AN ILLUMINATIVE STUDY OF CURRICULUM CHANGES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN PAKISTAN

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A THESIS
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DEDICATION

TO ALL THE TEACHERS AND STUDENTS WHO
PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY AND SHARED
THEIR PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE AND
WISDOM WITH ME
ABSTRACT

Pakistan's curriculum change mechanism is based on a bureaucratic model in which teachers are 'humble servants' of the system.

The study is concerned with understanding the teachers' and students' perspective on innovations developed externally to the schools in the realms of teaching and learning English as an Additional Compulsory Language. Further, it explores a possible alternative curriculum development model, grounded in the learning context, which may improve the existing situation.

Schwab's (1973) 'deliberative approach' and Kelly's (1955) 'theory of personal construct psychology' provided the theoretical underpinning to a naturalistic approach to the inquiry. A modified form of Parlett and Dearden's (1977) illuminative evaluation method allowed for an emergent research design model which included both the survey and case studies as complementary methods. The former provided information for generating 'working hypotheses' while the latter allowed for in-depth probing in the natural setting.

The case studies indicated that teachers were faced with a conflict of demands between the desired goals of innovation and the current examination system. They were not familiar with the innovation and they lacked a support mechanism to guide their classroom actions. Consequently, they fell back on various survival strategies. The main sources of the practical problems were identified: governing factors (teachers' personal theories), frame factors (instructional milieu) and social factors (learning milieu). Mismatch between teachers' teaching styles and students' preferred learning strategies also produced problems.

This detail accords with the general sources of the failure of curriculum innovation attempts in both developed and developing countries as identified in the literature.

The proposed alternative model contains five main dimensions as a basis for formulating coherent curriculum change policy: curriculum negotiations; curriculum materials; professional development; reflective teaching; supportive mechanisms. The feasibility of this model is discussed in the light of the research findings and relevant literature. Some conclusions are drawn with the implications for further research described.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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<tr>
<td>AOL</td>
<td>Activity Oriented Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>EACL</td>
<td>English as an Additional Compulsory Language</td>
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<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
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<td>ELT</td>
<td>English Language Teachers.</td>
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<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>PF</td>
<td>Pedagogical Function(s)</td>
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<td>SFE</td>
<td>Selective Function of Education</td>
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<td>TEACL</td>
<td>Teaching of English as an Additional Compulsory Language</td>
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<td>TOL</td>
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CODICIL
CHAPTER ONE

AN OVERVIEW OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN PAKISTAN

...the planning of an educational curriculum is a far more sophisticated activity than most of the present amateur planners seem to recognise, and ... it necessitates an intellectual depth of understanding which they manifestly lack. The oversimplification of curricular issues puts education itself at risk and must lead to a covering up of educational standards rather than the raising of standards which current policies purport to be seeking.

(Kelly 1989 p.xii)

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The study reported in this thesis was conducted in the Pakistan context - a context of a developing country, focusing on the practical problems associated with English Language Curriculum Change which affect the teachers' thought and classroom behaviour. The term - 'English as a Second' or 'foreign' language has already been a matter of contention in the linguistic literature. Generally, these terms are used in contrast to 'native language' or 'mother tongue' learning. In order to avoid any sort of confusion in readers' minds, I intend to use an alternative term - Teaching of English as an Additional Compulsory Language (TEACL) in the present work.

In Section 1.1 an account of the general educational system in Pakistan is given. Section 1.2 presents a scenario of curriculum development and change.

1.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN PAKISTAN

In the National System of Education in Pakistan, there are three main stages - primary, secondary and higher (Figure 1.1). Besides this broad
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Figure 1.1 The Educational Structure of Pakistan
classification provision exists for pre-primary, technical, vocational, commercial and professional education. There are two types of educational institutions - government and private, the latter being more expensive. The medium of instruction is English in private institutions whereas Urdu is the medium of instruction in government institutions throughout the country except in the Sindh province where both Sindhi and Urdu are used as media of instruction. (Urdu is a national language of the country and Sindhi is a provincial language of the Sindh province only.)

Most of the private institutions have been established on both European and American patterns of schooling, catering for the children of wealthier families. In this way, the more privileged sections of the society would appear to have a superior education for their children. This duality in the education system maintains and accentuates the profound social inequalities and perpetuates differential access to education.

Pakistan is faced with multifarious problems pertaining to the quantitative expansion and qualitative improvement of its educational system. The most fundamental problem confronted by the country at the moment is the question of improving the standard of education. Our education system as it exists at present is characterised by heavy reliance on defective textbooks (Kardar 1986), outdated methods, rote-memorisation and other similar practices which seem less conducive to an effective teaching-learning process. Hence, the product of our educational system is mostly devoid of critical thinking and the ability to comprehend and apply knowledge to life situations. It is also argued that qualitative improvement in education would help quantitative
expansion by reducing drop out, failure and general wastage. In Pakistan since its inception, various steps have been taken to expand, promote and improve education (Figure 1.2 Appendix A1).

According to the Pakistan Government (1984):

The inadequacy of our educational system leaves little space for debate. However, when we wax eloquent on its failings, we do not pay equal attention to a positive valuation of the possibilities of change in it. Nor do we relate the educational process to the constraints of our socio-economic infrastructure, and the limited options available to us ... Pakistan as a nation is at the brink of complete educational chaos and disaster.

(p.13)
(my emphasis)

No doubt, there has been a quantitative expansion in terms of student enrolment, new institutions, numbers of teachers (Figure 1.3 Appendix A2), but the qualitative aspect of education still receives little attention from the government. As a result, there appears to be a 'crisis' in the quality of education. In the Educational Policy document 1972-80 revolutionary steps were taken to improve both the qualitative and quantitative aspects of education. A high priority was given to the revision of curriculum at all levels in harmony with the national goals to make it more functional, meaningful and relevant to the aspirations of both individuals and society.

1.2 THE CONTEXT OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE

There was no permanent institution responsible for curriculum development until 1972. Saeed (1977, p.2) noted that "before this time, curriculum development was not visualised as a distinct, separate and specialised function". The entire curricular activity was carried out
through committees which were created for a specific purpose at a specific time and were dissolved as soon as the task was over.

To fulfil the gigantic task of curriculum revision and further development, the National Bureau of Curriculum was reorganised and strengthened. A primary feature which distinguishes the education system of many developing countries from those in the west is the extent of centralised control of the educational system in general and the curriculum in particular. However, in all four provinces of Pakistan, parallel bureaux of curriculum established in 1972 independently aimed at revising the school curriculum in close collaboration with the Central National Bureau of Curriculum (see Figure 1.4), but the role of the provincial bureaux was somewhat limited (Saeed, 1977).

The present processes of curriculum development, based on the centre-periphery approach which emphasises achieving ends rather than means, start with the formulation of aims and goals by the bureaucrats at the central level under the directives of the education policy. The goals provide a platform for the development of curriculum proposals initiated by the 'National Bureau of Curriculum and Textbooks'. The provincial curriculum committees consist of concerned teachers, heads of schools, teacher educators, subject experts and curriculum experts who work on the proposals. After prolonged deliberation, the provincial committees formulate and try out the draft and arrange the test edition of the textbooks and training of teachers. After necessary amendments, the modified provincial draft is placed before the National Curriculum
Figure 1.4 Curriculum Development Mechanism in Pakistan
Committee under the control of central government for formulating a 'uniform' draft for the whole country.

It may be noted that the central government is the only guiding and controlling authority on this matter, and final approval is, therefore, only sought from the central government. Thereafter, the textbooks and relevant instructional material are published in collaboration with the provincial bureaux.

Given this situation, the schools are effectively discouraged from devising their own curriculum using a variety of resources. Teachers are legally bound to use the printed books which are approved by the relevant Textbook Board which acts as a 'gatekeeper' to make sure that prescribed books are in use in the schools. One of the Boards said that:

All the Head of Schools, teachers, parents and students are requested to see that the textbooks prepared and published under the authority of the Sindh Textbook Board alone are purchased, and no book other than these is used in the classroom.

(Sindh Textbook Board 1986-87, p.3)

This indicates that the teachers' authority is restricted to the use of prescribed books in order to avoid running any risk that students will not be specifically prepared for the relevant examinations which are all based on the official syllabus. Public prestige and status of secondary schools is primarily based on the relative success of their students in the examination.
The main purpose of the revision of the curriculum was that "the entire curricula and textbooks would be reviewed to ensure inclusion of adequate content on Islam, Ideology of Pakistan and promotion of national cohesion and integration." (Pakistan Government 1979, p.56). Further the National Education Policy revealed that "the process of curriculum development will be improved by proper emphasis on research studies. Field testing will be given due importance. The revised curricula will be given due importance." (Pakistan Government 1979, p.57). In reality the renewal of the curricula is either based on 'arm chair research' or intuitive knowledge of the so-called experts of curriculum in general or imported innovation from Western Countries in particular. This is a generally perceived dilemma of the developing countries.

Morris (1984) noted that many of the curricular innovations developed in the USA and UK had been directly imported to the educational systems of a variety of developing countries. Imported innovations produce a facade of change but have little effect on classroom process [see Havelock and Huberman (1977), Klein and Eshel (1980), Lewin (1981)]. According to Dove (1986) the developing countries' education/curriculum policy remains on paper rather than in practice. Thus the targets of the policy have not been realised so far. Another factor - teachers' participation in the curriculum planning process, has received little attention from curriculum experts. In fact, curriculum improvement depends on teachers being more thoughtful about their work.

Tanner and Tanner (1980, p.623) noted that "there is no substitute for the intelligent participation of the teacher in curriculum improvement". They went on to say that curriculum development rests on teacher
development and on the professionalism of the teacher" (p.624). Currently, in theory, it is said that the provision of teachers' participation in curriculum planning is made, but in practice, curriculum planning is overwhelmingly dominated by the bureaucrats and educationists "who never gained experience of teaching" (Ghafoor 1979, p.175). For example:

Looking at membership of the committees it can be seen that it is much loaded by college and university teachers. At most of the Committees this category forms a large majority while there is not even proportional representation of school teachers who are ultimately responsible for implementing the curricula at the classroom level.

(Sheikh, undated, p.1)

This dilemma is not only perceived in developing countries, but also exists in the developed countries, as pointed out by Kelly (1989) (see head of chapter). This indicates that curriculum development is a 'one-sided' and 'restricted' activity which is only attributed to and considered as a job for bureaucrats who are unaware of the actual classroom situation and its inherent demands. Tanner and Tanner (1980 p.675) noted that "those involved in bringing about a change more readily accept and adopt the new idea than those who are not involved". Dove (1986) stated that even in countries where teachers were not in short supply and were well educated and trained, they were unlikely to take up curriculum innovations unless they were fully involved in the whole process.

Considering teachers' participation in curriculum development, Kerr (1969) also reminded us that "the crucial factor...is the need for a high measure of teacher involvement and participation. Curriculum development cannot proceed unless the teachers are available and willing
to participate" (p.4). Hence there is a need for a 'cooperative
endeavour' and 'mutual understanding' between the teachers and
curriculum developers which may serve as a base for a stable kind of
curriculum improvement. Many curricularists such as Lippitt et al.
(1967), Tanner and Tanner (1980) and others strongly believed that the
availability of 'expert assistance' for teachers in implementing new
ideas would facilitate teachers in solving their problems at the
practical level. Hoyle (1980) described 'extended professionality'
which could also guide teachers' action at the classroom level while
translating new curriculum into practice. According to him, individuals
are creative whereas schools can only adopt the ideas of individuals.
He believed that 'extended professionals' tend to share their
pedagogical problems with others and to collaborate in solving them.
They thereby contribute towards overcoming the problems of curriculum
change. The issues of curriculum change itself are addressed in the
following two chapters.
CHAPTER TWO

UNDERSTANDING CURRICULUM CHANGE

... the attempt to understand how to bring about curriculum change would seem to be helplessly incomplete unless it also includes an investigation into the factors which tend to perpetuate existing practice.

(McKinney and Westbury 1975, p.1)

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter sets the scene for an account of attempts to date made to understand curriculum change. Section 2.1 gives a brief description of an era of educational innovation in both the developed and developing countries and its consequences. Section 2.2 gives an account of curriculum change studies which critically suggested a 'theoretical platform' for the present study. In Section 2.3 a selective review of related empirical studies conducted within the naturalistic inquiry mode is presented. Finally, the research questions addressed for the present study, in line with Schwab (1973), are detailed in Section 2.4.

