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A Ten-Step Process for Developing Teaching Units

Curriculum design and implementation can be a daunting process. Questions quickly arise, such as who is qualified to design the curriculum and how do these people begin the design process. According to Graves (2008), in many contexts the design of the curriculum and the implementation of the curricular product are considered to be two mutually exclusive processes, where a long chain of specialists including policy makers, methodologists, and publishers produce the curriculum in a hierarchical process, at the end of which lies the teacher.

The teacher's role is to implement the course and use materials received from the specialists. One weakness of this specialist model of curriculum design is a misalignment between materials and the classroom in which they are eventually implemented (Graves 2008). Common examples of these sorts of materials are the coursebooks that many English as a foreign language (EFL) schools and institutions rely on as the sole basis of their course syllabus (Cowling 2007). While coursebooks can fit this role adequately when they are a suitable match for the context and meet student needs, issues of alignment arise when they do not meet the needs of the students and the goals of the institution (Cowling 2007).

Mass-market coursebooks may not be a suitable match for a given classroom. Teachers may supplement such coursebooks with their own materials for a variety of reasons, among which are concerns about methodology, content, language, or the balance of skills necessary to meet learning outcomes (Cunningsworth 1995). Coursebooks may also place a financial burden on students and teachers (Richards 2001) to the extent that they may be too expensive for their target audience (Mack 2010). What, then, can teachers do when faced with a mass-market coursebook not specifically tailored to their teaching context or possibly no coursebook at all? The answer, based on our experience, is that teachers in either situation can act as curriculum designers themselves.

There has been a movement in recent years by teacher-practitioners to exert greater agency over curriculum analysis and design (El-Okda 2005; Jennings and Doyle 1996). Kumaravadivelu (2001) advocates a postmethod pedagogy where teachers "acquire and assert a fair degree of autonomy in pedagogic decision making" (548). He argues for a pedagogy that "is responsive to and responsible for local individual, institutional, social and cultural contexts in which learning and teaching take place" (Kumaravadivelu 2003, 544). While teachers should be aware of principles and practices from the field, "they rely mostly on context-sensitive local knowledge to identify problems, find solutions and try them out to see what works

and what doesn't in their specific context" (Kumaravadivelu 2003, 544). According to Kumaravadivelu (2003), teachers would not only have agency to create curriculum, but would be in a better position to address the concerns of the students and the institution than would an international publisher.

From September 2011 to the present, a group of teachers at the language center of a national university in Seoul have embraced their role as curriculum developers and collaborated on the creation, implementation, and ongoing development of a wholly teacher-generated backward-designed curriculum that targets our students' collective needs. The curriculum is teacher-generated in that we have created all our teaching materials without the use of traditional coursebooks, and it is backward-designed in that we began by identifying needs and learning outcomes before making all other curricular decisions. In the process of implementing and continuing this project, we have devised a ten-step development process (Butler, Heslup, and Kurth 2014), based on a backward-design approach to curriculum design, to facilitate the creation and revision of five-week teaching units for our practical English conversation courses.

As Kumaravadivelu (2001) suggests, experimentation is part of teaching. It can, however, be frustrating if one lacks a means with which to process classroom experience and use those experiences for curriculum development. Reflection allows teachers to avoid making decisions based on mere intuition, impulse, or routine (Richards 1990; Farrell 2012). For this reason, we incorporated elements of the experiential learning cycle into our ten-step process. Without it, we would not have been able to learn from our successes and mistakes and make informed decisions on how to revise and improve our completed teaching units.

The purpose of this article is to describe the concepts that guided the creation of the process, to provide a description of the process as applied to our teaching context, and to offer examples from a teaching unit that was created and revised using the process. We write this article in the hope that this tool and our experiences using it may help guide other educators who wish to design their own teaching materials or units, either to supplement an existing curriculum or as the foundation for a new, completely teacher-generated curriculum.

MAIN ELEMENTS OF THE TEN-STEP PROCESS TO CREATE AND REVISE TEACHER-GENERATED MATERIALS

The ten-step process to generate materials (1) is intended for use by teachers themselves to facilitate the creation of teaching units, (2) incorporates a backward-design model, and (3) assumes the importance of reflection in teaching.

