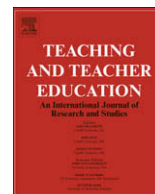




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## Classroom-level curriculum development: EFL teachers as curriculum-developers, curriculum-makers and curriculum-transmitters

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## ABSTRACT

This qualitative study aimed to explore teacher curriculum approaches and the strategies attached to each approach because they influence the taught curriculum, teacher development and student learning. The study was therefore grounded in teacher curriculum development, curriculum implementation, teacher development, student cognitive and affective change and constructivism. To address this study's qualitative and exploratory purposes, it made use of the qualitative paradigm at the levels of ontology (multiple curriculum realities), epistemology (interaction with rather than detachment from respondents) and methodology (using idiographic methodology and instruments). In line with the qualitative paradigm, it used qualitative case-study (method), general interviews, pre/post-lesson interviews, group interviews and participant observation (data collection methods) in addition to grounded theory (data analysis approach) to meet the research purposes. Working with English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and mixed-nationality college students, the study reached a teacher curriculum approach classification comprising curriculum-transmission, curriculum-development and curriculum-making. It recommended alternatives for teacher, student and curriculum development, curriculum implementation and teacher training.

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### 1. Introduction

Concern has been expressed that students learn better in some classrooms, whereas in other classrooms, they underachieve despite using one curriculum. It is equally concerning that some teachers continue to develop, while others do little to advance their professional skills in spite of teaching the same curriculum. Moreover, we need to understand how different curricula result from implementing a single curriculum. Teacher curriculum approaches may address these concerns because they may influence teachers, students and curriculum alike; thereby, turning the learned curriculum into a curriculum that is substantially different from the formal curriculum (Randolph, Duffy, & Mattingly, 2007; Shawer, Gilmore, & Banks-Joseph, 2008). Therefore, it is critical to examine and understand how teachers approach curriculum. For example, some teachers adopt a *fidelity* approach by focusing solely on content transmission; while others, follow an *adaptation* approach through undertaking curriculum adjustments. A third category of teachers, embrace an *enactment* approach through

creating curriculum in action out of student experiences. Each approach that teachers use results in different implications on the taught curriculum, teachers themselves, and students (Snyder, Bolin, & Zumwalt, 1992).

Researchers investigating curriculum approaches have raised additional concerns including the possibility that: "some teachers are naturally predisposed to avoiding [teaching] uncertainty in the name of stability, while others are drawn to its unpredictable and perhaps even exciting nature" (Campbell, 2007, p. 8); teachers' curriculum approaches affect their professional development (Craig, 2006; Eisner, 2002; Munby, 1990; Parker, 1997; Schön, 1983); and teachers' curriculum approaches have an impact on student learning and motivation (Eisner, 1990; Erickson & Shultz, 1992; King, 2002; Wells, 1999). Given the numerous concerns raised in previous research, the purpose of this study was to explore how teachers in general, English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers in particular, approach curriculum as well as the strategies they attached to each approach. Qualitative research methods were employed to gain insights into the comprehensive phenomena surrounding EFL teachers' curricular choices. The theoretical framework that grounded this research is presented as well as the research design, results, and discussion which includes implications and recommendations.

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## 2. Theoretical framework

Since this study sought to explore how teachers approach curriculum; this section, includes a critical survey of the literature related to curriculum fidelity (curriculum-transmission), adaptation (curriculum-development) and enactment (curriculum-making). In addition, it examines the relationship between teachers' curriculum approaches and teachers and students' cognitive and affective development; because teachers' curriculum approaches impact teachers and students. It is also essential to understand the curriculum philosophies, models and strategies that have been linked to the various approaches. Finally, the impact that curriculum materials including textbooks have on teacher curriculum decisions are explored.

### 2.1. Curriculum fidelity

The fidelity approach confines curriculum to "a course of study, a textbook series, a guide [and] a set of teacher plans" (Snyder et al., 1992, p. 427). This involves implications for curriculum-knowledge, curriculum-change, and the teacher's role. External experts define curriculum knowledge by determining what teachers should teach. Curriculum change, subsequently, starts from the centre to the periphery in linear and systematic stages leaving no role for teachers apart from delivery (Snyder et al., 1992). Therefore, teachers are transmitters who follow classical humanism aimed at delivering static information, continuity between the past and present, and simplistic standards of achievement (Clark, 1987; Skilbeck, 1982).

This approach reflects Tyler's (1949) classical model that specified objectives, content, and means of achieving and assessing pre-determined learning outcomes. Curriculum change follows a top-down strategy of materials development and diffusion (Kelly, 1999). Despite maintaining equal opportunity and standards (Gordon, 1981), a top-down curriculum is focused on organizational rather than local needs (Brady, 1995), and fails to encourage teacher development and active learning (Craig, 2006; Fishman, Marx, Best, & Tal, 2003; Knowles, 1999). "The transmission model promotes neither the interaction between prior and new knowledge nor the conversations that are necessary for internalization and deep understanding" (Richardson, 1997, p. 3). This transmission agenda reflects behaviourism through rehearsing preconceived content (Taba, 1962). Researchers have emphasized the need for teachers to overcome curriculum *fidelity* constraints through curriculum *adaptation* or curriculum *making*.

### 2.2. Curriculum adaptation

The mutual-adaptation approach is a "process whereby adjustments in a curriculum are made by curriculum developers and those who use it in the school or classroom context" (Snyder et al., 1992, p. 410). This involves conversations between teachers and external developers for introducing adaptations necessary to match curriculum to local contexts. The adaptation approach does not suggest that curriculum knowledge should differ considerably from the fidelity approach, since experts still define it. On the other hand, curriculum change has become more flexible through mutual adaptations. The teacher's role has also become active through adjusting curriculum to match his/her classroom context.

The curriculum adaptation approach matches Cohen and Ball's (1999, p. 2) notion of instructional capacity which results from "the interactions among teachers and students around curriculum materials". Herein, teachers play a pivotal role since, "teachers' knowledge, experience, and skills affect the interactions of students and materials in ways that neither students nor materials can." The

outcome of this interaction is the actual curriculum. "Curriculum is often developed in advance, but students' and teachers' interactions with this material comprise the enacted... or effective curriculum" (Cohen & Ball, 1999, p. 4). Doyle (1992) agreed and stressed, that it is teachers who turn curriculum from the institutional into the pedagogical level (experienced/enacted curriculum). On the other hand, Ben-Peretz (1990) and Remillard (1999), referred to this interaction as teacher curriculum development that occurs at two levels. At level one, curriculum experts translate skills, knowledge, concepts and values into curriculum materials, described as the paper curriculum (Munby, 1990), intended curriculum (Eisner, 1990), and official curriculum (Pollard & Triggs, 1997). At level two, teachers develop the paper curriculum through their use and development of curriculum materials, termed as curriculum-in-use (Munby, 1990) and enacted curriculum (Doyle, 1992).

