or ‘minds-on’
• psychomotor (doing) but rarely doing without thinking leading to ‘hands-on, minds-on’
• affective (feeling) or ‘hearts-on’. (KNC P.35)

The possible difficulties in an active-learning environment and how they could be diminished
Educational experiences for students should be challenging and enriching. Too-easy learning activities and too-easy assignments are not as effective at engaging students as activities and assignments that challenge them. When students are reflecting, questioning, conjecturing, evaluating, and making connections between ideas, they are generally engaged.
The challenge here is to give a lesson that has an “inquiry character”/a problem/a challenge, as well as a change in the traditional, dominant role of the teacher… and allows students to become equal participants in the educational process. This becomes possible by altering traditional roles of student and teacher in the educational process.

The student’s position is that of “a discoverer” and “a researcher”. The students are placed in a learning context in which they should face a number of challenges, questions and issues that need to resort to inquiry and micro-inquiry in order to get to a solution. However, it is very important that the students clearly understand the purpose of the learning exercise as being a cognitive one; one that answers what, why and how s/he is performing and what kind of final result the students should achieve. (KNC P.35)

The teacher’s position is a guide or facilitator. The teacher must create the conditions necessary for the students to be able to conduct their inquiry, help them to define their inquiry goals and facilitate their learning process by asking relevant questions and guiding the learners to, or in the direction of sources of information.
This is a new type of leadership in teaching where the learning process is based on the joint activity of the teacher and the students which is oriented to the achievement of the learning objectives. In this case, the teacher doesn’t dominate the class as a strong authority, and does not distance himself/herself from the students. The teacher systematically and purposefully works with the class, organizes the problem situations, promotes development of research tasks by students, provides technical assistance in solving them,
and points the way forward to the acquisition of knowledge. The teacher cooperates with the students, and guides them towards what they must learn and how to learn. (KNC P.35)

To encourage learners’ active cognitive participation in active/interactive learning, it is necessary that:

- the teacher demonstrates special respect, trust and individual approach to each student;
- the teacher must demonstrate a high level of sensitivity to the classroom climate.

During the active/interactive learning, a teacher should:

- have attitudes of mutual respect, trust and kindness with the learners;
- support learners and accept them as they are;
- motivate and stimulate learners by believing in their capability;
- avoid direct criticism of the learners, refuse to evaluate the answers as good or bad so the student should believe and be sure that any attempt to solve the problem will be discussed, evaluated as a creative idea and that the learners’ ideas and abilities deserve serious and respectful attention.

These attitudes expressed above will help to build confidence of each individual learner and create a feasible learning environment in the class. These are the keys to full participation of students in the educational process and the learners’ possibility to openly share their viewpoints. Through adherence to the above suggested teacher attitudes, students’ fear of failure or fear of ridicule will disappear --- and as a result, the cognitive activity of students will be maintained throughout the learning process. (KNC P.36)

References

- Kuwait NationalCurriculum (KNC); a guide for effective teaching of English language in grade one. Kuwait 2015
- Kuwait NationalCurriculum (KNC); a guide for effective teaching of English language in grade one ANNEXES. Kuwait 2015