The ability of teachers to create their own materials

Teachers are fully capable of developing their own course curriculum (Graves 2000; Jennings and Doyle 1996), and it is preferable for them to determine what does and does not work through direct study of the classroom itself (Kumaravadivelu 2001; Kumaravadivelu 2003; Nunan 2004). At our language center, teachers found that our coursebooks would meet some needs well, some needs poorly, and some needs not at all. We saw a mismatch between the perceived needs of our students and the coursebook content. Since the coursebook content was not a perfect match for our students, we were often forced to supplement heavily with our own materials. Sheldon (1988, 238) suggests that teacher-generated material "potentially has a dynamic and maximal relevance to local needs" when compared to mass-market publications. Indeed, we were already supplementing heavily and were effectively creating much of the material used in courses at our language center.

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A further advantage of creating our teaching units and materials was the belief that "people support what they help to create" and will be more invested when they participate in the design and creation of the curriculum (Jennings and Doyle 1996, 171). We feel that a lack of investment in and satisfaction with the coursebooks (upon which the curriculum of any given semester was based) made teachers at the language center adopt and discard them on a regular basis. This led to teachers having to develop a new curriculum at the beginning of each academic year, or even at the start of each semester (Butler, Heslup, and Kurth 2014). At the language center, the hope was that allowing teachers to create their own teaching units and materials would increase teacher investment, with the result of a more stable curriculum.

Teacher-generated curriculum and materials also can be tailored to the goals of the institution. For a language program's curriculum to grow and flourish, there needs to be a dynamic dialogue between the stakeholder groups of administrators, teachers, and students (Brown 2001). At the language center, student feedback prompted the director to request teachers to develop curriculum. She also provided guidance regarding university expectations in regard to testing and ultimately approved the project for wider implementation (Butler, Heslup, and Kurth 2014). While the development of the teaching units was guided by collective student needs, the process was also open to input by administrators. In different teaching contexts, other stakeholder groups might be involved.

The application of a backward-design model

Another main element of the ten-step process is its backward-design approach to materials and curriculum development. Prior to the curriculum project, teachers would (1) agree on a coursebook before the beginning of a semester, (2) select which chapters to teach, (3) decide the learning outcomes based on the chapters, and (4) create test tasks based on those outcomes. In this way, we were following a forward-design model where "decisions about methodology and output" had to wait until "issues related to the content of instruction" were resolved (Richards 2013, 8). Because a primary concern of the curriculum project was the needs of all students, we moved from this forward-design model to a backward-design model. According to Wiggins and McTighe,

> backward design calls for us to operationalize our goals or standards in terms of assessment evidence as we *begin* to plan a unit or course. It reminds us to begin with the question, What would we accept as evidence that students have attained the desired understandings and proficiencies—*before* proceeding to plan teaching and learning experiences? … Greater coherence among desired results, key performances, and teaching and learning experiences leads to better student performance—the purpose of design. (1998, 8–9; italics in the original)

Our backward design began with (1) the needs, then proceeded to (2) learning outcomes based on those needs, followed by (3) test tasks based on the outcomes, and finally (4) content based on the language skills necessary to accomplish those tasks. This is certainly not an uncommon approach, as backward design "is a well-established tradition in curriculum design in general education and in recent years has re-emerged as a prominent curriculum development approach in language teaching" (Richards 2013, 20). Because a main goal of the curriculum project was to enhance and provide measurable learning outcomes for students' oral skills communication, the backward-design model fit in well with the ten-step process.