The adaptation approach makes use of the official, hidden and null curricula, which result in the teacher curriculum version (Ben-Peretz, 1990). The official curriculum is a course of study that dictates objectives, content, pedagogy and evaluation, whereas the hidden curriculum is the learning that occurs without being planned in the official curriculum (Pollard & Triggs, 1997). The null curriculum, on the other hand, is where teachers supply essential concepts, principles, skills, values and knowledge missing in the official curriculum (Uhrmacher, 1997). This interaction between teachers and learners around curriculum materials forms an arena where teachers develop curriculum:

When teachers use curriculum materials... they may find suggestions that they view as invalid... To create a better story, they bring to class additional materials, draw from their experiences and other curriculum guides and they apply their personal stories to this incomplete story (Shkedi, 1998, p. 211).

Thus, the adaptation approach has stimulated interactions between teachers, students and curriculum. Whether is it called teacher curriculum development (Ben-Peretz, 1990), teacher instructional capacity (Cohen & Ball, 1999) or the experienced curriculum (Doyle, 1992), using this approach enfranchises teachers to shape curriculum according to their contexts. However, it is the enactment approach that handed curriculum to teachers (Snyder et al., 1992).

### 2.3. Curriculum enactment

According to Snyder et al. (1992, p. 428), the enactment approach sets curriculum as a process "jointly created and jointly and individually experienced by students and teacher." Curriculum-knowledge is no longer a product, but ongoing constructions out of "the enacted experiences... [that] students and teacher create" (1992, p. 410). External knowledge is "viewed as a resource for teachers who create curriculum as they engage in the ongoing process of teaching and learning in the classroom." Moreover, "it is they and their students who create the enacted curriculum... Teachers are creators rather than primarily receivers of curriculum knowledge." Curriculum change is neither about curriculum implementation nor adaptation. It is "a process of growth for teachers and students, a change in thinking and practice" (Snyder et al., 1992, p. 429).

The teacher's role ranges from using, adapting and supplementing external curriculum to curriculum development and making (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992; Craig, 2006). As a result, curriculum enactment reflects the strengths of progressivism, by addressing learners' needs, interests and personal growth (Skilbeck, 1982). It is grounded in the process model where students explore worthwhile educational areas relevant to themselves and community, rather than reaching pre-specified objectives that

hardly address their needs or abilities. The process curriculum provides learners with opportunities to construct curriculum from their actions under the teacher's guidance. Periphery-centre (bottom-up) strategies are therefore used to put this approach into practice (Kelly, 1999; Stenhouse, 1975). Curriculum enactment provides a forum where teacher professional development and curriculum development have become interdependent (Shawer et al., 2008). Skilled teachers are more able to develop curriculum (Oreck, 2004; Parker, 1997) and teachers who engage in curriculum development activities acquire professional skills ongoing. This concurs with current professional development trends calling for teacher development to occur through learning in the context of teaching (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Knight, Tait, & Yorke, 2006).

The enactment approach reflects social constructivism (Wells, 1999), for involving active learning, social and sequential construction of more complex cognitive schemas, and student interests and needs (Piaget, 1955; Richardson, 1997; Terwel, 2005). Vygotsky's (1978, p. 86) zone of proximal development in particular expands the teachers' role to explore "the distance between the [students'] actual developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers." Curriculum enactment subsequently enhances student cognitive development through various content representations, including 'enactive', 'iconic' and 'symbolic' (Bruner, 1978).

Erickson and Shultz (1992, p. 467) metaphorically compared the official curriculum to a frozen school lunch where "it is not the teacher's responsibility (nor the students) to decide what or how long mealtime should be." Students eating less receive smaller meals (remedial teaching); whereas, students eating more get better ones (gifted programmes). According to Schön, this process negatively inspires students to learn how "to beat the system by optimising to the measures of performance, discovering how to pass tests, get grades and move through the levels of the system, without thinking very much about the knowledge they are supposed to be acquiring" (Schön, 1983, p. 332). Therefore, using the *curriculum fidelity approach*, results in students who either refuse to learn, cause trouble (objection) or attain superficial learning just for exams. In contrast, using the *curriculum enactment approach* involves good cooks (teachers) who provide tasty meals according to student tastes. The meal (curriculum) has been fully assimilated (learned), since students determined how much of it to cook and eat (Erickson & Shultz, 1992). However, teachers' tendency to follow the fidelity, adaptation or enactment approach depends on how they use curriculum materials.

#### 2.4. Curriculum materials and textbooks

Curriculum materials sometimes mean textbooks, but textbooks are usually considered one component of curriculum materials (Ben-Peretz, 1990; Remillard, 1999). For the purposes of this research, curriculum materials were defined as any pedagogical input that comprises textbooks, workbooks and teachers' guides in addition to any software and audio-visual materials, which represent an institution's formal curriculum. Moreover, material development involves the reduction, addition or adaptation of existing materials (Tomlinson, 1998); while supplementary materials, involve anything added to the core materials (Remillard, 1999).

There has been controversy over textbook use with regard to curriculum, teachers and students. A textbook is a coursebook that provides the core materials for a course of study "in one book... designed so that it could serve as the only book which the learners necessarily use during a course" (Tomlinson, 1998, p. ix). Textbooks

define the school curriculum (Venezky, 1992) through determining the teaching topics and their sequence (Freeman & Porter, 1989). Westbury (1990, p.1) asserted, "that textbooks are the central tools and... objects of attention in all modern forms of schooling" to the extent that "educational... and curriculum development... go hand in hand with textbook development and distribution."

Historically, textbooks and curriculum underwent unstable relationships. At the turn of the 20th century, a textbook represented curriculum, including content, pedagogy and assessment. In the late 1940s, it is curriculum that determined school philosophy, aims, content, pedagogy, and evaluation with textbooks forming only part of it. In the 1950s and 60s, textbooks were developed into what were then called instructional packages to minimize textbook influence on curriculum (Talmage, 1972). This strong role of textbooks contributed to teacher curriculum transmission, providing ready-made decisions about course aims, content, and pedagogy (Elliott & Woodward, 1990).

In contrast, textbooks stifle teacher creativity (Bell, 1993; Bell & Gower, 1998; Bhola, 1999), and lack flexibility to meet student differences. "Students are short-changed in learning about important topics and teachers tend to become followers" (Elliott & Woodward, 1990, p. 224). This leads to the need for curriculum-adaptations, asking teachers to adapt and supplement textbooks (O'Neill, 1990) because they "cannot anticipate all the contingencies of local use... [or] fully provide for individual differences" (Woodward & Elliott, 1990, p. 183). Textbook constraints also paved the way for curriculum-enactment, encouraging teachers to construct learning out of student experiences (Jolly & Bolitho, 1998; Keiny, 1999).