2.1 AN ERA OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION AND ITS CONSEQUENCES

The decade of the 1960s and the early years of the 1970s have been called the 'era of innovation in education' particularly in the developed countries. The main purpose of initiating and promoting innovations was on the premise that they would effect a dramatic improvement in the quality of education. However, in reality the hidden agenda was the improvement of managerial efficiency in the educational enterprise - to educate more students in less time, with fewer teachers
with greater efficiency of space utilization, and at low cost (Tanner and Tanner 1980).

The developing countries also adopted the same 'principle' to improve their education system which had a large number of undereducated and untrained teachers in schools. Indeed, the developing countries set up institutions to plan systematic and centralised curriculum reforms on a national level. A group of so-called 'curriculum experts' formulated the national plans for the school curriculum within the framework of national policy, to select content from the prevailing culture deemed most worthwhile for the younger generation to learn through the schools. The main thrusts behind increased attention to what students should learn were the need to bring school curricula in line with national goals for socio-economic development, to update specialised subject matter in line with the world-wide knowledge explosion and to replace the foreign influence which was a main barrier in fostering national integrity and cultural identity.

In spite of their so-called 'radical changes', these experts could not shed the western influence upon them. This resulted in the Third World becoming major consumers of western ideas. Thus the developing countries imitated the developed countries without considering the potential problems of borrowing the wisdom of educational innovations. Hurst (1981) maintained that it was not easy to borrow the educational technology from the developed countries and implement it on the assumption that this would work automatically. Contrasting cultural contexts imposed numerous constraints upon innovations, leading to innovation failure and generating unwanted and unanticipated consequences (Crossley 1984).
The transfer of educational innovation from developed to developing countries had been a matter of controversy. However, the criticism is not directed only at the content of education but also at teaching methods, the hidden curriculum and the general ethos of school itself (Illich 1973). Crossley (1984, p.77) noted that efforts to implement major qualitative changes (borrowed from western culture) in Third World curricula have... frequently met with less than anticipated success in practice and, while western curriculum change strategies continue to be enthusiastically exported, less critical attention has been devoted to the potential and limitations of international transfer of such models themselves.

The impact of 'revolutionary' principles upon educational reforms in nations such as Tanzania, Zimbabwe and Cuba [see Nyerere (1968), Cogan (1978) and Torres (1981)] offers a challenge to western models of education. In the 1960s most of the curriculum reforms launched through a centre-periphery approach in the West were later adopted by developing countries. House (1974, p.95) pointed out that "the basic predicament of teachers is that they are treated as passive consumers within their own organisational structure... They are acted upon rather than acting".

Given this situation, teachers continued with familiar materials and teaching routines - what Hoetker and Ahlbrand (1969) called the 'persistence of recitation' owing to the lack of awareness, or misconception, of the principles of the innovations or appropriate technology to guide the teachers in their actions in the classroom (Shipman 1974). Even countries with established and resource-rich schools have encountered difficulty and complexity in curriculum change [see CERI (1972), CERI (1975)]. In such situations, the intentions of curriculum developers are rarely realised in the classroom to any
significant degree (Carlson (1965), Connelly (1972), House (1974), Ben-Peretz (1980) and Hurst 1981)).

One of the reasons reported for their failure is that centrally planned innovation is always found to be poorly grasped and poorly implemented by the teachers and is remote from the practical problems of schools. Every new curriculum tends to be over ambitious, intended as a panacea for a widespread malaise in education. These changes may, however, seem to be mundane to the outsider. Mackenzie (1970, p.6) noted that "many ideas came from outside the individual school system and even from outside the education profession itself". This suggests that a major dilemma of curriculum change was that each reform was initiated from the so-called 'experts' (bureaucrats) who were unaware of the actual classroom situation and its inherent demands. Many researchers noted that the bureaucrats usually did not take into account the philosophical and pedagogical stance of teachers in relation to new proposals, subject matter, methods and their own role etc. Hilsum and Cane (1971) and Hilsum and Strong (1978) maintained that if innovations made additional demands on teachers then this had repercussions for other tasks which received less attention.

Since during the 'era of educational innovations' curriculum change was considered simple and easy to accomplish, various innovations were promoted and adopted without any research and evaluation base (Tanner and Tanner 1980). The Ford Foundation (1972) in the USA acknowledged the fact that projects were designed to demonstrate actual changes in school systems, the underlying theme being 'action' rather than the development of research. It can be said that innovations were based on
the simple assumption that schools' adoption of innovation was, in itself, a step towards educational improvement.

Becher and Maclure (1975) noted that a centralised model of curriculum development had less impact upon school practice than was initially hoped for the Third World countries. On the other hand, in the Third World countries, there appears to be a considerable hiatus between curriculum policy and school practice. Through her observation, Dove (1986) described the drawbacks of the centralised curriculum reforms:

Policy targets were too ambitious, time scales were too short, resources allocated were inadequate and vital stages in the development of curricula, such as situational analysis or monitoring and evaluation were neglected. The outcome was that very many plans for new curricula remained on paper, in syllabus and textbooks and teachers' guides. Implementation failed in the sense that teachers went on teaching and pupils went on learning much as before.

(Dove 1986, p.51)

Hawes et al. (1979) noted that new programmes were frequently misunderstood and badly taught and that more often than not we had exchanged old rote learning for new in African schools. Galton's (1980) review of the British experience during the 1970s concluded that:

... there was growing evidence that although the course content in schools and the nature of the terminal examination had changed considerably as a result of these new curriculum developments, there had been little change in teaching methods to accompany this renewal.

(Galton 1980, p.7)

Other researchers including Harlen (1976), Fullan and Pomfret (1977), Berman and McLaughlin (1978), Davis (1980), Skilbeck (1984) and Kelly (1989) suggested that centrally controlled innovations were doomed to failure and contributed towards conflict and uncertainties about teachers' work because they were 'ill-informed'.

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Consequently this gave rise to contrast between 'actual practice' and 'received innovative doctrine'. Thus the gap between the worlds of outside producers of innovation and those of school based users would persist [Stenhouse (1975), MacDonald and Walker (1976) and Kelly (1989)]. On the other hand, contextual factors and teachers' perceptions (Day 1984) of their work impeded teachers in putting their thoughts into practice. This resulted in the appearance of a 'conflict' or 'disfunction' between beliefs and action - a common finding among users of innovation.

Grace (1978) and Kelly (1989) suggested that teachers were not as unaware of this disfunction as they were usually portrayed (Stenhouse (1975)). Duffy (1977) adopted a moderate view that not all teachers consistently employed practices which directly reflected their beliefs. Hence the aims of teaching, content, methods, students' assessment, examination bound syllabus and the role of teachers remain conflicting issues which affect the teachers' efficiency in their work, causing practical problems.

This study aims to identify and describe the practical problems and their impact on classroom processes. It also seeks to discover how teachers cope with their problematic situation and how they resolve their practical problems in their daily teaching routine. It is necessary to understand the innovation, how teachers make sense of it in their 'cultural milieu', what the practical problems are and the nature of the solutions they adopt. This may illuminate how worthwhile ideas for influencing practice can be implemented.
In the past, monitoring of curriculum change has been restricted to one or two school visits per year into the classroom by the supervisory staff. This has led to suspicion, fear and mistrust (Goens and Lange 1976), intimidation and even threats (Frymier 1976) and focusing on matters such as teacher appearance, windowshades, desk arrangements and bulletin boards [Blumberg (1974), Thomas (1974), Diamond (1975)]. These failed to take into account the teacher's behaviour holistically in terms of their implicit theories and practical problems and thus might hinder effective implementation of the curriculum innovation or change.

House (1979) described a 'paradigm shift' (Kuhn 1962) in curriculum change perspectives which proceeds from a 'technological perspective' through a 'political perspective' to the current 'cultural perspective'. Havelock's (1971) model of change and Schon's (1971) models of diffusion reflected the technological approach whereas House (1974), MacDonald and Walker (1976) and Becher and Maclure (1978) represented the political perspective. Apparently, the 'technological' and 'political' perspective seem to be different in their nature but in reality they are related to each other. Both perspectives emerged as a result of centrally developed innovation where there was no room for teachers' active participation. Richards (1983) stated that "most proposals of curriculum change made in the 1960s and early 1970s were based on assumptions of teaching and learning which were not shared by the majority of teachers" (p.41). However, within the political perspective some notions like 'curriculum negotiation', 'confidentiality', researcher as an 'honest broker' or 'mediator' or 'facilitator'
(MacDonald and Walker 1976) were developed and applied in a few different studies. However, these still failed to provide insights at the classroom level. Hence, both these perspectives can easily be merged into what might be called a traditional paradigm (Paradigm 1 see Chapter 5). The 'cultural perspective' "although not entirely new, has been showing signs of vitality recently" (House 1974, p.7).

This perspective has a long pedigree: it was part of Rogers' (1962) original thesis that to understand rejection or acceptance of an innovation one must know the culture of it. Smith and Geoffrey (1968), Jackson (1968), Smith and Keith (1971), Lortie (1975) in the USA and MacDonald and Walker (1976), Rudduck (1976), Parlett and Hamilton (1976), and Olson (1980) in the UK have exploited the sociological fashion of culture to understand how teachers view their 'cultural milieu' or 'events of the classroom' in the institutional setting.

Taking into consideration its theoretical underpinnings, it can be subsumed in an alternative paradigm (naturalistic inquiry or paradigm 2, see further Chapter 5). Olson (1980) refers to paradigm 1 as 'mechanistic' and paradigm 2 as 'humanistic'. The 'humanistic' perspective can be divided into two major research traditions - 'anthropological' (concerned with the unique (case study) situation underlying illuminative methodological stance) and 'phenomenological' (which offers its concern with human experiences and consciousness and its approach to the study of all data of experience.)
2.2.1 DEVELOPING THE THEORETICAL BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY

In this Section, a brief description of the theoretical framework of the present study is given. However, details of the illuminative methodological stance taken, related to naturalistic inquiry, will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Reid (1978, p.29) maintained that curriculum problems "were practical problems which were moral rather than technical in nature". Therefore, Kelly (1989) suggested that if we were to help teachers and curriculum planners in exploring the issues related to curriculum improvement, we must go far beyond the limited scientific and technological view of curriculum study which has presented a limited and distorted reality of curriculum practice. Therefore, we need to understand the reality of curriculum practice from the inside, and to know the determinants of the curriculum which may help us in identifying curriculum problems and seeking their solution. Reid (1978) suggested that we needed an explanatory theory; we ought to know why things happened. He further described three approaches in understanding curriculum problems - 'rational managerial', 'radical critique' and 'reactionary solution'. He rejected all these approaches in favour of 'deliberation' or 'practical reasoning' because 'radical' and 'reactionary' were authoritarian and 'rational managerial' neglected the values issues.

To solve curriculum problems, Schwab (1973) identified five areas of the curriculum study, four of which I considered to be relevant to my concerns. These were:
1. **Subject matter**: There must be someone present with the knowledge and ways of thinking of the curriculum content under consideration.

2. **Learners**: There must be someone present familiar with the learners involved and with some general knowledge of the type of learner under consideration.

3. **Milieu**: There must be someone with the experience of the milieu in which the learning will take place. These will include the school, the classroom, the peer group, the family, the community, social and ethnic groupings, and so on.

4. **Teachers**: There must be someone with experience of the teachers who will be involved in any new development and know what knowledge they possess and what their attitudes to new ideas may be.

The present study is concerned with understanding curriculum change within a 'cultural milieu'. In this context, Olson's (1980) views served as a source of inspiration and personal awareness: "Innovative doctrines create dilemmas for the teachers. These dilemmas arise because, when teachers decide to adopt new practices, they face uncertainties about their role in the classroom, the effectiveness of their methods and the purpose of their instruction" (abstract). The present study aims to search out an understanding of the practical problems which hinder the progress and effectiveness of innovation in the 'learning milieu'. Given the situation, Rolph (198?) strengthened my belief that a "deliberative approach to curriculum evaluation could prove to be a valuable one" (p.71).
Since the nature of the present study is descriptive and illuminative, it is necessary to understand and recognise the individual perspective of the participants - the problems they face in the 'instructional and learning milieux'. Many researchers including Olson (1980), Pope and Keen (1981), Ben-Peretz (1984) and Rolph (1985) suggested the use of 'personal construct theory' which was described as an effective theoretical perspective for understanding the participants' 'construct systems' which were not easy to understand through objective tools of measurement.