The significance of reflection in teaching

Reflection is the third main element of the process. We were inspired by Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. We integrated Kolb's cycle into a process of reflection on teaching, evaluation of the reflections, and revision based on our experiences. As Farrell (2012) stated when discussing the origins of reflective practice, the purpose of reflection is for teachers "to make informed decisions about their teaching"

that were "based on systematic and conscious reflections rather than fleeting thoughts about teaching" (11). It is our belief that teaching units take time to come into their own and should be viewed as a work in progress over multiple semesters until they best match students' collective needs. We further believe that a system of reflection provides teachers new to the teaching unit with a voice in the process and increases their investment in the process of materials development. Reflection therefore allows for informed decisions over time and greater investment in the outcome of the teaching unit. Furthermore, we have found that structured reflection allows for improvement over time. Instead of leading teachers to develop a curriculum once, only to start over again several years later, the ten-step process uses its built-in reflection to allow for manageable and organic curriculum development (Butler, Heslup, and Kurth 2014).

TEN STEPS FOR DEVELOPING TEACHING UNITS

The ongoing curriculum project has resulted in a ten-step process (see Figure 1), which continues to be used for creating and revising five-week teaching units. This process was used to supplement a coursebook in the first semester of the project, and after that to entirely replace the coursebook. The ten-step process was not defined prior to the start of the project; rather, it developed organically out of discussions and as teaching units were created, reflected upon, and revised over time.

The following is a brief description of each of the ten steps, how they were implemented, and how they led to the creation of several five-week units of instruction. The units included "Hot Spots," where students described and provided directions to local places of interest; "Conversation Strategies," where students employed language to develop and continue small-group conversations; "Problem Solving," where small groups of students discussed and solved common problems at their university; and "Small Talk," where students role-played first-time encounters with someone from another country or culture. In this article, we focus on "Small Talk," as it was one of the first of the units created using the ten-step process and has undergone multiple revisions. Although the examples provided here follow the creation and revision of one small part of a five-week unit, we believe that this process is effective in the development of teaching units of virtually any size.

Step 1: Student needs

The process begins with student needs, in accordance with the principles of backward design. If needs have not been identified, or if they need to be reidentified, teachers may execute their own needs assessments (Tarone 1989) by using one or more of the available methods of needs analysis. West (1997) suggests that a variety of methods—among which are questionnaires and structured interviews—be employed to analyze student needs. Key components of a successful analysis are that it is learner centered, related to the real world, repeatable, and prioritized.

The curriculum project strove to address the shared needs of all students enrolled in the course. Teachers were requested by the language center director to proceed with

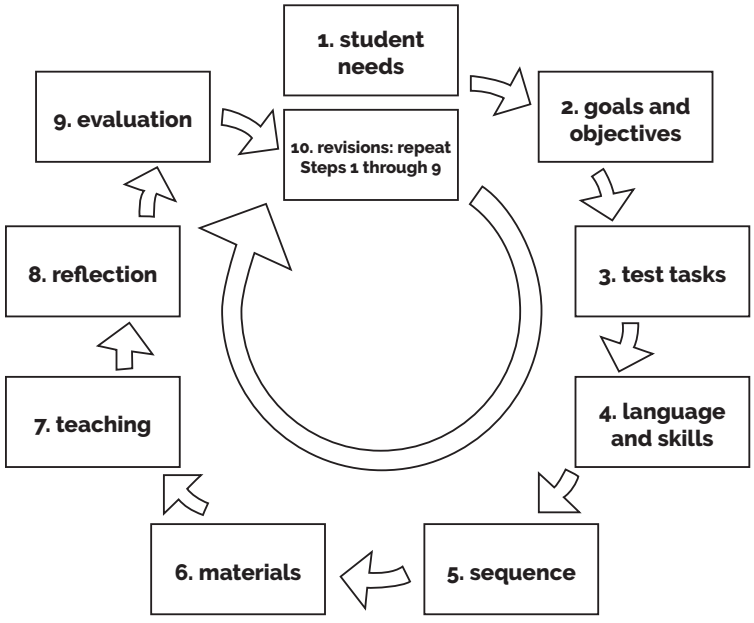

Figure 1. A ten-step cyclical process of course generation and revision (Butler, Heslup, and Kurth 2014)

all possible haste and were not provided with financial support for a thorough needs analysis. The initial needs analysis was conducted by brainstorming in faculty meetings. The subsequent list of student needs was based on two major factors: (1) teacher observation of classroom behavior and (2) student feedback gathered through informal conversations with teachers. A compiled list of needs was then made available to all teachers.