Previous research did not study the ways in which teachers approach curriculum. Though some examined teachers' styles of textbook use, they did not provide sufficient understanding about this process (Bush, 1986; Clemente, Ramirez, & Dominguez, 2000; Freeman & Porter, 1989; Sosniak & Stodolsky, 1993). Researchers who conducted previous studies on textbook use, classified teachers into categories heavily dependent on textbook(s) or tending to depart from textbook(s) (Clemente et al., 2000; Craig, 2001; Heaton, 1993; Kirk & MacDonald, 2001; Lee, 2000; Lee, 1995; Putnam, 1993; Remillard, 1999; Spillane, 1999; Woods, 1991). However, previous research neither specified the curriculum approaches that teachers used nor the strategies that differentiate one curriculum approach from another. Though there are strong links between teacher curriculum approaches, teacher development, student learning, classroom pedagogy, and the motives behind teacher approaches; this study, exclusively examined teachers' curriculum approaches and the strategies attached to each approach. The two questions that served to guide this research were:

1. How do teachers approach curriculum in their classrooms?
2. What strategies do teachers use in each curriculum approach?

### 3. Research design

#### 3.1. Paradigm and strategy

It is essential to understand each teacher's curriculum approach in his/her context by unearthing their unknown curriculum strategies. This open agenda demanded a qualitative framework to explore teachers' unique ways of doing things and the interactions that occurred which contributed to their teaching context and actions. Standardizing context variables neither concurred with the ontological perspective (multiple curriculum realities) (Jackson, 1992), nor with epistemological standpoint (interaction with rather than detachment from respondents) of the study (Clarke, 1999;

Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Therefore, qualitative case-study as an “idiographic” research strategy was used to study each teacher’s curriculum in his/her natural context with an emphasis on natural observations (Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994). This section includes a summary of the sampling, data collection, and data analyses procedures used to investigate teachers’ curriculum approaches and strategies as they taught English as a foreign language to groups of international students.

### 3.2. Sampling

Meetings with teachers were made possible through college directors. The research purpose and relevance were discussed with the teachers as well as assurances of complete confidentiality and anonymity. A timeframe extending over three months was established by the teachers (Robson, 1993). Purposive sampling met the case-study criteria by selecting every case to “serve... [the research] purpose... of discovering, gaining insight and understanding into a particular chosen phenomenon” (Burns, 2000, p. 465). The initial sample involved six EFL college teachers who depart from curriculum materials. This involved two trained (EFL qualification) and experienced (more than three years) teachers; two trained but inexperienced (less than two months) teachers to assess the impact of experience; and two experienced but untrained teachers to assess the training impact. Theoretical sampling, however, changed the original sampling plan in line with emerging themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Three trained and experienced female teachers who usually used and developed curriculum materials (according to the original sampling plan) were selected. Only one teacher met these criteria while the other two differed. The two that differed developed curriculum *without* using curriculum materials; they assessed student needs and constructed curriculum out of the resulting topics. These two teachers inspired an expansion of the sample to study their unique curriculum approach. A third female teacher similar to these two was found. Thus, three female teachers were categorized as *curriculum-makers*.

The one teacher from the first original three who supplemented and adapted curriculum materials along with others were needed to fulfil the original sample and purpose. Through initial interviews, five teachers who met the criteria of the original sample were found. Classroom observations revealed that only four (three females and one male) of the five matched original sampling, whereas the fifth (female) teacher adhered closely to the textbook. The first teacher and the additional four resulted in five teachers who met the criterion of being *curriculum-developers*.

The teacher who closely adhered to the textbook inspired investigation as well; therefore, another teacher (male) who also adhered to the textbook was selected. These two teachers were categorized as *curriculum-transmitters*. Expanding the original sample into three categories (through theoretical sampling) broadened the scope of the study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

### 3.3. Data collection

Interview and participant observation data were collected to provide a comprehensive context from which to understand the teachers’ approaches to curriculum selection and implementation. Semi-structured general interviews (See Appendix A for a summary of the main questions as well as follow-up questions that were asked as needed) enabled teachers to articulate their curriculum strategies. They allowed probing for adequate answers, interaction with the respondents, and clarification of meaning (Lofland & Lofland, 1995; Patton, 1990). Moreover, teacher pre- and post-observed-lesson interviews (See Appendix B for a summary of pre/post-lesson questions) validated the observation data that was

collected. Precisely, pre-lesson interviews uncovered how and why teachers decided on their lesson plans (material and pedagogic activities); whereas post-lesson interviews, matched teachers’ planning with actual teaching. Group interviews (See Appendix C for a summary of the main questions and follow-up questions that were asked as needed) obtaining student input, validated the teachers’ data by drawing conclusions about emerging issues (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000).

General and group interviews ranged between 65 and 95 min; whereas pre- and post-lesson interviews, took between three and ten minutes. Interview data was validated and checked for reliability by first transcribing audiotapes verbatim and then establishing transcriber reliability. Concepts and questions were developed carefully. Moreover, the respondents were cooperative and motivated to learn about their curriculum approach. Procedure errors, including research design, wording and order of interview questions, interview length, data recording methods, interview venue and interaction with respondents were handled carefully. For example, open-ended questions, specific probes and non-directive techniques (like reflecting ideas and summarising) were used to get valid responses (Kvale, 1996).

Ten experienced teachers and four educational researchers validated the interview content by matching the research purpose with the interview schedule (Bloom, Fischer, & Orme, 1995). Interviews were subsequently piloted and item wording and number were revised (Cohen et al., 2000). Since the research scope expanded to three categories of teachers, new items and validation procedures similar to those above were developed and implemented.

Participant observation validated meanings and captured interactions in the teachers’ settings (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995; May, 1997). Each teacher was observed between 9 and 26 times. Observations were documented through extensive written and low-inference descriptions and audio-recordings (Stake, 1995). Establishing rapport with the teachers was a cornerstone to data validity. Moreover, concurrent observations and interviews enhanced the validity of each method (Robson, 1993). Finally, feeding the results back to teachers, confirmed the soundness and accuracy of the data interpretation process (Davies, 1999).

### 3.4. Data analysis

Grounded theory was used to analyse the data through open, axial and selective coding. Open coding included line-by-line, whole-paragraph and whole-document analyses which resulted in naming concepts, assigning categories, and developing properties (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Concepts were developed by naming events through the use of three techniques; in-vivo, abstracting, and borrowing from the literature. In-vivo concepts were taken from the respondents’ words; for example, textbook as a ‘spring-board’. Abstracting involved naming events based on understanding the data (for example, ‘curriculum-bound’). Borrowing from the literature occurred when the data matched a concept that previous researchers have identified; for example, ‘material-writing’. The data was then searched and whatever fell under a concept was named after it (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Category development involved connecting related concepts under a wider concept, like grouping ‘material-writing’ and ‘material-adaptation’ under the category of curriculum-development. Properties involved all concepts under one category, such as grouping ‘multi-source of input’ and ‘topic-skipping’ under ‘micro-curriculum development’. Axial coding involved grouping sub-categories around one axis, as in grouping ‘micro’ and ‘macro’ strategies under ‘curriculum development strategies’. Selective coding involved integrating categories into a coherent theory that reflected all elements of analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

## 4. Results

Data analysis resulted in three categories of teachers: curriculum-developers (five teachers); curriculum-makers (three teachers); and curriculum-transmitters (two teachers). Four sources of data were utilized including general interviews, pre/post-observation interviews, student group interviews, and classroom observation. The categories developed from the analysis were used to present the data in the figure of each section:

### 4.1. The curriculum context

Table 1 provides a complete summary of participant demographics including curriculum approach, gender, age, years of experience, class size, and college policy. The teachers who came from different contexts were grouped on the basis of their typical approach to curriculum. Curriculum-developers, makers, and transmitters shared contextual characteristics including age, experience, training, and professional development. As shown in Table 1, they had ability-grouped and mixed-nationality college students with similar gender proportions. They differed, however, in college curriculum policy as explained below. The codes shown in Table 1 (for example, 1-A, 2-C, 3-C, 4-C and 5-C (curriculum-developers)) are used to identify each teacher's classroom, college, curriculum approach along with the relationships between teachers throughout the Results section. The number refers to each teacher's ID, whereas the letter stands for each college ID.