'Personal Construct Theory' is grounded in the philosophical position - 'constructive alternativism'. Each person's 'ways of seeing' are different from one another. Pope and Denicolo (1989) maintained that:

our 'ways of seeing' reality can be likened to temporary goggles we wear to create a window on the world. Like goggles, they are subject to change - we can alter the clarity with which we can inspect the world, choose to look at it through rose tinted spectacles. However, in order to change our goggles we must recognise that we are wearing them!! (p.2)

Thus people generate their hypothesis to put to the test and on the basis of that, they reconstruct their constructs (Kelly 1955). Kelly rejected the image of man as subject to 'pushes and pulls' of his experiences. He alerted us that "no one needs to paint himself into a corner, no one needs to be completely hemmed in by circumstances; no one needs to be the victim of his biography" (p.15). Each teacher translates circumstances into practice in the complex teaching-learning environment in a unique and idiosyncratic way. The intentions of the teachers, or the functions which their behaviour serves, may vary
considerably from moment to moment depending upon students' behaviour, their reactions to the teacher and the task.

Lowyck (1984) suggested that teaching behaviour had to be understood in relation to the intentions of the teacher and to the situational complexity. Halkes and Olson (1984) maintained that "teachers' personal intentions and their closely related subjective theories are also seen as relevant sources of information for the explanation of teaching processes" (p.2). To understand teachers' intentions and actions in relation to curriculum translation into practice, I needed to find a workable 'theoretical framework' and a 'methodological stance' which might help me in recognising individual perspectives, identifying the practical problems of curriculum change and seeking their solution. Hence I chose Schwab's (1973) 'deliberative' approach in combination with Kelly's (1955) 'personal construct theory' along with Parlett and Dearden's (1977) 'illuminative' approach as the methodological stance. (See further Chapters 5 and 6). I hope the process adopted in this study will help in understanding curriculum issues and lead to suggestions for curriculum change and improvements.

2.3 A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF SOME RECENT RELEVANT STUDIES OF CURRICULUM INNOVATION

Education has changed radically in the last twenty years and research has documented the difficulties involved with these changes. For example, Shipman (1974) provided an account of the Keele Integrated Studies project which demonstrated teachers' misconceptions about innovations while Olson's (1980) report on the Schools Council Integrated Science Project (SCISP) showed that teachers, in attempting
to translate the new curriculum into practice, either ignored the intended theme or redefined it into more traditional terms. The work of 'illuminative evaluators' such as Parlett and Dearden (1977) also contributed to an understanding of how innovation takes place in a natural setting, with particular reference to the cultural milieu. Parsons (1987) claimed that:

By suspending conventional expectations of what happens in schools, new data are more readily available and research can go beyond what is obviously there to be seen.

(p.14)

Other studies which have added to our understanding of the learning milieu have also attempted to understand the teachers' perspectives of their classrooms and curricula. These include Pope and Scott (1984), Ben-Peretz, Bromme and Halkes (1986) and Calderhead (1987), whose work could be described as fitting into the 'constructive alternativism' framework.

All these studies of the problems encountered during the implementation of curriculum innovation in developed countries underline the practical problems which teachers face that affect their performance. Similarly, in Pakistan the teacher is seen as an arbitrator between the demands of innovative doctrines (largely imported from the West) and the real content of learning, without due consideration being given to their personal and professional values and theories and, indeed, their professional autonomy. This results in not only the quality of the teaching-learning process being considerably affected but the quantity as well (see figure 2.1). This present study aims to investigate the practical problems of curriculum change which hinder the process of effective implementation in the context of TEACL in Pakistan.
Figure 2.1 Subject Wise Pass Percentage Results of the Secondary School Certificate Examination for the years 1984 and 1985

Source: (Graph based on the data collected from the Board of Secondary Education, Karachi)
A particular focus will be the teaching-learning milieu from the teachers' and learners' perspectives.

2.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study has its origins in 'naturalistic inquiry' and employed an 'illuminative' methodological stance. Hence, the research design emerged (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2) as the study proceeded rather than was fixed a priori. Guba (1978) suggested that some degree of focusing and categorisation must precede initial attempts of data collection. The researcher is not empty 'handed' or empty 'minded'.

The following questions, with a specific focus on TEACL, were generated using Schwab's (1973) four areas of curriculum study - subject matter, learners, milieu and teachers - as guidelines.

1. What is the teachers' perception of the objectives in the existing and in their ideal curriculum for TEACL?

2. How do the teachers and learners view the content of the curriculum?

3. What are the students' perceptions of learning English?

4. What are the students' perceptions of their learning approaches in relation to their teachers' teaching style?

5. How do the teachers experience the practical problems encountered while translating curriculum into practice and how do they resolve them to cope with the uncertain situation?

6. To what extent do the teachers perceive their professional craft skills to be relevant to implementing curriculum innovation?

7. How do the teachers view their teaching?

8. What is the extent of the teachers' knowledge and experience of using the range of current English teaching methods and what is their conception of these methods?

9. How effective do the teachers perceive their methods to be in improving the teaching-learning process?
10. How do the teachers perceive their role as English teachers in classroom practice?

11. How do the teachers view their participation in the curriculum development process?

All these will be discussed in subsequent chapters when the problems related to curriculum change, with particular reference to language teaching, have been explored. The next chapter looks at the paradigm shift in curriculum practice and the factors which affect the process of curriculum change in both the developed and developing countries.
Reforms are introduced by bureaucratic fiat, (in developing countries), consultation with teachers is minimal, and so is training in the innovative role. Such monitoring as takes place (usually none) consists of inspections, carried out in an inquisitorial manner. As various difficulties and disincentives appear, instead of a managerial response to analyse and alleviate them, they are typically laid at the door of the teachers' reluctance to change and fear or hostility to new ideas.

(Hurst 1981, p.187)

3.0 INTRODUCTION
As a result of deterioration in the standards of education, the educational authorities world-wide focused their attention on the improvement of the curriculum, as the very foundation of any educational system. Thus, many revolutionary rather than evolutionary approaches emerged which served as a "paradigm shift" in the curriculum sphere. These tended to jeopardize the situation rather than to improve it. This chapter aims to discuss the issues related to curriculum change and its impact on the 'instructional and learning milieux'. In Section 3.1 a brief account of paradigm shift in the curriculum development context is given. Section 3.2 describes approaches in a foreign language curriculum. The problems associated with diffusion and dissemination, and with implementation of curriculum innovation, in both the developed and developing countries, are discussed in Section 3.3 and 3.4 respectively. The crucial factors - teachers' pedagogical style and students' learning approaches which affect the teaching-learning process are mentioned in Section 3.5 and 3.6. In the final Section 3.7, the
reported in related studies which have strong implications for curriculum change policy are discussed.

3.1 CURRICULUM CONTEXT AND PARADIGM SHIFT

The history of curriculum studies in general reveals that the term curriculum has been used with different connotations. There is still a common tendency to equate 'curriculum' with 'syllabus' particularly and in general with the 'course of study', 'subject matter', 'pedagogy' and even 'timetable'. This indicates a misconception and a restricted view of the curriculum. Thus the term curriculum is deprived of its wider perspective and meaning (see further Rodgers 1989).

The concept of curriculum has undergone marked changes during the twentieth century as a result of the influence of changing educational ideologies (see Skilbeck 1982) containing socio-philosophic views of education, changing social conditions, changing conceptions of knowledge, changing conceptions of the teacher and taught and so forth. Therefore, it is necessary to distinguish the 'curriculum' from the 'syllabus' in a way that the former may be treated as 'superordinate' (White 1983) and the latter 'subordinate' in terms of content and subject matter to be covered (Wiseman and Pidgeon 1970). In other words curriculum is 'whole' and 'syllabus' is a part of the entity. Stern (1983, p.434) also expressed more or less the same views while defining curriculum.

In recent years, however, the term 'curriculum' has come to refer not only to the subject matter or content, but also to the entire instructional process including materials, equipments, examination, and training of teachers ...
My own definition is:

"Curriculum comprises all the detailed activities which are considered to be necessary for the school and deliberately presented in the form of proposals which ought to be translated into classroom practice."

As a matter of fact, curriculum plays a crucial role in educational activities as acknowledged by Taylor and Richards (1985, p.2): "It is the means through which education is transacted. Without a curriculum education has no vehicle, nothing through which to transmit its messages, to convey its meanings, to exemplify its values." Thus the curriculum as a hub of the education system, bears influences of the educational ideologies that Skilbeck (1982) labelled 'classical humanism', 'reconstructionism' and 'progressivism'. There appear to be three major 'paradigms shifts' in curriculum development, which Kelly (1989) called 'content oriented', 'product oriented' and 'process oriented'. According to Hobrough (1988), the major goals of content oriented curriculum tend to be acquisition of knowledge whereas process oriented curriculum is conceived as emphasizing abilities, skills and understanding.

The content oriented curriculum is deeply rooted in the classical humanism ideology, aiming to transmit the knowledge relevant to the cultural heritage of the society which is 'intrinsically worthwhile' (Peters 1966). This model suggests that the curriculum is only acceptable if it is planned by the curriculum planners in terms of content, knowledge, skills and processes (DES 1987, p.10). Kelly (1989) remarked that "this is a very limited and unsophisticated view both of curriculum and of the demands of curriculum planning" (p.44).

The product oriented curriculum model emerged under the influence of the
reconstructionism ideology. This model emphasised that the curriculum must be planned in a step-by-step linear manner which seems to reduce education to a scientific activity in terms of 'means' and 'ends'. Thus this model raised the question of dualism in curriculum and instruction. Tanner and Tanner (1980) alerted us to the suggestion that "The investigation of instruction apart from curriculum leads to somewhat bizarre conceptions of the teacher" (p.35). According to them the problem of dualism between curriculum and instruction arises in all definitions where curriculum is regarded as a 'plan' in terms of pre-specification of behavioural objectives.

In this, curriculum is seen as 'ends' and instruction as 'means' which reflect the "Engineering" or "Mechanistic" model of education. This model has a legacy in various educational doctrines and proposals in which the learner is regarded as a 'passive receiver of knowledge' and the learner's mind is considered as 'an empty container' to be filled by the teacher under the necessary quality control (Fox 1983).

Taylor and Richards (1985, p.63) maintained that "ends and means cannot always be divorced: certain ends presuppose certain means and vice versa, content and learning experiences cannot always be separated nor can aims and content". They further noted that the:

outcome of education as understanding, appreciation and knowledge cannot be fully translated into clear-cut observable behaviours capable of measurement. Only low level mental operations such as the recall of specific facts or the performance of certain physical skills can be unambiguously specified beforehand.

Tanner and Tanner (1980) further distinguished between engineering and educational problems in that:
Educational and curricular problems are not the same as engineering and production problems of a factory. This does not mean that curricular processes and learning outcomes cannot be assessed but rather that the ways and means of such assessment cannot be likened to the quality controls and efficiency measurement specifications of the industrial plan.

(Tanner and Tanner 1980, p.28)

Bruner (1966, p.66) maintained that the "line between subject matter (curriculum) and method (instruction) grows necessarily indistinct." Therefore, it will not be out of place to say that curriculum and instruction must be considered both as 'integral parts of an entity' [see Inlow (1973), Doll (1978) and Egan (1978)]. I am convinced by Tanner and Tanner (1980) that the 'ends' (curriculum) and 'means' (instruction) must be regarded as contiguous, any separation of these originally interdependent phenomena being artificial.