Teachers and students both identified the learning need of Small Talk (ST). Students themselves informed teachers that they did not know how to approach or initiate and continue a first-time conversation with a non-Korean stranger. Teachers had also observed that their students were often unable to conduct a successful first-time conversation in English outside class, despite such conversations often being the focus of the first lesson of the semester (as presented by the coursebook at the time). The teachers then proceeded to create the ST unit based on those student needs.

Step 2: Goals and objectives

The second step is to create goals and objectives to define learning outcomes based on student needs. According to Graves (2000), goals state the broader aims of what the teaching unit is meant to address, while the objectives break down the goals into statements that are teachable, learnable, and specifically measurable. If students meet all the objectives, they will therefore also meet the goals.

In the case of ST, teachers defined the goal as being able to conduct a successful first-time conversation with a foreigner in a variety of situations. More specific objectives within that goal were a specific length of the conversation and an ability to grasp the situation and apply the appropriate formality in greetings, closings, and choice of language. Students were also introduced to small-talk topics which were, as decided by teachers, generally safe for first-time conversations and would lead to successful encounters.

Step 3: Test tasks

The third step involves the creation of the language task to assess students' performance in relation to the specific objectives and broader goal of the teaching unit. Van den Branden (2012) states that task-based learning—rather than having students learn language and try to translate their learning into spontaneous language use—exposes students to "approximations and simulations of the kinds of tasks they are supposed to be able to perform outside the classroom and learn about relevant forms of language while trying to understand and produce the language that these communicative tasks involve" (134). As with all aspects of testing, the test task will be limited by available resources. Rough test materials, including a rubric, may be created at this point and then revisited during the materials creation phase (see Step 6). The tasks need not be limited to an in-class oral communication test. Alternative assessments such as a project or presentation are possible as well.

In the case of ST, the test task was for students to conduct a three-minute conversation simulating a first meeting, with one student playing the role of himself or herself and another student playing the role of a foreigner. Students then switched roles with their partner for a second conversation. Students were provided with contexts in which each of the meetings was imagined to be taking place. Teachers felt that this would be the most effective way to simulate the conditions necessary to use the skills covered in ST.

Teachers defined the [Small Talk] goal as being able to conduct a successful first-time conversation with a foreigner in a variety of situations.

Step 4: Language and skills

For the next step, teachers volunteer to pilot the test while other teachers record the explicit language and sociolinguistic skills used to complete the task. We recommend that the teachers who pilot the test be different from those who designed the test, in order to bring to light unanticipated problems in the test design (and possibly in the teaching unit) prior to the creation of the entire teaching unit. Teachers creating the teaching units may then use the test responses to determine the language and skills to be taught in the unit. This list is then modified based on perceived overall usefulness to the students and available instructional time. Further factors are teachability and learnability—that is, the ease with which the language or skill can be taught by the teacher or acquired by the student (Thornbury 1999).

When performing the ST test task, teachers immediately identified that language choices were heavily influenced by the context in which the conversation was supposed to be taking place—for example, the lower-register "Hey, how's it going?" and the higher-register "Good morning/afternoon/evening." From teachers' performance of the role plays, language thought to be most useful to students was selected.

Step 5: Sequence

The next step is to order the selected language and skills into a sequence. Once the order is determined, a number of smaller objectives may be created to contribute to meeting the original unit objectives. Teachers should now consider the amount of time available for instruction. Should it appear that too much or too little language has been selected, teachers may revisit Step 4 to change the language selection, Step 3 to modify the test task, or even Step 2 to make modifications to the unit objectives.

At the time that ST was created, teaching units were five weeks long. The first three lessons (weeks) were devoted to helping students develop the skills necessary to meet the goals and objectives. The fourth lesson was used to revisit past lessons and practice for the test. Finally, the fifth lesson was used to administer the test. In the case of ST, the greetings were introduced in the first lesson and were practiced in a variety of situations as the unit went on.