*Curriculum-developers* were between 30 and 40 years of age with EFL teaching experience ranging between three and eleven years. Classroom size averaged 11 at pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced levels. Two *curriculum-makers* were 50 years old with 20 years of teaching experience; the third was 30 years old with seven years experience. Class size averaged 12 at pre-intermediate and advanced levels. *Curriculum-transmitters* were ages 40 and 50 with eight and nine years experience, respectively. Class size averaged 14 at intermediate and upper-intermediate levels.

All curriculum-developers, makers, and transmitters completed EFL training. One teacher shared, "I've got mainstream... and EFL training" (6-B). They had all participated in staff-development activities (college-financed), "There was extensive training... weekly inputs" (2-C). For self-development (self-financed), apart from one teacher in each group, most teachers made decisions similar to this, "I obtained a Masters in TESOL" (10-C) or "I'm currently studying for a Masters... I financed myself" (1-A). However, the three groups differed in their college curriculum policies. Apart from teacher 1-A, *curriculum-developers* worked in a context that imposed restrictions through prescribing and strictly monitoring the teaching of a textbook. "We have to cover a certain

amount of the coursebook" (3-C); however, they were free to develop the textbook and curriculum, "We also have freedom to supplement it" (5-C). In contrast, *curriculum-makers* worked in a college that encouraged curriculum development. "I can do what I want. We're fortunate really in our kind of work... We decide what we think the students need... our curriculum is very flexible" (6-B). *Curriculum-transmitters* involved a teacher who worked in the same context as teachers who were curriculum-makers. "I chose and introduced this textbook... We are encouraged to use other materials and to make our own materials" (9-B). The other teacher in the curriculum-transmitter category worked in the same context as that of the curriculum-developers (10-C).

### 4.2. Curriculum-development strategies: curriculum-developers

General interviews indicated that curriculum-developers adopted typical strategies when approaching curriculum. These teachers adopted *macro* and *micro* strategies when implementing curriculum. *Macro-strategies* involved general steps the teachers followed to adjust curriculum to their contexts. *Micro-strategies* were specific steps used to put macro-strategies into action. Macro-strategies involved curriculum-change by transforming the paper curriculum into a suitable version to teachers' contexts (See Fig. 1). "I use authentic materials, internet stuff and newspapers to change the curriculum focus" (4-C). Curriculum development was another macro-strategy, "Where I don't like what's in the textbook, I go and look elsewhere, explore other ways... to develop it" (5-C). They developed curriculum through "supplementing and adapting the curriculum" (2-C) and employed curriculum-planning through "thinking about students on planning lessons and the materials and activities that can suit the students" (3-C).

Curriculum-developers used curriculum-experimentation, "there's always some degree of experimentation" in ways similar to "action research... to know how... some ideas haven't worked, so I can immediately respond." They "experimented with things about what will improve" (1-A). The macro-strategies of *curriculum-design* and *material-writing* shaped their curriculum. "I think more about the course design" and "write my material" (4-C). The teachers employed curriculum-expansion. "Even if a few people in the group change, the curriculum has to be flexible," because "there are various elements, which do need to be in the course. I know from experience that trying these things does make you teach... I've met teachers who have taught the book... but I haven't seen anybody doing that and then be a good teacher" (2-C). Curriculum-developers "expanded on the curriculum or modified it... to push the group a bit" (4-C).

Curriculum expansion, adaptation, and supplementing were used because "I make the mistakes, if I just adhere to the textbook, because some lessons in [the textbook] wouldn't interest the students" (3-C). The teachers "adapt difficult content and supply

**Table 1**  
Participant demographics.

Teacher							Classroom (students)			
Curriculum approach	ID	College	College curriculum policy	Gender	Age	Years of experience	Level	Size	Gender	Grouping
curriculum developer	1	A	free	female	37	11	upper intermediate	12	mixed	mixed ability & nationality
	2	C	restricting	male	30	3	upper intermediate	10		
	3	C	restricting	female	33	7	pre-intermediate	11		
	4	C	restricting	female	39	10	intermediate	11		
	5	C	restricting	female	40	8	advanced	13		
curriculum maker	6	B	free	female	50	20	pre-intermediate	10	mixed	mixed ability & nationality
	7	A	free	female	30	7	advanced	11		
	8	A	free	female	50	20	pre-intermediate	16		
curriculum-transmitter	9	B	free	male	50	9	upper intermediate	15	mixed	mixed ability & nationality
	10	C	restricting	female	40	8	intermediate	14		

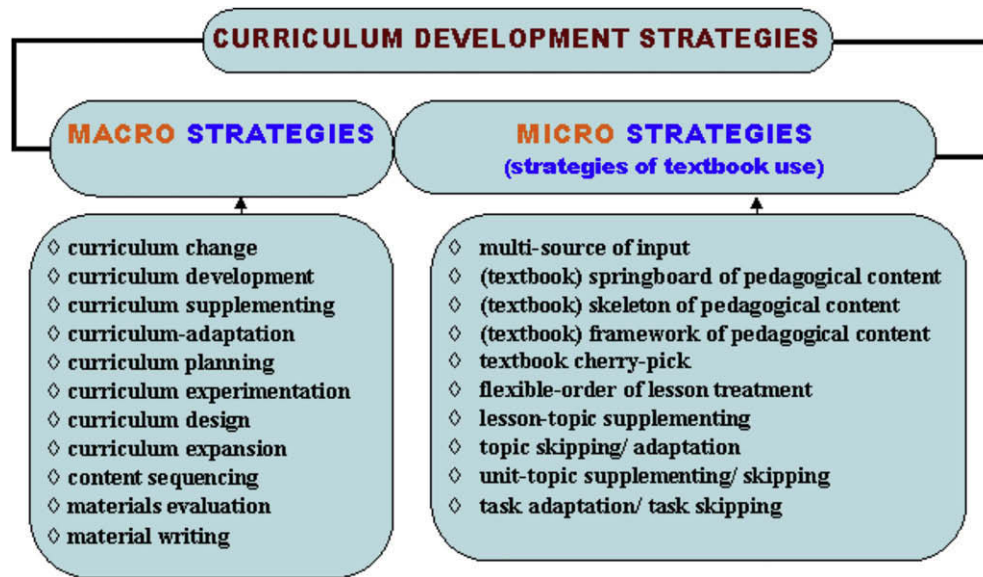


Fig. 1. Macro and micro curriculum-development strategies.

missing elements through looking for things... That's where these lessons come in. I'd like to be able to go into the classroom and say, open your books at page ten and everybody does, and I can sit at the front and have a bit of a sleep or whatever;" but, this did not happen because, "just using the book doesn't benefit anybody" (2-C). They also used material-evaluation, "I assess the curriculum topics and materials to see if they fit the students" (1-A).