Eisner (1985), one of the opponents of the product oriented approach in curriculum and instruction, rejected it in favour of 'expressive objectives' rather than 'instructional objectives'. His distinction between both types of objectives is summarised in figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 Summary of the arguments related to 'instructional' and 'expressive' objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>EXPRESSIVE OBJECTIVES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Particular behaviour is specified in advance</td>
<td>-Particular behaviour is not specified in advance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teacher focused knowledge</td>
<td>-Students focused knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Students are passive</td>
<td>-Students are active</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Eisner's emphasis on expressive objectives contributed towards an alternative 'process' or 'developmental' model in curriculum planning. This model is rooted in the progressivism school of thought in education. Kelly (1989) suggested that

the developmental model of curriculum planning goes beyond the process model in that it not only advises us to base our planning on clearly stated procedural principles rather than on statements of content or of aims and objectives but, further, it suggests that we should look at a particular view of humanity and thus of human development as a source of those principles.

(p.97)

Hence, it can be said that this model is more concerned with an affective dimension of the students' development. According to Eisner (1982), "there can be no cognitive activity which is not also affective" (p.28).

This model offers a strategy for curriculum "without starting by pre-specifying the anticipated outcomes of that process in the form of objectives" (Stenhouse 1975, p.84). According to Stenhouse, the process approach is more appropriate than the objective approach in a curriculum which centres on knowledge and understanding. This approach is inspired by the views of Dewey (1938), Peters (1966) and Bruner (1966) on
education and curriculum. Thus Stenhouse says that knowledge is not something to regurgitate, but something to think with. The justification of choosing content rests not on the pupil behaviours to which it gives rise but on the degree to which it reflects a form of knowledge which is intrinsically worthwhile (Stenhouse, 1975). Kelly (1982), one of the advocates of this approach, suggested that the "planning must begin not with a statement of goals, but with the specification of procedures, principles or processes as a basis for the continuous exercise of the professional judgement of the teacher" (p.122).

However, this approach also has shortfalls in that it is a teacher-dominated approach. Though this model has not yet been subject to much criticism, it raises some practical issues such as student assessment, teacher competency and autonomy. This is also acknowledged by Stenhouse who said that the process model was 'far more demanding on teachers and thus far more difficult to implement in practice, but it offered a higher degree of personal and professional development' (Stenhouse, 1975). Hirst (1975) remarked that the process model was still concerned with ends, though admittedly not behavioural in character, and that its emphasis on content and principles of procedure tended to obscure this necessary feature of curriculum planning. Owing to the complexity of this model it is not yet widely accepted and applied except in two projects - The Humanities project (Stenhouse 1968) in the U.K. and Man: A course of study (1970) - an American social science curriculum for middle years pupils. It is only possible when the teachers are trained in and fully aware of the new developments in education.
Thus the pendulum is swinging back to the centralised approaches which were popular in the 1960s and out of favour in the 1970s in the developed countries and now returning to favour in the west generally, and in particular in Britain (DES 1987). Thus the outdated curriculum development content oriented model has been fashioned in a new way — 'cultural analysis'. Lawton (1983), one of the originators of this model, said that 'education must be concerned with the transmission of the most important aspects of a society's culture to the next generation, therefore curriculum must be based on societal values'. Another originator, Skilbeck (1976), said that curriculum planning must take place in the 'cultural framework' after having critically appraised the school situation. Therefore, this model is often called the 'school-based curriculum development' model which is a more effective way of promoting genuine change at school level. It may be pointed out that the 'objectives model' starts with 'ends' and 'means', the 'process model' starts with principles of the procedure of content and pedagogy, but this is the only model which does not presuppose a linear progression. It can be started at any stage. Therefore, it is called flexible, adaptable and open to interpretation in the light of changing circumstances (Taylor and Richards 1985).

Sockett (1976) suggested that the curriculum process may be started from an understanding of the culture of the school (see also Olson 1988). Taylor and Richards (1985) also suggested that curriculum "changes need not be planned by objectives, they can be designed by paying attention to different aspects of the structure, to principles of procedure or to content" (p.72). But for developing countries like Pakistan where 2% of Gross National Product is incurred on education, it appears to be impossible to act upon the above suggestion or to apply a 'process' or
'situational analysis' based model in each school. However, I agree with Sackett (1976) that before designing curriculum the analysis of the 'cultural milieu' should be given high priority. The main drawback of these three models is that they dictate the principles and stages of curriculum development, hence they may be labelled as 'prescriptive' rather than 'descriptive'.

3.2 APPROACHES IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

The literature on curriculum studies suggests three major theoretical models of curriculum development. The first is based on 'epistemological considerations'. The second is rooted in the 'behaviourist orientation' and considers the human species to be a passive organism, reacting to external, environmental stimuli while the third is 'process oriented' which is more humanistic in its nature.

This is an account of general curriculum theories but it has been the dilemma of foreign language studies that attention has been exclusively focused on 'syllabus design' rather than 'curriculum design' [e.g. Wilkins (1976), Munby (1978), Johnson (1982), and Yalden (1983)]. However, some linguists including Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983), Dubin and Olshtain (1986), Clark (1987) and Johnson (1989a) have paid some attention to curriculum development.

Dubin and Olshtain (1986) described three components of any foreign language curriculum related to educational, linguistic and language learning theory which can be said to be the bases for curriculum design. According to them, any educational orientation is compatible with one or two linguistic and language learning theories. Thus, the 'behaviourist' educational orientation is compatible with a 'structuralist' view of language based on the 'stimulus-response' principle of language
learning. These emerged in the 1950s and early 1960s in the "audiolingual" movement in curriculum.

As a reaction to this approach, a second view, a rational 'cognitive' orientation was put forward in the 1960s - by 'transformational-generative linguists' associated with the cognitive-code approach to language learning. Since the mid 1970s a third 'humanistic' view appeared which strongly influenced the curriculum. It is closely associated with the 'socio-linguistic' and 'communicative view' of language and a 'holistic' view of language learning. As a result of each approach in the language curriculum, various methods emerged which are considered to be appropriate for TEACL. (See Chapter 4 and Codicil).

3.3 DIFFUSION AND DISSEMINATION OF CURRICULUM INNOVATION

The intention behind the process of diffusion and dissemination of innovations is that they will accelerate the speed of curriculum change with a view to improving the quality of teaching-learning process. Indeed, unwarranted constraints have always affected the effectiveness of the process of dissemination. For example, the School Council (1971) identified five potential problems such as: finances, staff attitude, the mobility of pupils, parental pressures and examinations. But Rudduck (1976) seems optimistic that 'good ideas are always acceptable'. This indicates the underestimation of the complexity of the learning milieu. Thus, Reid and Westbury (1982) labelled such claims as 'unrealistic expectations'.

Cooper (1978) suggested that in implementing innovation, one should seek support from the users and consider benefits to others who were involved in classroom learning material. These views are much closer to House
(1974). He said that the problems of dissemination arise because of the lack of application of "social interaction theory". Using the social interaction theory, MacDonald and Walker (1976) suggested that 'curriculum negotiation' may overcome the potential problems of curriculum change. These ideas also correspond to Cassidy's (1985) view that we need to establish a 'healthy language climate' to make innovation successful.

3.4 CURRICULUM TRANSLATION INTO PRACTICE (IMPLEMENTATION)
Reid and Westbury (1982) reminded us about the following 'unrealistic expectations' about curriculum change which curriculum developers often make with the schools. That "if a curriculum plan was advocated on grounds that were rationally respectable, then schools would not only take it up, they would also perform the work of translating it into a practical form that its proponents would recognise as fully adequate to their original conception" (p.1). Lawton (1983) expressed his dissatisfaction with the quality of curriculum planning in the following way:

Curriculum planning is not the strongest part of the English education system either centrally or locally in individual schools. If we wish to be completely frank we would probably say that the typical curriculum is a mess.

(Lawton 1983, p.7)

Kerr (1968) and Hoyle (1970) seemed to be happy with progress in that innovation was rapidly becoming institutionalised. But in many cases we have to face the misery that centrally produced innovations, funded by federal seed money, have not taken roots (Berman and McLaughlin 1978). Steadman et al. (1980) in their survey noted that in the majority of (Schools) Council-funded projects providing teaching materials, these
were used by less than 10 per cent of the relevant teachers. Salvation can only lie with teacher-initiated innovation (Parsons 1987). Thus the centrally developed innovation was not only blunted on the classroom door in the developed countries but also more or less similar phenomenon occurred in the developing countries [see Beeby (1966), Hawes (1972), UNESCO (1980), Hurst (1981), Crossley (1984), Morris (1986), Dove (1986)].

Fullan and Pomfret (1977, p.336) remarked that "implementation is not simply an extension of planning and adoption processes. It is a phenomenon in its own right". They went on to say that "it is not simply a matter of getting people to agree to try the innovation. It also involves more than convincing various individuals who have agreed to try the curriculum to actually use the materials in certain ways." (p.336). Like curriculum change, there also appears a "paradigm shift" in the implementation perspective which starts from 'the fidelity' or 'degree of implementation', through 'mutual adaptation' to the present 'process perspective'. These views correspond to the paradigms of curriculum change - technological, political and cultural (see House 1979). Fullan and Pomfret (1977) did not differentiate the 'fidelity' or 'mutual adaptation' perspectives, both focusing on measuring 'degree of implementation' of innovation by using objective tools. Therefore, these perspectives can be subsumed in the 'traditional' or 'paradigm 1' of social science research. The 'process approach' seems to be in harmony with 'paradigm 2' or 'naturalistic inquiry' (see Chapter 5).

Fullan and Pomfret (1977) in their review of research on curriculum, instruction and implementation, pointed out that only 3 out of 15 studies were conducted in the 'process perspective' or 'paradigm 2'.

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(For example, Elliott and Adelman (1974) and Shipman (1974) in the UK and Berman and Pauly (1975) in the USA). Hence the majority of studies were done in the 'fidelity' mode or 'paradigm 1'. Thus, under the 'fidelity' perspective various attempts were made to implement innovations by obtaining agreement through the use of different strategies that Chin (1968) called - 'power-coercive'; 'empirical-rational' and 'normative-reeducative', though the latter was seldom used in paradigm 1. Thus these attempts failed to conceptualize and measure the determinants of the change. The determinants of implementation were confused with the implementation process itself. (Fullan and Pomfret 1977).

Therefore, there appears a dearth of reliable sources through which the degree of implementation of innovation was measured. Parsons(1987) remarked that success or failure of performance was often conceptualized in only the most simplistic ways. He further went on to comment that determinants of the effectiveness of the innovative project "are very often based on little firm evidence" (p.4). However, Fullan and Pomfret (1977), more than one decade ago, called this paradigm 'inappropriate and misleading for studying innovation' being isolated from the events of 'cultural milieu' which affect the innovation as well. Therefore, they suggested a 'collaborative form' of implementation strategy. Obviously, the degree of implementation of innovation depends on the teacher, his/her style and conception of innovation.

3.5 TEACHERS' TEACHING STYLE AND INNOVATION

Each 'received innovative doctrine' brings new problems such as threat to the security of teachers, mismatch between teachers' teaching style and students' learning approaches. It demands more work on the part of
the teachers, and creates a mismatch between their 'espoused theory' and 'theory-in-use' (see Argyris and Schön later in this section). Hence they feel more happy with teaching a conventional rather than an innovative curriculum. It is often said that the teacher's role is more influenced by her/his own 'ideology' or 'teaching theory' which affects the teaching-learning process. Bruner (1960) and Rogers (1969) described two types of teaching role - 'didactic' and 'facilitative', which were close to Entwistle's (1981) distinction between 'traditional' and 'progressive'. Bennett (1976) in the UK and Solomon and Kendal (1979) in the USA identified a common pattern in terms of 'teacher control' and 'pupil freedom'. Consequently Bennett (1976) identified three categories of teaching styles - 'formal', 'mixed' and 'informal'.

According to Bennett, 'formal teaching' is concerned with the improvement of students' basic skills, while on the contrary, 'informal teaching' fosters creativity, improves motivation but increases the level of anxiety among students. Solomon's study suggested two types of students - 'high performance holders' and 'low performance holders'. High performance was associated with 'controlled' and 'disciplined' classes whereas low performance was related to 'permissive' and 'uncontrolled' classes. The highest level of creativity was found in warm, friendly classes with moderate teacher control and some student autonomy. The above categories of teacher's teaching style are reminiscent of Barnes's (1976) classification of teaching style - 'Transmission' and 'Interpretation'.