Step 6: Materials

Teachers then use the lesson objectives to create in-class activities, homework, and quizzes to help students develop the language and skills to succeed in the unit. Once the materials are created, they are sequenced into a logical order for each lesson (with some activities and even language being moved as the lessons are created), and lesson plans are created for each lesson. Final versions of the test materials can also be created.

At this point in the process, we found it useful to meet, share ideas, and receive feedback from colleagues regarding materials in development. During the initial semesters of curriculum development, materials were shared in person or via email. By the second semester of the project, a website for students and teachers was in place. We used the website's online forums to facilitate the sharing of lesson materials, conduct online discussions, and provide feedback.

One example of ST teaching material was a PowerPoint presentation. We collected photographs from open-source websites as well as some taken by teachers in places on campus where students might encounter non-Koreans, such as at a park or a coffee shop. We chose places and situations familiar to students in order to help them visualize common contexts and to tie the unit to their own personal experience. The presentation was then used in a pre-task activity where students worked together in groups to brainstorm relevant topics of conversation for each context. We used this presentation in our lesson because it (1) supported student learning in preparation for the final test task and (2) elicited language from students that resembles real-world use, a goal of language tasks (Ellis 2003). Teaching does not, however, need to be limited by technology. Should teachers find themselves without access to a computer or photographs,

they could just as easily describe different settings to their students.

Step 7: Teaching

Following materials creation, the next step is to teach the unit. Teachers conduct the lessons and utilize the materials that were generated prior to the beginning of the teaching unit. It is important at this stage for teachers to not only conduct the lessons but also take careful notes of student reactions, behavior, and performance in relation to the objectives of each lesson and the overall goal of the unit. These notes will be important in subsequent steps of the process.

At the outset of the curriculum project, the language center director had instructed teachers to standardize the learning outcomes and test tasks. In compliance with the director's instructions, all teachers introduced the same target language using the same handouts, assigned the same homework and in-class quizzes, administered the same end-of-unit test, and used the same assessment plan to assign grades. Those teachers who prepared the materials also provided a basic lesson plan as an aid to teachers who were new to the curriculum. Teachers in our program were not bound, however, to the provided lesson plans. The lesson plans were intended to support teachers, not to restrict them. Teachers were encouraged to modify and experiment with the lessons, and then to report the outcomes of their modifications. Successful modifications could then be recorded into future versions of the lesson plans, sometimes replacing the original activities and sometimes providing optional activities, which teachers could use to accomplish the same objectives.

Step 8: Reflection

Reflection is employed to make sense of the concrete experience of teaching the unit. As Moran (2001) noted when discussing experiential learning, in reflective observation the participant "pauses to reflect on what happened in order to describe what happened, staying with the facts of the experience" (18). Following classroom instruction, teachers return to their notes and make reflective observations based on their experiences. We recommend that teachers suspend interpretation and first express their observations of what they saw, heard, and felt during instruction. While we recommend that reflection occur throughout the process, it is most important after student completion of the test tasks so that teachers can look back at the teaching unit as a whole. Evaluation and decision making for revisions will come from end-of-unit reflection.

We met each week, after teaching the week's lessons, for one hour to share our observations and discuss what we perceived to have gone well and what needed improvement for each lesson. At the meetings, a designated teacher recorded feedback directly on an electronic copy of the lesson plan for future revisions. In the case of ST, one such observation recorded through group reflection was that the greetings alone did not always match the provided situation and led to awkward or inauthentic conversations.

Step 9: Evaluation

In this step, the teachers not only reflect on the unit but also evaluate it and make suggestions for the next round of revisions. It is important to separate observation from analysis and interpretation to avoid jumping to conclusions about the success of the teaching unit. As Moran (2001) notes, reflective observation is followed by abstract conceptualization where the teacher "assigns meaning to the experience by developing explanations or theories" (18). It is recommended that the teacher keep the initial student need in mind when evaluating the efficacy of the teaching unit. We have found

It is important to separate observation from analysis and interpretation to avoid jumping to conclusions about the success of the teaching unit.

that it is easy to be distracted by later elements of the process, such as the end-of-unit test task. It is entirely possible to spend too much time on designing a test task that is not well aligned with the targeted student need.