Curriculum-developers used a set of *micro-strategies* to put macro-strategies into practice. As indicated in Fig. 1, they used multi-source of input, springboard, ideas-generating, skeleton of pedagogical-content, and textbook cherry-picking as their micro-strategies. They "used the textbook as some form of input" (5-C) and "cherry picked from it" (2-C). The textbook was further "used as a skeleton of the lesson and a framework to get ideas" (3-C). The teachers used prioritizing strategies by "giving different priority to the lessons and units" (4-C). Fig. 1 also revealed their textbook use and dynamic strategies including flexible lesson-order, material-adaptation, topic-adaptation, task-adaptation, material-supplementing, and topic-supplementing. "I ignore the order of the lessons. I never go through page-by-page" (4-C). Adaptation was the alternative strategy, "I adapt material, topics... and specific tasks" (3-C). They also indicated that they added materials and topics, "I supplemented a lot... used other textbooks and materials... and incorporated authentic materials into teaching." For example, "we've had lessons using videos... it's listening, but it's not related in anyway to anything in the book" (5-C).

Curriculum-developers' use of unit-topic and lesson-topic supplementing strategies was also depicted in Fig. 1. Unit-topics involved a group of lessons the teachers supplemented around a central idea from outside the textbook. Lesson-topics were individual lessons they provided around a textbook central idea. "I supplemented with my own ideas;" for example, "the class you observed, I did a whole lot of work on newspapers... It was completely unrelated to the textbook" (1-A). Curriculum-developers also used unit-topic skipping, lesson-topic skipping, task-skipping and task-adaptation micro-strategies as voiced by one teacher, "I skip lessons and units" (3-C). They skipped and adapted tasks within lessons as well, "I skip parts and adapt the textbook material and activities" (2-C).

Pre- and post-lesson interviews involved interrogative techniques of direct questions for encouraging teachers to supply

explicit answers on a daily basis. When asked what they planned to teach in each lesson, curriculum-developers supplied answers compatible with the general interview data. In one lesson, one teacher provided the lesson topic and materials, "today, we're looking at some of the mistakes that they'd made in their writing." For a second lesson, she supplied the materials, "We shall start with a pronunciation exercise." In a third, "I shall use my materials to practise polite suggestions." When asked if the topic was from the textbook, she often replied, "no, only the suggestions part, everything else was outside the book." In rare occasions, she used the textbook exclusively, "I did a reading from the book" (4-C). Another teacher taught about "collocations, vocabulary... and... reading." She adapted and skipped, "I used the textbook and developed from it, but I missed things out" (1-A).

To identify more explicitly their curriculum approach, curriculum-developers were asked, "Was the lesson from the textbook?" In one lesson, a teacher adapted. "I am using a text from the textbook, but not in the way as presented in the textbook." For a second lesson, she replied "no... they watched the video... to write a summary report." For a third lesson, she replied "not at all" (5-C). Another teacher answered, "No. The canyon text was [a reading] from a newspaper and... the two internet [reading] texts" (2-C). To clarify the scale of curriculum changes they were asked, "What teaching materials did you use?" One teacher replied, "I used the book and additional activities." A second reply, "the materials were my own that I made." For a third lesson, she combined several sources; "the first part was the textbook. The second was my own role-play that I devised. The last part was from a vocabulary activity book." In a fourth lesson, "I used the textbook and an activity, a game, which I devised." In a fifth lesson, she wrote her materials, "I used some exercises I made myself." She conceded in one lesson that "the materials were the book, basically" (4-C).

To identify how curriculum-developers changed classroom content from the curriculum they were asked, "Did you make changes in your textbook?" Where necessary, it was followed up with this question, "What were the changes?" One teacher used the dynamic-sequencing strategy with regard to textbook tasks in addition to adding activities and adapting tasks. "I changed the order of activities and introduced a couple of extra activities, such as the mind maps." Of two other lessons, she said, "I changed the way I did the exercises" and "used the things in a different way."

In other lessons, she used the dynamic task-sequence and task-skipping strategies, through changing “the order of activities and didn’t use everything” (5-C). Curriculum-developers were further asked, “Did you follow the teacher’s guide?” They responded “no”, “not at all” and “not really” respectively (1-A, 2-C, and 5-C).

Group interviews clarified the curriculum-developers’ responses. The students observed the multi-source of input strategy; “she did not use the textbook very much, she just picked some lessons, some materials... and made lots of changes” (Classroom 4-C). The students in another classroom noted, “we used the textbook and other materials, it’s fifty-fifty,” and added, “it’s not page-by-page or lesson-by-lesson... she made it dynamic and interesting” (Classroom 5-C). In a third classroom, the students agreed their teacher supplemented, “She brought other materials everyday... used other books, newspapers, drawings and net material” (Classroom 3-C). Other students said their teacher used unit, lesson and task-skipping strategies, “She picked the useful lessons and units... and made changes just to make the textbook interesting” (Classroom 1-A).

Classroom observation confirmed the evidence collected from curriculum-developers and their students. One teacher supplemented internet articles about dangerous sports in one lesson and a reading article about crime and passion from a newspaper in another. The teacher put into practice the material-writing strategy. He taught some grammatical aspects through a writing activity by setting tasks for each group of students to join sentences using relative pronouns, which and who. The materials were handouts, which he wrote based on students’ previous work (Classroom 2-C). Curriculum-developers used strategies of supplementing, adapting, multi-source of input, skipping, and several others.

Each teacher added five to ten lessons from outside the textbook as indicated in Table 2. Though classrooms 5-C and 2-C teachers adapted very little (1 and 5), that was because most lessons were from outside the textbooks. Adhering to textbook lesson-sequence was very low, between zero for classroom 1-A, and seven for classroom 4-C. Curriculum-developers rarely followed the textbook task order (between 0 and 4). The textbook use in classrooms 5-C and 2-C (46% and 41%) was under fifty percent. Though the textbook use in classrooms 4-C, 1-A and 3-C (69, 58 and 55%) was above fifty percent; the teachers, frequently supplemented and adapted the curriculum.

Curriculum-developers also used topic and material-supplementing strategies. For example, in classroom 4-C, the teacher provided a topic about a lake together with the materials. She added other lessons about functional grammar through games, writing styles, and cultural use of language and speaking skills through interviews. The teacher in classroom 3-C, added a topic about the Commonwealth Games through internet materials and two sheets she devised. Curriculum-developers often used task and lesson skipping strategies. The teachers in classrooms 1-A, 2-C and 5-C, unlike classrooms 4-C and 3-C, skipped whole study units. For example, in classroom 1-A, the teacher taught a lesson on pages 94–95 and moved straight to page 122, skipping 27 pages (13 lessons and two units).