The 'transmission teacher' believes that knowledge exists primarily as a public discipline to the extent that it conforms to the discipline's criteria; he or she sees the teacher's role as evaluating performance
according to those criteria - and views pupils' access to knowledge as difficult, since qualification is through tests of performance.

The 'interpretation teachers' think knowledge exists in the pupils' ability to organise thought and action; they value pupils' performance in terms of their commitment to organise thought and action; see the teacher's role as setting up a dialogue in which pupils reshape their knowledge through interaction; and view pupils as already possessing relevant knowledge and the means to reshape it.

Thus the former category of the teachers tend to see their role in terms of a narrow view of teaching as 'instructor' or 'director'. He or she is much concerned with the completion of syllabus, and getting their students through the examinations, seeing students as passive listeners. They view knowledge as 'fragmented accumulation'. These teachers may possess 'simple theories' (Fox 1983). Consequently their students may adopt a 'surface approach' to learning.

The latter category of the teachers see their role in terms of 'manager' or 'facilitator' and stress the pupils' enjoyment of school and opportunities for self-expression. Their view of knowledge is 'constructivist'. Their students are free of anxiety and see the teacher, or examination, as fair. Therefore, they are more likely to adopt a 'deep approach' to learning. Their teaching approach may be subsumed in Fox's (1983) 'developed theories'. Many psychologists including Laurillard (1979) would emphasize that the students' learning approaches are dependent on learning content, task and context. Thus, students may vary their learning approaches from task to task. Hence there is a possibility of a mismatch with students' learning approaches.
if teachers adopt either 'extreme style of teaching', (Pask 1976a). Therefore Entwistle (1981) suggested a 'versatile style' of teaching to match with the students' learning styles.

The above discussion suggests that the teachers' personal view of teaching has a significant influence on students' learning. Innovation's failure or success depends on both the teaching and learning process. Taylor and Richards (1985, p.8) maintained that

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\text{it is only when the (new) curriculum is enacted, given meaning through teaching, that it finally becomes a reality for pupils. It is through operations of teaching and learning which follow that intended (innovative) curricula are realised.}
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Therefore, it is necessary to know the students and teachers' views on the impact of innovation on the teaching-learning process.

Many psychologists believe that each teacher, irrespective of sex, age or experience, possesses 'implicit theories' of teaching. Argyris and Schon (1974) divided the theory of teaching into two sub theories which they term 'espoused theory' and 'theory-in-use'. According to them when someone is asked how he would behave under certain circumstances, the answer he gives is his espoused theory of action for that situation. This is the theory of action to which he gives allegiance, and which, upon request, he communicates to others. However, the theory which actually governs his actions is his theory-in-use, which may or may not be compatible with his espoused theory.

\[(p.7)\].

The individual may or may not be aware of the incompatibility of these theories (Clark and Yinger 1977). When teachers perceive inconsistency between these theories, they are unable to translate curriculum into practice. Thus, teachers become resistant to change or 'modification'
which occurs in the original innovation. To overcome this problem Day (1984) and Olson (1988) suggested 'support mechanisms' to guide teachers action, enabling them to translate curriculum into practice.

Fox (1983) identified four basic theories of teaching. Two theories - 'transfer' and 'shaping', he described as 'simple' theories while the other two - 'travelling' and 'growing', he suggested as 'developed' theories. According to him 'transfer' and 'travelling' theories are 'subject focused' while 'travelling' and 'growing' theories are 'person and learner' focused. It was mentioned earlier that the 'transmission teachers' may hold 'simple theories' because they see their role as 'instructor' or 'knowledge transmitter', whereas the 'interpretation teachers' may hold 'developed theories'. Since each theory of teaching implies a corresponding theory of learning, Fox suggested that 'simple theories of teaching' are more likely to encourage a 'surface' approach to learning and 'developed theories' more likely to encourage a 'deep approach' to learning.

Fox further suggested that travelling and growing theories were more likely to be held by experienced teachers, though he did not define 'experienced' teachers. However, neither did Fox (1983) suggest that "developed theories of teaching are always better than simple theories" (p.162), though they are distinctive and affect the teaching–learning process.
3.6 STUDENTS' LEARNING APPROACHES/STYLES/STRATEGIES

Pask, in the early 1970s, extended his series of investigations into students' conceptual learning. (Pask and Scott 1972). He identified two distinct strategies of learning based on students needs and tasks. The first was called 'serialist' related to linear progression based on a simple hypothesis, the second being termed 'holist', concerned with a complex hypothesis related to problem solving.

In another experiment, Pask (1976a) provided further descriptions based on students' understanding of series of abstract and real world topics. The holists tended to have wide focus of attention and move from real world to abstract and vice versa. On the other hand, the serialists tended to work sequentially through either series of abstract and real world topics, bringing them together when forced to achieve overall understanding.

Pask (1976b) further added that a full understanding occurs only when the students can explain the topic by reconstructing it, and can also demonstrate that understanding by applying the principles learned to an entirely new situation. Pask believed that 'holist' and 'serialist' strategies were manifestations of important underlying differences in the way people thought and tackled problems. In less demanding situations some students may act as 'holists' and may adopt a 'comprehension learning style' - building on descriptions of what is known. The others - 'serialists' may use an 'operation learning style' - mastering procedural routine. Other students who tend to adapt their learning strategy to the requirements of their specific task have what is called a 'versatile style of learning'. Pask (1976b) further suggested that when teaching and learning styles matched, students
secured higher marks than in the other 'mis-matched' conditions. Thus Entwistle (1981) alerted us the disadvantage of mismatch that "if teachers adopt too extreme a method of teaching, perhaps reflecting their own learning style, one group of students will find the approach alien to their way of learning" (p.95).

Entwistle and his associates (1979) concluded that 'comprehension learning' went with the 'deep approach' and 'operation' with the 'surface' approach to learning as defined by Marton and Säljö (1976). Both, on the basis of students' understanding of academic articles, identified two major learning approaches - the deep approach (students tended to understand the meaning of the articles, relate information to previous knowledge and past experience and critically examine authors' arguments and conclusions) and the 'surface approach' (students tended to identify and memorise those parts of the article considered to be relevant to the questions anticipated).

Biggs (1978, 1979) without reference to Marton's work, described three dimensions of study processes - personal meaning, reproducing and achieving. The first factor is linked with 'intrinsic motivation' which can be linked with the 'deep approach'; the second factor, related to 'extrinsic motivation', may be linked with the surface approach. The third factor is 'need for success', which may be 'high intrinsically' or 'lesser extrinsically' motivated, and may go either with 'deep' or 'surface' approaches. This group of students may be found in Pask's (1976b) third category of students' learning - 'versatile style'.

Ramsden (1979) and Laurillard (1979) studied students' study strategies. Ramsden (1979) identified two main factors - interest and previous
knowledge which affected the students' study strategies. Laurillard (1979) concluded that students' learning was dependent on contextual factors. She further noted that students' study approaches vary from task to task. Hence syllabus and examination focussed teaching may encourage students to adopt a 'surface approach' enabling only a low level of understanding (Entwistle 1981). Level of interest and anxiety also affect the approach to learning (Fransson 1977).

3.7 PRACTICAL PROBLEMS OF INNOVATIVE CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

When the teachers decide to adopt a new practice, they face uncertainties about their role in the classroom, the effectiveness of their methods and the purpose of their instruction (Olson 1980, abstract). Olson further went on to say that if the teachers choose not to alter their practices, however, they face problems stemming from incomplete use of the innovative programme (abstract). This results in the teachers being made the scapegoats for the failure of the innovation [Hurst (1981), Calderhead (1984) and Dove (1986)]. Hence the best curriculum is always based on workable and implementable curriculum policy. Therefore, many would suggest (including myself) that only those may be involved in the task of curriculum development who have the experience, expertise, abilities, and commitment to deal with the human problems [Tanner and Tanner (1980); Kelly (1989)].

Gross and his colleagues in 1971 found five major factors which detracted from curriculum innovation:

1. Lack of clear understanding amongst staff of the innovations;
2. Lack of skills or training opportunities to acquire skills needed to perform in accordance with the innovation;
3. lack of willingness or commitment to make the necessary innovative efforts;
4. lack of required materials and resources;
5. incompatibility between certain existing organisational arrangements and innovation.

Though these findings seem to be common dilemmas of innovation, for the first time they have highlighted the 'determinants of innovation'. The first factor is related to 'teachers' non-participation in curriculum development', the second indicates the 'lack of INSET', the third the 'lack of incentives', fourth, 'lack of instructional guides' and fifth shows the 'inadequate understanding of goals of innovation'. Later, Fullan and Pomfret (1977), giving an account of fifteen innovations, determined four major and common problems which affect innovation i.e. in-service training, resource support, feedback mechanism and participation in decision-making which were close to the findings of Gross (1971) and his associates.

Smith and Keith (1971) added one more problem - 'lack of support of the temporary system'. However, they concluded that the uncompromising nature of structural, procedural and cultural factors were responsible for non-implementation of innovation. Olson (1980) in his study found more or less similar problems in terms of conflicting commitments (theory), influence (social relationships) and uncertain efficiency (technology). Smith and Keith's (1971) first problem, structural, may correspond with 'technology', procedural with 'theory' and cultural with 'social relationships'.
If a support system is established at the early stage, then it may help in solving teachers problems and guide teachers actions while giving some sense to innovation in the classroom. Shipman (1974) and Fullan and Pomfret (1977) suggested a 'feedback mechanism', Hoyle (1980) recommended 'extended professionality'. Tanner and Tanner (1980) labelled it an 'expert system'. Day (1984) and Thomaz (1986) suggested 'consultancy' to help and guide the teachers in the uncertain situation. This will not only overcome the uncertain situation but will also make teachers more effective in understanding innovation. Tanner and Tanner (1980) suggested that the 'availability of expert assistance would facilitate teachers in solving their problems at a practical level'.

Day (1984) and Olson and Eaton (1987) found a mismatch between teachers 'espoused theory of action' and 'theory-in-use'. Olson and Eaton (1987) provided a list of contextual factors which are worth mentioning here because these are reminiscent of the findings of the present study to be discussed later. They listed: "limited training and expertise, limited resources, the expectations of students, school and parents, the absence of school board or Ministry of Education mandates and guidelines, and the rather unique process of innovation in which [teachers] were involved; the unanticipated consequences of introducing a new, untried element into existing, well-tried classroom routines; and their underlying concerns with regard to their classroom, their students, and their role as teacher" (p.181).

The above findings are related to the perspective of the 'developed countries' where the staff is trained and equipped with the modern instructional technology, their social and economical status to some extent is better than the teachers of the developing countries, and
innovation is well tried out before its adoption and implementation. In spite of this, the innovations are reported to be failures in the above context. Hurst (1981) described the context of the developing countries: "substantial reforms of education are unlikely to succeed while the working conditions, self-image, and morale of teachers remain as low and poor as they are ... (they are) not much helped by current managerial methods and dispositions in education, both those of ministries and external aid agencies" (p.185).

One of the reports of the World Bank (1980) with special reference to developing countries maintained that curriculum innovations are frequently misunderstood by 'consumers' of the education system, they are either resisted, ignored or misrepresented. Changes in curriculum in developing countries are simply applications of experiences in current development in Europe and America. The transition from pilot curriculum projects to large-scale national adoption of a curriculum is often made without the provision of necessary complementarities, such as teachers, textbooks, and physical resources ... overall, changes have been minimal. This may be explained by the fact that plans have been ill-conceived, policy has been changed, funds have not been available, or skilled personnel to administer reform have been in short supply... failure was largely the result of a lack of understanding of educational change and its relationship with the socio-economic environment...


Thus the failure of innovation is not typically a problem of the developing countries but is also found in the developed countries. Mann (1976) with respect to USA context noted that programmes were planned, curriculum was developed, teaching and learning units were packaged, teachers were trained, and the results were frustrating, uneven, unexpected and temporary. The literature on curriculum study related to the UK, Canada and Sweden also depicted the same phenomenon, although the rate of failure of innovation might be lower than in the developing
countries. Hurst (1981), in the context of the developing countries, suggested a need for "organisational support" to help the teachers in translating curriculum ideas into practice.