In response to the observation that some of the student conversations in the ST unit seemed inauthentic, we revisited how students would begin the role play of a first-time conversation with a foreigner or stranger. Rather than opening with a simple greeting, teachers suggested that students be taught how to use the context to generate an icebreaker.

In addition, as part of the evaluation of the unit, student feedback was gathered formally, through confidential online surveys, as well as informally, through conversations between teachers and students. Students agreed that the teaching unit met their need. For example, in a future semester students reported having used the unit content to successfully meet foreigners. A representative from the language center administration also reviewed our materials and provided feedback from an administrator's perspective. That feedback was useful because it provided teachers with guidance on the broader goals and vision of the university. For example, it ensured that the curriculum met certain requirements for international accreditation, a matter of great importance to the university administrators.

Step 10: Revisions

The final step is actually a return to the first step in the process and is included to emphasize the cyclical nature of the ten-step process. Active experimentation follows abstract conceptualization in the experiential learning cycle and is the stage when the teacher "prepares to reenter experience by devising strategies consistent with personal learning goals, the nature of the content, and the form of the experience" (Moran 2001, 18). At this point in the process, the teachers meet to discuss revisions and to formulate strategies on how best to revise and improve the teaching unit. It is our recommendation that teachers go through the feedback once again and discuss what aspects of the unit are possible to revise within the time available to them. We would recommend that teachers take an "if it ain't broke, don't fix it" approach to revisions. That is, not every aspect of the unit will require change and fixing. It is important that teachers take time to prioritize the changes that need to be made before embarking on revisions so that necessary changes can occur within a realistic time frame.

After the end-of-unit reflection meeting, tasks were divided among teachers. Different teachers took different items to revise and kept in contact with each other as revisions were made. Prior to the beginning of the semester, all revised materials were collected by a point person to make certain that everything was in order and ready to be taught for the next teaching cycle.

The icebreaker concept was incorporated into revisions during the following round of development. It was incorporated into the objectives, the test task, the syllabus, and the lesson materials. These newly developed materials included a handout for students, revised PowerPoint presentations, and new role-play activities. Table 1 provides a summary of the creation and revision of the ST teaching unit through the ten-step process.

FURTHER SUGGESTIONS

Based on our experiences working with this process since 2011, we would make the following additional suggestions. Collaboration played a major role in the creation and implementation of our ten-step process. Indeed, we have described it elsewhere as one of our guiding principles in the defining of this process (Butler, Heslup, and Kurth 2014). We recommend that teachers consider collaborating closely with their peers whenever possible. Other studies have shown that curriculum reform can falter and fail without collaboration and discussion among teachers (Wang and Cheng 2005). Additionally, one major drawback to creating your own materials can be the time and energy required (Cunningsworth 1995; Graves 2000; Richards 2001). We have found that balancing the workload in small groups of three or four

Step	Application in the Small Talk teaching unit*
1. Student Needs	Students approached teachers with questions about how to start a conversation with a foreigner. Students reported struggling with first-time conversations in English.
2. Goals and Objectives	Students will be able to initiate a first-time conversation with a foreigner, using context-appropriate register and language.
3. Test Tasks	Students will conduct a role play with a classmate wherein a student playing himself or herself initiates a short first-meeting conversation in English (using language and skills from the module) with a student playing the role of a foreigner in a specific context.
4. Language and Skills	Two greeting phrases were generated in the Test Task practice: "Hey, how's it going?" (lower register) "Good morning/afternoon/evening." (higher register)
5. Sequence	*Lesson 1* – Students will distinguish between and practice high- and low-register greetings and responses. *Lesson 2* – Students will begin to apply the language learned to different possible situations and contexts outside the language classroom. *Lesson 3* – Students will begin to shift among a wider variety of high- and low-register contexts and integrate them into complete role plays. *Lesson 4* – Students will review and practice role plays in formal and informal situations for the end-of-module test. *Lesson 5* – Students will take the end-of-module test.
6. Materials	Handouts were created to provide language support. A PowerPoint presentation was created to provide example situations in which to practice the language.
7. Teaching	Students practiced initiating conversation with greetings in Lessons 1–4. They began practicing in role plays with classmates in Lesson 2 and continued through Lesson 4, with varying situations and partners.
8. Reflection	Teachers observed that the greetings taught did not always match the provided situation and led to awkward or inauthentic conversations, resulting in unsuccessful first-meeting conversations.
9. Evaluation	It seemed that students needed to be introduced to the concept of beginning with an icebreaker based upon the context. Students also needed to understand what would be a more or less appropriate or natural icebreaker in a given situation.
10. Revisions	A new handout was created to introduce the concept of icebreakers, and the presentation was revised to provide more opportunities to practice icebreakers.