Curriculum-developers used dynamic-sequence strategies of lessons. For example, in classroom 3-C, the teacher taught a lesson

on page 38 and then returned to a lesson on page 34. They heavily adapted textbook tasks, though this was less so in classroom 5-C. For instance, in class 1-A, the teacher turned the question/answer task into a game where she wrote the textbook questions and added some others on strips of paper. She asked the students to interview each other, then gave a dictation and asked them to underline any sentences implying advice. She did not use activity three (giving warnings) and incorporated the students’ experiences into the lesson, asking them to talk about themselves rather than the textbook points.

Curriculum-developers also employed the dynamic-sequence strategies of task skipping and adaptation in addition to material-writing. For example, the teacher in classroom 4-C, taught a textbook lesson on page 49, but added a game activity and drew heavily on students’ experiences. She ignored the activities order by teaching activity four (listening) on page 49 and skipped activity five (describing people) on the same page. She also skipped two speaking activities on page 50. After teaching activity four, she returned to activity one (language points). She also introduced an album-drawing activity into the textbook material. Curriculum-developers wrote their own materials on a limited scale.

#### 4.3. Curriculum-making strategies: curriculum-makers

Based on the teacher general interviews, curriculum-makers first conducted a needs assessment to generate curriculum themes (See Fig. 2). “At the beginning of term I did a needs analysis... with them and the topics they came out with were in fact history, culture, politics and others” (7-A). They used content-sequencing and material-evaluation strategies to organize the developed themes. “I choose materials carefully. I supplement and leave things out.” She added, “I select the topics in consultation with my students, then I arrange these topics in line with their prior knowledge” (8-A). They used curriculum-design and material-writing on a large scale. “I designed the programme... I wrote my material... some teachers would just say turn to page 10, you read, now you read and they think that’s teaching. I don’t agree” (6-B).

Curriculum-makers also used curriculum-change and curriculum-development strategies. “I constantly changed the course focus. At this stage, I’m thinking what didn’t work this year with my students, in order to work the syllabus for next year. I’m sure again next year, at the same stage, I’ll be thinking the same thing. It’s an ongoing thing” (7-A). They used curriculum-planning skills “we decided what was important. We put together this course” (8-A), and experimentation strategies, “Curriculum experimentation is an ongoing thing... so my development has come from the success I see in the classroom and how the students react” (7-A).

Curriculum-makers used skipping, adaptation and supplementing strategies in relation to curriculum rather than curriculum materials. “I don’t use textbooks” (6-B). They “chose just from the curriculum” (8-A) and used skipping strategies in relation to curriculum topics. “I add and take away from curriculum topics... in terms of the syllabus strand that we’ve got, I look to see what...my students don’t need... and skip over it.” They adapted curriculum

**Table 2**

Curriculum-developers’ approach to textbooks & other curriculum materials.

	Lessons observed	Textbook lessons	Lessons added	Material added	Tasks adapted	Sequence of lessons	Sequence of tasks	Textbook use percentage
class 1-A	12	7	5	11	7	0	0	58%
class 2-C	17	7	10	10	5	4	2	41%
class 3-C	22	12	10	20	7	4	2	55%
class 4-C	26	18	8	17	14	7	4	69%
class 5-C	13	6	7	10	1	3	4	46%

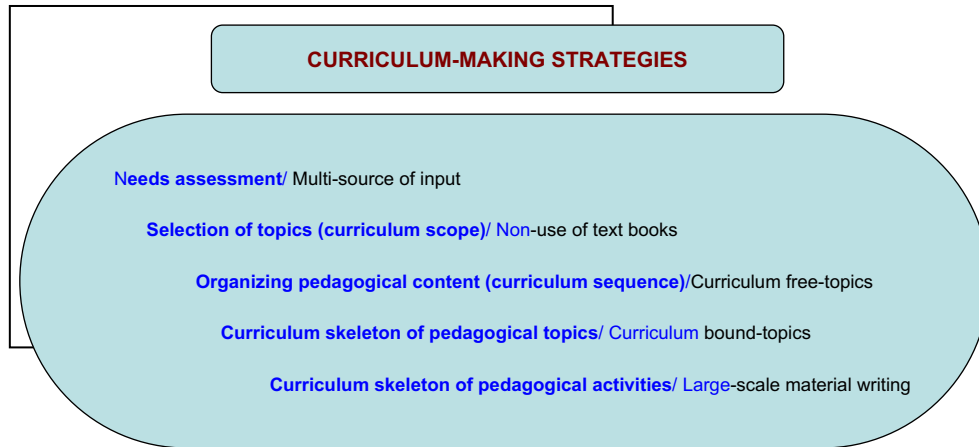


Fig. 2. Curriculum-making strategies.

topics and heavily supplemented. “I do a lot of things that aren’t on the syllabus. I used quite a lot of authentic materials, newspapers and, as you’ve seen, a lot of video work” (7-A). They used material-writing strategies. “The materials that are created with particular groups in mind are more effective than trying to adapt the students to the materials. I create my own materials” (6-B).

Pre/post-lesson interviews consolidated the general interview evidence. When asked what they planned to teach in each lesson, curriculum-makers’ responses converged. In some lessons, one teacher provided the topic and materials. “The idea was for them to find information and organize a trip, so I’ll give them the leaflets that are available to anybody.” She did the same in other lessons. “The idea is to plan short visits for a chosen country and present travel arrangements and time scale orally. They’re going to select information from a travel brochure” (6-B). Another teacher supplemented the topics and material. “I’d asked the students about the various topics they were interested in. One of them was culture, which is the topic that we’re going to start doing today.” In another lesson, “there were no suitable materials in one coursebook... so I designed today’s lesson” (7-A).

Curriculum-makers were also asked, “Was the topic based on a textbook?” Their replies matched this teacher’s, “no, nothing whatsoever... the topic I’ve chosen this week has been contemporary Britain. So the materials are from completely different books” (7-A). They were further asked, “What teaching materials did you use?” Their answers ranged between “I used these real leaflets;” “I used realia, the brochures from the travel agent’s;” (6-B), “I used the video and the worksheets that I’ve designed” (8-A), and “I used authentic texts from newspapers... I used my own worksheets and some food packets of sweets and snacks” (7-A). Curriculum-makers did not consult teachers’ guides because they developed all their lessons.

The students agreed that their teachers first assessed their needs and constructed their curriculum out of different sources. “We chose the topics we wanted to learn at the beginning of the term, like politics, history and culture. We chose first and she organized that from several books, so it’s not just from one book,

one subject, one topic, a lot of different ideas, different materials, so it’s very, very good for us” (Classroom 7-A). The students also shared, “the teacher gave us new notes, pages and papers everyday. We don’t really use a textbook in the classroom” (Classroom 8-A).