Handal and Lauvas (1987) suggested three main factors which influence teachers' action into practice - governing (teachers implicit theory), social (learning milieu) and frame (instructional milieu). They noted that frame and social factors were perceived by the teachers as more influential than their own 'implicit theory' (governing factors) while giving sense to innovation. This has also been empirically demonstrated in Sweden when teachers give sense to their action (Arfwedson 1985). Olson (1988) also urged 'getting access to the rules of teachers while they are playing the game'. For him, this exercise provides a ground for how teachers make sense of their teaching. The present study is conducted on the line of Olson's (1988) and the practical problems have been studied in the light of Handal and Lauvas's (1987) theoretical framework.

Teaching is not such a simple activity as it is depicted. When innovation creates problems for the teachers, they tend to adopt different survival strategies. These are part and parcel of teaching. Wood (1979) described various survival strategies used by teachers which indicate less relationship with the students' cognitive and affective development than with control. If teachers are highly concerned with their problem of survival, then this will harm students' development and innovation will have limited impact on the students' learning. Hargreaves (1978) also mentioned teachers' coping strategies as a product of both constructive and creative activity, and adaptation to institutional and social constraints.
Students views of their teachers and vice versa in relation to innovation should also be discussed to determine the effects of innovation on the students learning. Taylor (1962) analysed children's essays and found four categories of teacher behaviour - teaching, discipline, personal qualities and organisation. Good teachers were seen as those with knowledge, ability to control and explain, and with helping and encouraging attitudes.

Furlong (1977), Willis (1977) and Parsons (1987) maintained that if students were not so easily attracted to the innovative methods and teacher roles which many new curricula underwrite, then the extent of resistance from this quarter needs to be gauged and acknowledged. Hence students' views are as important as any others. I believe that studying teachers' and students' 'platforms' which they both bring to the classroom will help and provide greater insights into understanding the problems of curriculum change.

A particular source of problems in TEACL is the methods used. A description and evaluation of these is included in the following chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR

APPROACHES AND METHODS IN TEACL

No quick and easy method is guaranteed to provide success. Every learner is unique. Every teacher is unique... Using a cautious, enlightened, eclectic approach, you can build a theory - an understanding of the principles of second language learning and teaching.

(Brown 1987, p.13)

4.0 INTRODUCTION

It has been suggested (Stern 1983) that the study of education is perhaps the closest to language pedagogy. I would agree with Stern that "little thought has been given to the relationship between language teaching and the study of education". According to Stern (1983),

Language teaching in its most widespread form occurs in educational settings: school, university, college... Usually it forms part of a curriculum of studies and is meant to make an educational contribution to this curriculum... The language teacher almost inevitably operates with some notion of what teaching involves and how teaching fits into the educational enterprises of which it customarily forms a part.

(Stern 1983, p.419)

Therefore, the teaching of language has always been influenced by the different beliefs and value systems of society known as 'educational ideologies'. The western educational system provides a useful illustration of the diversity of educational ideologies, each with its distinctive views of education and curriculum proposals which embody these. There appear to be three common educational ideologies in the western educational system. Skilbeck (1982) called them - 'classical humanism', 'reconstructionism' and 'progressivism' - and these are
parallel to the philosophical positions of language learning - 'empiricism', 'rationalism' and 'holism' (see Figure 4.2).

This chapter is an attempt to present a brief history of linguistics development and of changes in language pedagogy. In Section 4.1 the terms 'approach' and 'method' are elaborated followed by a discussion of paradigm shift in language teaching in Section 4.2.

4.1 TERMS — APPROACH AND METHOD

These terms are frequently used interchangeably in the literature of language teaching e.g. Anthony (1963), MacKay (1965), Richards and Rodgers (1982), and Clarke (1983). It can be confusing if they are not differentiated. Anthony's (1963) simple and general classification is relevant to our discussion:

... An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught...

... Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. With one approach, there can be many methods...

(Anthony 1963, pp 63-67)

According to Anthony's theoretical scheme, 'approach' is the level at which theoretical foundations and ideas about the nature of language and language learning and teaching are determined; 'method' is the level at which theory is put into practice to teach language skills and competence through presentation of content. Richards and Rodgers (1982) and Richards (1984) used 'method' as an umbrella term containing the
'design' specified for the preparation of instructional materials and activities in the instructional setting.

Thus, Richards and Rodgers (1982) and Richards (1984) tended to refer to 'method' as the process of curriculum design rather than pedagogy. In fact, this distinction may confuse the language teachers. Therefore, I contend that the term 'method' may be considered as a tool of the teachers through which they put their theories into practice. Obviously, in the reality of the classroom, they deal with pedagogy rather than curriculum design. Thus I tend to use Anthony's definitions which are more explicit in the present work.

4.2 PARADIGM SHIFT IN TEACL

Under the influence of educational ideologies and linguistic theories in the last hundred years, TEACL has had major revolutions concerning approaches and methods. Every teaching method is based on its theoretical underpinnings which embrace more than one discipline. Thus teaching is not just linguistics or just psychology, but involves both, along with pedagogical, sociological, and other interdisciplinary considerations (Brown 1980).

Thomas Kuhn (1970) argued that the 'revolutions' in normal science occurred when the shared set of intellectual assumptions that formed the tradition of a discipline (a paradigm) breaks down and gives way to another (paradigm), causing controversy and insecurity in the process. Hairston (1982) suggested that a paradigm could be seen to exist when "most of the practitioners in the discipline hold a common body of beliefs and assumptions; they agree on the problems that need to be
Brown (1987) maintained that the revolution which took place in language teaching was not "a revolution of flashing swords and sudden coups. It has been a quiet, deliberate revolution, one with a gradual development of insights and knowledge" (p.246). Thus the history of language teaching in the twentieth century appears to be a cyclical pattern in which new paradigms of teaching methodology either emerged or derived their principles from old paradigms about once every 25 years, like "changing winds and shifting sands" (Marckwardt 1972, p.5).

As a result many new methods developed in response to teachers', students' and linguists' dissatisfaction with the traditional methods. Thus, Gouin's Series method, Berlitz's method, and Palmer's oral method can be regarded as revolutionary processes to replace the previous classic ways of teaching. However, many old ideas are being re-fashioned with different labels. Similarities can be found to some extent between 'reform methods' - eg the natural method, the direct method, and Gouin's Series and the innovative methods eg communicative language teaching and the natural approach.

Hence many current issues in the history of language teaching are not particularly new [Kelly (1969) and Howatt (1984)]. They are either polished or refined versions with new labels. In fact, the old methods provided insights into understanding the classroom milieu of foreign language teaching. Titone (1968, p.97) remarked that "the 'classical' or 'traditional' method is usually just a conventional routine devoid of theoretical background and based on the experience or so-called 'common
sense' of the individual teacher". Diller (1978, pp.2-3) expressed similar views that "there were no theoretical justifications for the older methods, and that the old-fashioned methods were all created unthinkingly for ad hoc situations". Hence it is argued that these methods are the product of a teacher's personal experience while considering daily classroom problems. These are still in use and considered to be appropriate methods for teaching translation skills and the knowledge of grammar.

Looking at the historical development of language pedagogy, Kunz (1980) noted only two major revolutions in pedagogy this century, one of which was the "post-World War II break from the traditional, or grammar-translation method" while the other was the "proliferation of new affectively-based methods or approaches" (p.170). I believe that it would be an incomplete history of the pedagogical revolution if methods based on 'empiricist' and 'rationalist' camps only were discussed without mentioning the methods underlying the third camp - 'holistic'. As Stern (1983 p.452) noted, "the conceptualization of language teaching has a long, fascinating, but rather tortuous history. For over a century, language educators have attempted to solve the problems of language teaching by focusing attention almost exclusively on teaching method".

Thus the methods of English teaching have changed considerably over the last thirty years from a unified body of theory and practice towards methods pertaining to cognitive and humanistic theories [see also eg Candlin (1976), Richards and Rodgers (1986)]. This resulted in the development of many complex and controversial issues which not only confused the teachers but affected the teaching-learning process as
Therefore, Diller (1978) was reluctant to acknowledge that the history of language teaching points to success.

Until the 1960s, there appears to have been a controversy between the 'empiricist' and 'rationalist' camps, raising major hurdles in the path of the development of language teaching. Attempts were made to present each method as superior to the other rather than identifying the faults of one method and correcting them with a new one [Kamaluddin (1973) and Diller (1978)]. Thus in the competition to produce new methods, many disappeared shortly after their creation.

Mackey (1965) and Diller (1978) each listed 15 methods, which except for the direct, natural, grammar-translation and audio lingual methods did not appear to be in the repertoire of linguistics teachers. It is also interesting to note that the majority of the methods appears to be referred to by different nomenclatures in the following tables and a few methods eg the cognate method, the unit method and the eclectic method, stand isolated in list one (see Figure 4.1).

**Figure 4.1 Comparison of Teaching Methods**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MACKEY (1965)</th>
<th>DILLER (1978)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The Direct Method</td>
<td>The Direct Method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The Natural Method</td>
<td>The Natural Method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The Psychological Method</td>
<td>The Oral Method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The Phonetic Method</td>
<td>The Jacotot Method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Series Method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Inductive Method</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

57
5. The Grammar Method
6. The Translation Method
7. The Dual-Language Method
8. Grammar-translation Method
9. The Mimicry-Memorisation Method
10. The Practice-Theory Method
11. The Cognate Method
12. The Unit Method
13. The Reading Method
14. The Eclectic Method
15. The Language Control Method

This confused the English teachers in Pakistan who have little background in applied linguistics and language pedagogy.

I do not claim to have included all the teaching methods in language pedagogy in this work, however, the major methods have been classified underlying the theoretical considerations of each method in figure 4.2 overleaf.

For EACL teachers in particular each approach to language learning and the methods associated with it are described and discussed in detail in the codicil. However, the brief synopsis included here is sufficient to indicate the complexity of choice facing EACL teachers in Pakistan. Some research approaches, methods and techniques which could be used to try to understand how they cope with this complexity which affects the teaching-learning process are discussed in the next chapter.
**Figure 4.2** Broad Outline of the Theoretical Considerations in Language Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATIONAL IDEOLOGY</th>
<th>Classical Humanism</th>
<th>Reconstructionism</th>
<th>Progressivism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHILOSOPHICAL POSITION</td>
<td>Empiricist</td>
<td>Rationalist</td>
<td>Holistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOL OF LINGUISTICS</td>
<td>Structural (Bloomfield)</td>
<td>Generative (Chomsky)</td>
<td>Functional-Communicative (Hymes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY</td>
<td>Behaviouristic (Skinner)</td>
<td>Cognitive (Ausubel)</td>
<td>Humanistic (Rogers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEARNER</td>
<td>Passive listener, fill up empty vessel</td>
<td>Active ability to think</td>
<td>Interactive, active inquirer, development as a whole person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER</td>
<td>Transmitter of knowledge, error corrector, instructor</td>
<td>Sympathetic and helpful, action and demonstration, organiser and manager of learning experience</td>
<td>Facilitator, negotiator, responder to learning needs, encourager of learner responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEARNING ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>Study of grammatical rules, learning of vocabulary, habit-forming drills</td>
<td>Correct pronunciation and accent, internalise the rules of grammar, produce new sentences, meaningful learning</td>
<td>Activities for communicative competence: grammatical socio-linguistics, discourse strategic, perform different kinds of function: instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginitive, representational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRAMMAR</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Generative</td>
<td>Communicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CURRICULUM ORIENTATION</td>
<td>Audiolingual</td>
<td>Cognitive code</td>
<td>Humanistic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY: APPROACHES, METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

Interpretive approaches, ... focus on action. This may be thought of as behaviour-with-meaning; it is intentional behaviour and as such, future oriented. Actions are only meaningful to us in so far as we are able to ascertain the intentions of the actor, to share his experience. A great deal of our everyday interactions with one another relies on such shared experiences.