*In the interest of brevity, only one small aspect of the Small Talk module is presented here.

Table 1. The ten-step process with examples from Small Talk

teachers keeps the labor manageable while keeping discussions and debate productive.

A further observation is that the cyclical nature of the ten-step process has allowed us to complete time-intensive tasks over the course of multiple semesters. As a result, we can do further research to help define student needs and accompanying goals and objectives. The ST unit contains several examples of how language and culture content, English language teaching approaches, and materials creation have been informed over time by teacher research during reflection and revisions.

For example, we began with a concept, based on English as a second language principles, of "appropriate" first encounters but gradually revised our ST goals to support greater awareness of the role of English as an international language. Our guidance for this change came from research in the field of EFL. In this way, we continued to follow the experiential learning cycle in that we began with a concrete experience, followed up on that experience by performing reflective observation, sought out sources in the field to help with our abstract conceptualization of the experience, and finally began revisions for the next semester in the active experimentation phase. By following the experiential learning cycle over several semesters, we have been able to make informed curricular decisions.

We have also had an opportunity to improve our materials over time. During the first semester, much of what we produced for students tended to be rougher than the material we used in later semesters. As Sheldon (1988) notes, one downside of teacher-created materials is that the glossier materials provided by publishers can be more alluring to students even if those materials are of poorer pedagogic value. Our materials got better as we tested them out and made them work, but that improvement required time, commitment, and patience from all stakeholders.

While this article has presented the process as a series of ten discrete and sequential steps, it is important to note that this description is a simplification to illustrate the steps clearly and to indicate the cyclical nature of the process. The process of curriculum development is a holistic one, with each element influencing nearly all the others (Graves 2000). As described in Steps 3 and 5, there were many instances where a change made in a later step led to a modification in a previous step or steps. Also, while we engaged in formal reflection and evaluation following teaching, informal reflection and evaluation were ongoing throughout all steps in the process. With this in mind, we still find it helpful to think of the process as progressing in order, especially when creating timelines and setting goals and deadlines.

More-prescriptive language programs might require teachers to closely follow provided coursebooks and syllabi. If teachers are not free to create their own units, there is precedent for modifying content that does not suit the target students (Graves 2000; Richards 2001). The ten-step process could be used to modify coursebook content to meet student needs. The process could be used to identify a gap between the content and students' needs and to assist teachers in generating activities and materials to work within their prescribed curriculum. For example, instead of creating an end-of-unit assessment, teachers could use the test task to create an activity that would assess student learning at the end of a lesson rather than at the end of a unit.

CONCLUSION

As we have outlined above, curriculum design and evaluation is not a matter for specialists alone. The specialist model produces a variety of curricular policies, materials, and products, among which is the mass-market coursebook. Teachers may find that their coursebook is not a suitable fit for their students. Rather than waiting for an outside entity to fill the gap or fix a problematic element, teachers can utilize their own experience, knowledge, and skills to better meet student needs.

After establishing who is qualified, the next natural question is how to do it. We had the same question when we began in 2011. The

ten-step process has proven to be our answer to that question. It has offered us a means to create teaching units over time and allowed us to make informed curricular decisions that are responsive to our students' needs. We hope that it will be of equal use to educators who find that their present curriculum is not meeting the needs of their students.

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