Classroom observation concurred with the interview evidence. As indicated in Table 3, the teachers adopted a non-use of textbook strategy, since classrooms 6-B and 7-A teachers did not teach a single textbook lesson; whereas the teacher in classroom 8-A, taught one textbook lesson. They provided all the topics, lessons, and materials. Thus, the sequence of lessons and tasks was not an issue for curriculum-makers. The teachers who were curriculum makers used the selection from curriculum, curriculum-planning, and curriculum-supplementing strategies. For example, in classroom 7-A, the teacher taught about British culture. The materials were handouts she devised and a video recording. She prepared another lesson about table manners, where the materials were her own handouts and a newspaper article. A third lesson was organized around some food products she bought and handouts she devised. These teachers were actively involving their students in the emerging curriculum.

#### 4.4. Curriculum-transmission strategies: curriculum-transmitters

The teacher general interview data showed that curriculum-transmitters followed a material transmission approach. Fig. 3 provides an overview of how they approached curriculum: (a) adhering to textbook content; and (b) following the textbook and teacher’s guide pedagogic instructions. They treated the textbook content through unit-by-unit, lesson-by-lesson, task-by-task, and page-by-page strategies. “I won’t do lesson two before lesson one” (10-C). Curriculum-transmitters adhered to lesson plans, “I shall prepare more than I think it’s necessary. If I don’t use the last part of the lesson, I shall start with that part in the next lesson.” They used textbooks as the single-source, “I stick fairly close to the coursebook.” They adhered to the textbook and teacher’s guide pedagogic instructions, “I rely on the way the textbook introduces content” (9-B) and “I follow the teacher’s book” (10-C).

**Table 3**  
Curriculum-makers’ approach to textbooks & other curriculum materials.

	Lessons observed	Textbook lessons	Lessons added	Material added	Tasks adapted	Sequence of lessons	Sequence of tasks	Textbook use percentage
class 6-B	12	0	12	12	0	0	0	0%
class 7-A	9	0	9	9	0	0	0	0%
class 8-A	11	1	10	11	1	0	0	9%



**Table 4**

Curriculum-transmitters' approach to textbooks &amp; other curriculum materials.

	Lessons observed	Textbook lessons	Lessons added	Material added	Tasks adapted	Sequence of lessons	Sequence of tasks	Textbook use percentage
class 9-B	12	11	1	0	0	11	2	92%
class 10-C	19	17	2	2	0	17	2	90%

Pre/post-lesson interviews confirmed curriculum-transmitters' adherence to their textbook. When asked what they planned to teach in each lesson: one teacher replied, "to teach adverbs of reason [in the textbook]" (9-B); the other teacher replied, "I'll do the book." The same teacher added two lessons, "The students asked for extra listening so... we are going to do a listening about going to the pub," and "the project, [it] is not in the textbook. I've to provide one." When asked what teaching materials they used, she replied, "I used our course book exclusively" and for a second lesson, "the materials were the book." Her answers differed in one lesson, "the listening was from a listening book." When asked if they made changes in the textbook, she replied "none. I followed the textbook." The only change was, "In the textbook, it was discussion, listening, grammar. I did discussion, grammar, listening" (10-C). Both teachers frequently consulted the teacher's guide, "I look at the teacher's book, yes" (9-B).

Curriculum-transmitters' students noted that the textbook was the single-source. "The teacher did not bring hard materials, no paper" (Classroom 9-B). They followed the textbook lesson-by-lesson and task-by-task. "We don't move to another lesson, until we finish the first lesson in order" (Classroom 10-C). They shared this statement, "I'm sure, I never missed any class. He taught us in order. The teacher covers all the lessons, no argument on this. We start paper-by-paper" (Classroom 9-B).

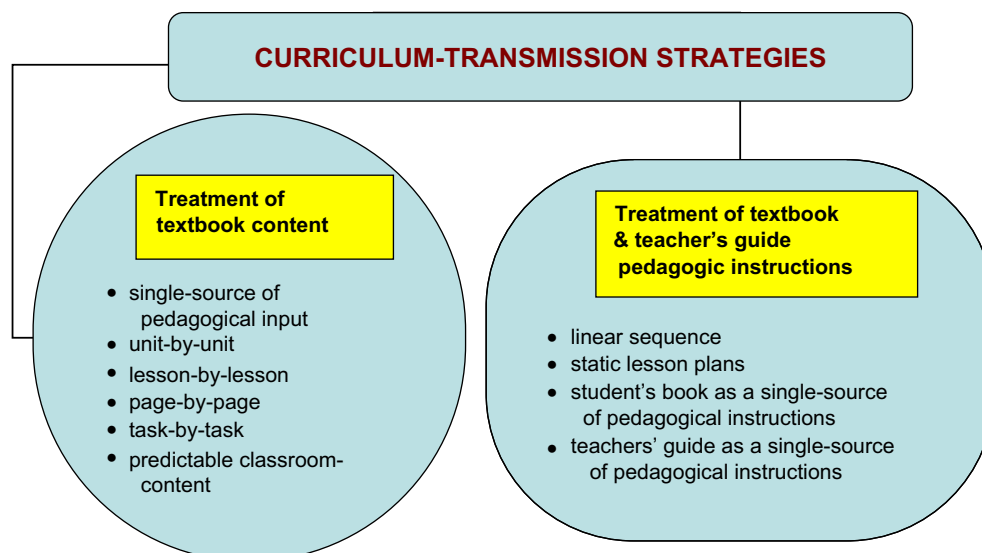
Observation evidence was no different. As indicated in Table 4, the teacher in classroom 9-B taught 11 out of 12 textbook lessons, added only one lesson (a mock test) from outside and did not supplement any lesson. He did not adapt a single textbook task, followed the same textbook sequence in the 11 lessons, changed task sequence in two lessons and depended on the book 92 percent of the time observed. In classroom 10-C, the teacher taught 17 out of 19 lessons, added two lessons and did not adapt a single textbook task. She followed the same textbook sequence in her 17 textbook lessons and changed the sequence of tasks in only two lessons. She depended on her textbook 90 percent of the time observed.

## 5. Discussion

This study was designed to explore teacher curriculum approaches and the strategies attached to each approach. The results indicated that teachers approached curriculum either as curriculum-developers, curriculum-makers, or curriculum-transmitters. The results further indicated three typologies of strategies typically used under one approach rather than the others. The *curriculum-development approach* involved macro- and micro-curriculum development strategies. The macro-strategies involved curriculum change, development, supplementation, adaptation, planning, experimentation, design, and expansion in addition to material-writing and material-evaluation. Curriculum-developers put macro-strategies into action through micro-strategies of textbook use including a multi-source of input, textbook as a springboard, along with skeleton and framework of pedagogical content. The micro-strategies also involved textbook cherry-picking, flexible-order, lesson-topic supplementing, unit-topic supplementing, lesson-adaptation, task-adaptation, and task-skipping.