(Cohen and Manion 1985, p.39)

5.0 INTRODUCTION

The literature on educational research indicates that there has been a polarisation between dichotomous research 'paradigms'. Each is based on its own theoretical underpinnings. In this chapter, I shall briefly describe the rationale for my personal choice of adopting an illuminative methodology within a naturalistic approach (see Section 5.1). Since the nature of the study dictates the methodology, the original illuminative approach is slightly modified to comprise four stages, using a combination of various research techniques. This chapter will also describe and discuss in Section 5.2 the main features of the two competing paradigms (i.e. Conventional and Naturalistic) in educational research. Further, Section 5.3 includes a discussion on methodological triangulation to cross-check information. In this, Survey and Case study are employed as complementary rather than competing methods.
5.1 THE CHOICE OF PARADIGM AND RESEARCH METHODS

My own research orientation was originally rather embedded in the conventional paradigm. In fact, before attending the research methods seminars in the Department of Educational Studies, University of Surrey, I was wary of the alternative paradigm. Gradually, over time, my personal inclination moved from the conventional approach towards naturalistic inquiry. I agree with Lincoln and Guba (1985) that when 'basic beliefs' are dissonant with the principles guiding the vanguard development of substantive thought, it is imperative that the inquiry itself be shifted from a conventional to a naturalistic stance.

Naturalistic inquiry does not necessarily demand totally new techniques, as Elton and Laurillard (1979) noted:

In the new methodology we may also use correlational analysis or we may use more qualitative approaches in order to explore the possible existence of relationships; the important question, however, to be answered is whether the relationships are meaningful, not simply whether they exist. Thus statistical information or statistical methods are not rejected by the new methodology, but their role is very different.

(p.90)

Smith (1981) added:

In naturalistic inquiry, unlike experimental studies, the meaning of the constructs or ideas to be studied is not arbitrarily fixed (operationalized) in advance of the data collection. Instead, the researcher deliberately tries to elicit the multiple meanings about those ideas that are held by each person.

(p.585)

Circumstances decide the nature of the issues and problems to be studied and methods adopted. Thus the nature of the present study is one of the main reasons which dictated a shift in orientation from the 'conventional' to 'naturalistic' inquiry e.g. Schwab (1973) and Reid
(1978) noted that the nature of curriculum change problems are practical rather than procedural. Obviously, this study aims to understand holistically the teachers' perspective on 'received innovative doctrines' and their inherent dilemmas, and includes the students' perspective on the teaching-learning process in English in a natural setting. It also intends to gain insights into the practical problems of curriculum and instruction which tend to create conflict between teachers' thought and action and to examine how the teachers resolve these practical problems in their daily routine at the classroom level. Since teaching is a complex, intentional and goal-directed activity, therefore, teaching behaviour cannot be understood without knowing 'what goes on in the head of the teachers' and how they practise in the classroom. Cohen and Manion (1985) believed that:

An individual's behaviour can only be understood by the researcher sharing his frame of reference: understanding of the individual's interpretations of the world around him has to come from the inside, not the outside.

(p.27)

Taking into consideration the nature of the problem, a 'naturalistic paradigm' along with the 'deliberative approach' of curriculum study (Schwab 1973) provided a conceptual framework for the present study (see Chapter 2 Section 2.2.1). Since human action is complex, it can only be grasped and interpreted in the context in which the action takes place. The conventional theoretical framework would be less appropriate in this respect particularly.

A 'naturalistic' inquiry, subsuming the 'phenomenological position' would help the researcher to provide a deeper understanding of individuals, their perceptions, and the meaning they attach to their
actions. It focuses on the social meanings which can be examined in the context of individuals' interaction and interpretation. According to Erickson (1977, p.50) "these meanings are most often discovered through field work by hanging around and watching people carefully and asking them why they do what they do."

The individual's 'meaning' system has a central position in Kelly's 'Personal Construct Theory' that attempts to "do justice to the internal world of the person" (Pope 1982). This theoretical and methodological approach falls within the 'Verstehen' approach, the central spirit of which is coming to an understanding of the view of the world held by those people involved in a situation. Ben-Peretz (1984, p.103) said that "the [personal construct] theory emphasises interaction between man and the environment as an experiential cycle in which people develop their personal construct system".

The present study in its nature is descriptive, idiographic, naturalistic and holistic, hence it lies within paradigm 2 (Naturalistic) of educational research in the diagrammatic framework devised by Gilbert and Pope (1984) (see figure 5.1).

Elton and Laurillard (1979) found the illuminative approach to be useful for holistic and interpretative studies. They described the following five major characteristics of the illuminative approach which were relevant to the present study:

1. It is problem-centred - beginning (as all applied research does) with issues and concerns as defined in real life settings.
Figure 5.1

Paradigms in Educational Research

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2. It is practitioner-oriented - designating its chief function as providing information and insights for professional educators.

3. It is cross-disciplinary - drawing especially on psychology, sociology, psychiatry and social anthropology for concepts and ways of thinking.

4. It is methodologically eclectic - interview, questionnaires, observation and analysis of documents are used in various combinations, according to circumstances, defined problems and stages of the investigation.

5. It is heuristically organised - the researchers progressively focusing and redefining the areas of enquiry as the study unfolds, in the light of accumulating experience and as the crucial issues-to-be-studied become uncovered.

Within naturalistic inquiry, the illuminative approach appears to be emphasising interpretation and the value of participants' experience based on ethnographic, and case study, tradition. It is characterised by a flexible and eclectic methodology. The techniques are chosen to fit the questions, opportunities, and restrictions that a particular investigation poses: problems dictating methods rather than methods problems [Laurillard (1978), Dearden (1978)]. A single technique often fails to provide sufficient information in areas selected for study (Verma et al. 1980). Then it becomes necessary to adopt a combination of research methodologies in a single piece of research to throw light on common problems and to cross-check the information obtained from the participants. Parlett and Dearden (1977 p.105) maintained that the "illuminative researcher progressively focuses on major themes that are
identified in the course of study ... progressive focusing helps to avoid data saturation."

In their work, Parlett and Dearden (1977) described three stages of conducting illuminative research: observing, inquiring and further seeking to explain. Currently the illuminative approach is extensively used in the ethnographic and social anthropological way of research in which the researcher, in the first stages, is required to become immersed in the situation through observation. In this approach it seems that an important step appears to be missing before conducting observation i.e. 'the negotiation of research contracts'. It is my belief and personal experience that without negotiation with the participants and authorities concerned the researcher may not be able to obtain the relevant information, that is until the participants are taken into confidence and the study undertaken is seen to serve their purpose. It may be noted that teachers in Pakistan are often unaware of the importance of research because of the lack of research in curriculum implementation and evaluation. Teachers feel constrained in airing their views about the system.

Considering the importance of 'negotiation of research contracts' in the present study, this stage was included, which slightly modified Parlett and Dearden's (1977) framework of conducting illuminative study. In the present study, the illuminative approach is based on four stages as described below:

**STAGE 1. NEGOTIATING RESEARCH CONTRACTS**
At this stage the researcher extends contact with the participants to explain the purpose of the study and to negotiate with the authorities
for permission to conduct a study in the schools. This helps the researcher to gain the confidence of the participants and build a friendly atmosphere for field work. The researcher has also the opportunity to search for an alternative way to overcome (to some extent) social constraints which may affect the study.

STAGE 2. OBSERVING NATURAL PHENOMENA
The researcher becomes immersed in the situation and observes the teaching process. The researcher builds up a continuous record of ongoing events, transactions and informal remarks.

STAGE 3. INQUIRING INTO FURTHER ISSUES
The research starts with a selection of a number of such phenomena, occurrences or groups of opinions as topics for more sustained and intensive enquiry. The researcher's questioning will be more focused; communication more coherent and relaxed; and in general, observation and inquiry more directed, systematic and selective.

STAGE 4. SEEKING GENERAL PRINCIPLES TO BE EXPLAINED
At this stage, the researcher seeks general principles underlying the organisation of the programme, spotting patterns of cause and effect within the broader explanatory context. It begins with weighing alternative interpretations in the light of the information to be obtained.

(After Parlett and Dearden 1977, pp.17-18)

As noted earlier, the illuminative approach in educational research falls within the naturalistic inquiry approach. Lincoln and Guba (1985,
p. 187) suggested that "naturalistic studies are virtually impossible to design in any definitive way before the study is actually undertaken". However, they produced a flow chart (see Figure 5.2) to help develop and design the study. This was used as a 'guiding principle' in the present study because the naturalist does not begin 'empty-handed' or 'empty-headed'.

In the following section, an attempt is made to discuss the debate waged between the proponents and opponents of each of the research paradigms in social science. This debate does not appear to be merely a disagreement over the relative advantages and disadvantages of qualitative and quantitative methods but also a fundamental clash over epistemological and methodological issues between the two paradigms.

5.2 TWO COMPETING PARADIGMS IN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Educational research in particular and social research in general contains two competing world views. However, there is no unanimous agreement on assigning labels to identify each paradigm. For example Guba (1978) used the terms 'conventional inquiry' and 'naturalistic inquiry' respectively. Rist (1977), Reichardt and Cook (1979), Filstead (1979), Patton (1980) and other researchers referred to 'qualitative' and 'quantitative' paradigms. Kaikumba (1986) labelled them as 'traditional' and 'non-traditional' paradigms. Gilbert and Pope (1984) did not intend to put any specific labels on these paradigms other than simply calling them 'paradigm I' and 'paradigm II'(see Figure 5.1). However, they had attempted to differentiate between them distinguishing both philosophical position and methodological stance.
Figure 5.2 The flow of naturalistic inquiry

(Lincoln and Guba 1985 p.188)
Those who see the debate in terms of contrast between two prevailing paradigms usually provide a 'characteristic' or 'shopping list' of attributes which are said to distinguish one from the other. For example: Rist (1977) offered four attributes; Patton (1978) provided seven; Guba (1978) gave fourteen; Reichardt and Cook (1979) described nine; Schwartz and Ogilvy (1979) mentioned seven; Gilbert and Pope (1984) gave five and Atkins (1985) mentioned nine. Among these, Guba's (1978) dichotomy between two world views provides a relatively sound basis for contrasting and differentiating each paradigm from the other, and is presented in Figure 5.3.

In this chapter, I intend to retain the terms - 'conventional inquiry' and 'naturalistic inquiry' as used by Guba (1978) for each paradigm, which seems to be more specific for the purpose of this study. The rest of the terms, for example, 'qualitative' and 'quantitative', can lead to confusion in researchers' minds generally and particularly those who are novice researchers undertaking academic or professional research. It would be wise to restrict the terms 'qualitative' and 'quantitative' to the type of data only, not to the type of paradigms, as suggested by Gilbert and Pope (1984).

Finally, Lincoln and Guba (1985) produced five refined axioms. The following Figure 5.4 shows the axiomatic difference between the two paradigms.
### Figure 5.3: Some Basic Differences Between Conventional and Naturalistic Inquiry

**Forms of Inquiry**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Conventional</th>
<th>Naturalistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philosophical base</td>
<td>Logical positivism</td>
<td>Phenomenology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inquiry paradigm</td>
<td>Experimental physics</td>
<td>Ethnography, investigative journalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>Verification</td>
<td>Discovery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stance</td>
<td>Reductionist</td>
<td>Expansionist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Framework/design</td>
<td>Preordinate/fixed</td>
<td>Emergent/variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Style</td>
<td>Intervention</td>
<td>Selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reality manifold</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Multiple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value structure</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Pluralistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting</td>
<td>Laboratory</td>
<td>Nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context</td>
<td>Unrelated</td>
<td>Relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions</td>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>Invited interference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope</td>
<td>Molecular</td>
<td>Molar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods</td>
<td>Objective - in sense of inter-subjective agreement</td>
<td>Objective - in sense of factual confirmable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Guba 1978 p.18)
### Figure 5.4 Contrasting Positivist (Conventional) and Naturalist Axioms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Axioms about</th>
<th>Positivist (Conventional) paradigm</th>
<th>Naturalist paradigm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The nature of reality</td>
<td>Reality is single, tangible, and fragmentable.</td>
<td>Realities are multiple, constructed and holistic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The relationship of knower to the known</td>
<td>Knower and known are independent, a dualism.</td>
<td>Knower and known are interactive, inseparable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The possibility of generalisation</td>
<td>Time and context-free generalisations (nomothetic statements) are possible.</td>
<td>Only time and context-bound working hypotheses (idiographic statements) are possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The possibility of causal linkages</td>
<td>There are real causes, temporally precedent to or simultaneous with their effects.</td>
<td>All entities are in a state of mutual simultaneous shaping, so that it is impossible to distinguish causes from effects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role of values</td>
<td>Inquiry is value-free.</td>
<td>Inquiry is value-bound.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Lincoln and Guba 1985, p.37)

The traditional research equivalent to 'the scientific method' is the dominant methodology in educational research, particularly in Pakistan. Campbell and Stanley (1963) considered it "the only available route to cumulative progress". According to Rist (1977) this is because "it is more widely published, taught, accepted and rewarded in educational research circles than any other approach" (p.42). Despite this, some researchers including myself have shifted their attention from 'conventional' to 'naturalistic' inquiry focusing on both the inner and outer perspective of human behaviour which can only be understood by studying their frame of reference in the context.