The *curriculum-making approach* involved curriculum-making strategies. Curriculum-makers started with a needs assessment strategy to generate curriculum topics followed by organizing and sequencing of pedagogical-content strategies. They adopted multi-source of input and non-use of textbook strategies. They also used curriculum-bound topics by introducing pedagogical topics around a topic in the prescribed curriculum, and curriculum-free topics when adding a list of topics from outside the curriculum. They used material-writing and supplementing strategies on a large-scale and developed a *portfolio curriculum* by compiling materials of everyday lessons in portfolios. Each teacher and student's portfolio represented their written and taught curriculum.

On the other hand, the *curriculum-transmission approach* involved curriculum stabilization strategies including single-source of pedagogical content, unit-by-unit, lesson-by-lesson, page-by-page,

**Fig. 3.** Curriculum-transmission strategies.

task-by-task, and predictable classroom content. These also included linear-sequence, static-lesson plans, single-source of the student's book, and teacher's guide pedagogical instructions.

The findings indicated that each set of strategies was mutually exclusive, being different from those of the other approaches. These results clearly put the teachers in this study on Snyder et al.'s (1992) continuum, where curriculum-developers approached curriculum in line with mutual-adaptation and curriculum-makers approached it in similar ways to the enactment approach. In contrast, curriculum-transmitters did not even live up to the delivery agenda of curriculum fidelity. Moreover, curriculum-developers matched Ben-Peretz's (1990) teacher curriculum development and Cohen and Ball's (1999) notion of instructional capacity; whereas, curriculum-makers concurred with Clandinin and Connelly's (1992) teacher-as-curriculum-maker perspective. However, classification was emergent and practical within this study; whereas, the literature classification was a priori and theoretical.

Empirical research only classified teachers according to textbook-use style into 'textbook-bound' and 'basics coverage'. Textbook-bound teachers were heavily dependent on textbook content and structure, whereas those covering the basics departed from textbooks through skipping certain elements (Craig, 2001; Kirk & MacDonald, 2001; Lee, 2000; Spillane, 1999). The curriculum-development approach differed from covering the basics in involving curriculum decisions including material-writing and development of curriculum themes; while, 'covering the basics' was just about refining textbook content. On the other hand, the literature never set out strategies that teachers typically use when approaching curriculum. Previous research has been focused solely on the extent to which teachers followed actual textbook pages and the teacher's guide pedagogic guidelines (Lee, 1995; Remillard, 1999; Venezky, 1992; Woods, 1991), and did not refer to curriculum-making as conceived in this study. Further, the results of this study revealed *classroom-level curriculum development* as an approach that involves *curriculum-development* and *curriculum-making*.

Curriculum-developers and makers perceived dissonance between the prescribed curriculum and their contexts. They acted to meet their context needs in ways similar to those in Craig's study (2006, p. 261), because they "filter[ed] their curriculum... [where] what... they say and do inform[ed] their curriculum making and reveal[ed] their personal practical knowledge in action." Curriculum-transmitters opted for what Campbell (2007) termed safety, through delivering prescribed and ready-made content. Curriculum development and curriculum making approaches concur with Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999, p.16) who criticized, "prevailing concepts of teacher as technician, consumer, receiver, transmitter, and implementer of other people's knowledge." Moreover, the three approaches reflect teaching uncertainties, "Teachers... differ on their preference for one over the other.... Both certainty and uncertainty... influence their... orientation to teaching" (Campbell, 2007, p. 8).

The results of this study, however, did not explain why teachers approached curriculum in these three distinct ways. One possibility is that curriculum-developers and makers improved curriculum due to good training and experience, which previous research suggested (Latham & Vogt, 2007). However, this had no bearing on these curriculum-transmitters who were also trained and experienced. Perhaps a free college policy was the motive behind curriculum-development and making (Shawer et al., 2008). Again, these curriculum-transmitters enjoyed even more freedom than curriculum-developers (teacher 9-B) but never improved curriculum. All these hypotheses, which the current study did not focus on, are worthy of investigation.

It was beyond the scope of this study to examine the curriculum approaches and their impact on teacher professional development

or student learning. No doubt, these are worth studying. Previous research, however, indicated positive links between teacher curriculum adaptations (but no reference to curriculum-making) and their professional development (Craig, 2006). Previous research also drew positive relationships between the adaptation approach and teacher professional satisfaction (Ben-Peretz, Mendelson, & Kron, 2003). Furthermore, previous research alluded to positive correlations between curriculum adaptation and student learning and motivation (Roelofs & Terwel, 1999; Shawer et al., 2008).

It is recommended that teacher training institutions introduce pre-service and in-service teachers to each approach and its strategies to raise their awareness of how they are expected to approach curriculum. Education authorities should explore compatible teacher curriculum approaches with their reform agendas in order to enhance curriculum implementation. Policy-makers should adopt a broad curriculum approach which provides core skills and concepts that teachers address in their own ways. School administrators should ask teachers to use various sources other than a textbook so that teachers assess, develop, and report curriculum constraints and identify their contribution to curriculum development. This can impact positively on school, curriculum, teacher, and student development. Classroom-level curriculum development can handle two problems at once: teacher underdevelopment and the ills of curriculum standardization (e.g. curriculum irrelevance and teacher resistance and underdevelopment). Addressing these two challenges may help ensure access, equity, and quality across all educational levels and settings.

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

NB. Only the main questions were asked. The follow-up questions and points were asked only when the respondents did not cover them in the course of their conversation. The sequence of questions was not followed because it was unnecessary. The interview was open-ended and the follow-up questions were extended from one interview to another through probing the issues that the respondents raised.

- Would you please give some information about your qualifications?
  - initial training
- What about your professional development?
  - in-service programmes, workshops, lectures
  - diplomas, masters etc.
- What about your professional experience (teaching experience)?
- How do you approach/teach the EFL curriculum in your classrooms?
- What instructional materials do you use?
- How do you approach/use prescribed curriculum materials (textbook, workbook, teacher's guide)?
  - What about the textbook scope, sequence, pages and lessons?
  - Do you skip parts of the textbook? Do you supplement other materials? How much?
  - Do you adapt or change parts in the textbook you use? How much?

- Do you add topics from outside the textbook?
- Do you follow the curriculum objectives, adapt or change them?
- How do you use the teacher's guide?

#### Appendix B. Pre- and post-observation interviews with teachers:

##### BEFORE OBSERVATION INTERVIEWS

- What is the topic of today's lesson?
- What were your sources of the topic and materials?

##### AFTER OBSERVATION INTERVIEWS

- What teaching materials did you use? Were they effective?
- Did you depart from your lesson plan? Why/Why not?
- Did you make changes in the textbook materials? What are they?
- Did you consult the teacher's guide? Why/Why not?
- (If a textbook lesson used) Did you add other materials to those in the textbook?

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

- How do you learn English in this classroom?
  - What teaching materials do you use in this classroom?
  - What kind of teaching topics do you use?
  - Does the teacher supplement/add other materials from outside the textbook?
  - Does the teacher supplement/add new topics from outside the textbook?
  - How does your teacher use the textbook?
  - Does the teacher adhere to the textbook sequence, pages and lessons?
  - Does the teacher skip parts of the textbook?
  - Does the teacher make changes in the textbook exercises? Lessons?
  - Do you know in advance what you will learn about in the next lessons?

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