Terhart (1982 p.146) suggested that "the 'new' interpretative and the 'old' hermeneutic approach can both be subsumed under the concept of
'Verstehen' (understanding) as the distinctive researcher orientation appropriate to the humanities, the opposite of which is 'Erklären' (explaining), the orientation appropriate for the natural sciences.

At the heart of the distinction between these two paradigms lies the classic argument in philosophy between the schools of 'Realism' and 'Idealism' (both terms are loosely used). The realist position corresponds to 'logical positivism'. Sjöberg and Nett (1966) described the aim of positivists in the following way:

First, the positivists assume that scientists can, almost automatically, attain objective knowledge of the study of both the social and natural worlds. Second, they argue the natural and social sciences share a basic methodology, that they are similar, not by virtue of their subject matter, but because they employ the same logic of inquiry and similar research procedures... Third, the positivists, unlike the writer in the neo-idealist tradition, generally think of a mechanistic natural and social order.

(Sjöberg and Nett 1966, p.7)

According to logical positivists, human behaviour is lawful and can be explained by causal relationships among variables through scientific methods. This is one of the basic features of the 'conventional paradigm' that relies on the concept of 'cause' and 'effect' and attempts to relate cause-effect relationships to statistical relations. Among others, Campbell and Stanley (1963) are often cited as staunch proponents of the 'conventional paradigm'. According to them, experiment not only leads to clear causal inferences, but the very process of experimental design helps to clarify the nature of the social problem being studied.

On the other hand, the idealist position stresses an evolving, negotiating view of social order. The social world is not fixed or
static but shifting, changing and dynamic. This is a view of phenomenologists who are concerned with describing and understanding human action in the natural setting. In this connection, Hughes (1976) explains that:

Human beings are not 'things' to be studied in the way one studies rats, plants, or rocks, but are valuing, meaning-attributed beings to be understood as subjects and known as subjects. [The researcher] deals with meaningful action, and the understanding, explanation, analysis, or whatever, must be made with consideration of these meanings that make the ordering of human action possible... To impose positivist meanings upon the realm of social phenomena is to distort the fundamental nature of human existence.

(p.25)

Given this view, the idealist position rejects the view that human behaviour is governed by general laws and is characterised by underlying regularities. The idealists would agree that the social world can only be understood from the standpoint of individuals who are part of the ongoing action being investigated and that their model of man is an autonomous one, not the plastic version favoured by positivist researchers. They believe that an individual's behaviour can only be understood by the researcher sharing his frame of reference.

According to Harré and Secord (1972), Man is an entity who is capable of monitoring his own performance. He is aware of this self-monitoring and has the power of speech; Man is able to provide commentaries on those performances and to plan ahead of them as well. Such an entity, it is held, is much inclined to using rules, to devising plans, to developing strategies in getting things done the way he wants them doing. Thus, human action can only be understood in the 'Verstehen' framework. Holbrook (1977) said that our approaches today to the study of man have yielded little, and are essentially dead, because they cling to
positivism. Rist (1977 p.44) argued that "a complete and ultimately truthful analysis can only be achieved by actively participating in the life of the observed and gaining insights by means of interpretation".

Smith (1983) gave an account of the historical origins and development of those two paradigms as being rooted in the late nineteenth century. He went on to say that:

The crucial question at that time was whether or not social scientists could and/or should 'borrow' the methodology of the physical sciences, especially physics, to investigate the social and human world.

(Smith 1983, p.6)

A glance through the research literature reveals that the 'conventional' research paradigm, culled from the physical sciences, assumes that both the 'hard' and 'soft' sciences are the same. Therefore, both are concerned with discovering natural and universal laws regulating and determining individual and social behaviour. Elton and Laurillard (1979) described it thus:

It [conventional research paradigm] involves the analysis of complicated situations into component parts, followed by the controlled variation of single variables leading to a better understanding of each separate part, and finally the reassembly of the parts into the original whole with increased understanding.

(p.87)

Undoubtedly, it has been immensely successful in 'hard' sciences, but it has proved to be inappropriate in the 'soft' sciences particularly in understanding human action in a natural setting holistically [see for example Parlett (1974), Parlett and Hamilton (1976), Filstead (1979), Guba and Lincoln (1981)]. Parlett and Hamilton (1976) called it an 'agricultural-botany paradigm' or a 'paradigm of plants not people'.
Parlett and Dearden (1977) maintained that:

Characteristically, conventional approaches have followed the experimental and psychometric traditions dominant in educational research. The aim (unfulfilled) of achieving fully 'objective methods' has led to studies that are artificial and restricted in scope.

(p.10)

Guba and Lincoln (1981), originators of 'naturalistic inquiry', have mounted severe attacks on the 'conventional inquiry'. According to them, 'conventional inquiry' has failed precisely because it does not "begin with the concerns and issues of their actual audiences and because they produce information that, while statistically significant does not generate truly worthwhile knowledge... Research results proved to be inconclusive, difficult to aggregate, and virtually impossible to relate to happenings in the real world" (pp.ix-x).

The 'naturalistic' or 'alternative' research paradigm underlying the idealist position grew as a result of dissatisfaction with the traditional paradigm which "employs a lock-step model of logicodeductive reasoning from theory to propositions, concept formation, operational definitions, measurement of the operational definitions, data collection, hypothesis testing, and analysis" (Filstead 1979, p.38).

Filstead went on to say that:

The qualitative paradigm (naturalistic inquiry) is a dynamic interchange between theory, concepts, and data with constant feedback and modifications of theory and concepts based on the data collected. This emerging, refined 'explanation framework' gives direction to where additional data need to be collected. It is marked by a concern with the discovery of theory rather than the verification of theory.

(p.38)
The advocates of each paradigm have claimed their choice of paradigm to be the ideal model for research. For example, Rossi and Wright (1977, p.13) claimed that "there is almost universal agreement among evaluation researchers that the randomized controlled experiment is the ideal model for evaluating the effectiveness of public policy". Conversely, Guba (1978, p.81) argued that 'naturalistic inquiry' offers "a more congenial and responsive mode of evaluation than others practised today". Given both views, it appears a case of disdain rather than detente.

Amongst other researchers, Weiss and Rein (1972) have described the naturalistic paradigm as 'superior'. They considered the alternative research strategies deriving from the naturalistic paradigm "in general to be superior to experimental design as a methodology for evaluating broad-aim programmes" (p.243).

To wind up the debate on two world views, I strongly agree with Rist (1977, p.42) that "no one approach has a hegemony in educational research". Guba (1980, p.4) also expressed similar views that "there is no guaranteed method for ascertaining truth. There are instead a number of competing paradigms that describe different methods, and no one is in fact intrinsically superior". Given the view that one paradigm is not inherently superior to another, a researcher is left to choose the particular paradigm which is most appropriate for answering the research questions.

As mentioned earlier, the illuminative approach is both adaptable and eclectic. Thus using an eclectic methodological stance to cross-check the information gathered from different sources is in line with Denzin's (1978) advice for "triangulation".
5.3 METHODOLOGICAL TRIANGULATION: A STRATEGY FOR CROSS-CHECKING THE INFORMATION

Magoon (1977, p.669) stated that "the main strength of ethnographic (naturalistic) studies lies in their heavy emphasis on validity, particularly 'construct validation', the meaning of events or situations to participants". However, I was also aware of what Entwistle and Hounsell (1979) pointed out:

The very sensitivity and flexibility which are the essence of illuminative research are also its Achilles' heel.

(p.361)

They further suggested that the "insights which emerge from qualitative research reports can appear too much the product of the researcher's personal perspective and of the idiosyncracies of the specific situations examined" (p.361). However, they do stress that if the researcher is aware of these limitations and uses methods of cross-checking interpretations he can provide evidence "as strong in its own way as that devised from conventional approaches" (p.361).

Cohen and Manion (1985) described the use of triangulation techniques in the social sciences:

[They] attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standard point and in so doing, making use of both quantitative and qualitative data.

(p.254)

Similarly, note was taken of Lin's (1977) advice that 'exclusive reliance on one method, therefore, may bias or distort the researcher's picture of the particular slice of reality he is investigating'. Webb et al. (1966) concluded that triangulation, though difficult, is very
much worth doing, because it makes the data and the findings believable:

Once a position has been confirmed by two or more measurement processes, the uncertainty of its interpretation is greatly reduced.

(p.3)

According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), triangulation prevents the investigator from accepting too readily the validity of initial impressions. Goetz and LeCompte (1984) stressed that triangulation techniques assist in 'correcting biases' when the investigator is the only observer of the phenomenon under investigation. It may be argued that with only one method, it is impossible to separate the bias of the method from the underlying quantity or quality that one is trying to measure. But several methods can be used together to triangulate upon the underlying 'truth' separating the wheat from the chaff, so to speak (Webb et al. 1966). Reichardt and Cook (1979) suggested that any two or more methods can be used for this purpose. They also advised that it is better to use qualitative and quantitative methods together because they are relatively disparate.

Obviously the main concern of triangulation in research is to validate the results. Denzin (1978) identified two categories of triangulation, i.e. 'within methods' and 'between methods', which have implications for my study. The former concerns the replication of a study as a check on its reliability and theory confirmation (Smith 1975). The latter involves the use of more than one method in the pursuit of a given objective (Cohen and Manion 1985). A combination of methods can overcome the unique deficiencies of each individual method.
5.3.1 PRINCIPLES OF METHODOLOGICAL TRIANGULATION

Denzin (1978) also described principles of methodological triangulation, four of which have implications for my own work. These are summarised below:

1. The nature of the research problem and its relevance to a particular method should be assessed.

Methods must be selected in accordance with the nature of the problem. For example, if data are to be collected from a scattered population and a relatively large sample, then the survey can meet the needs of the study. Participant observation can only be helpful when certain categories of persons, events etc will be observed, while interviews will be helpful in bringing out hidden issues which cannot be observed directly.

2. All methods should be combined to reduce as much as possible all threats to internal and external validity.

The researcher's presence in observation and interview may cause problems of reactivity. Researchers should always take care to combine respondents' perceptions with their own interpretations to maintain internal and external validity of interpretations.

3. Methods must be selected with an eye to their theoretical relevance.

To maximise the theoretical value of their studies investigators must select their strongest methods. For example, the survey method is appropriate for studying stable patterns of interaction. Emergent issues identified from the survey can be tested further through participant observation. In contrast, if the combination of methods contains contradictory theoretical propositions, then they may not be appropriate.
4. **No investigation should be viewed in a static fashion.**

As research proceeds further new issues come up, hence it is better to adopt new strategies which may lead to modification of the research design. The researcher must be flexible to changing methods and reconceptualisation of problems. In addition, s/he should evaluate the methods, assess the quality of data and their relevance to theory.

5.3.2 SURVEY METHOD

The survey is mostly considered as a descriptive type of research method [Verma and Beard (1981), Ary *et al.* (1985), and Cohen and Manion (1985)]. Descriptive surveys basically are present oriented and inquire into the status quo as it exists. According to Ary and his associates (1985) "descriptive research is not generally directed towards hypothesis testing. The aim is to describe 'what exists' with respect to variables or conditions in a situation" (p.322). Verma and Beard (1981 p.58) suggested that in descriptive research "the discovery of meaning is the focus of the whole process... identifying the nature of factors and interpreting the meaning or significance of 'what is', it may be possible to formulate some hypotheses for further work". Hence Moulay (1978) suggested that surveys are decision oriented rather than conclusion oriented.

Surveys vary in their levels of complexity and scope. The scope of the survey in the present study is only 'descriptive' rather than 'prescriptive' or 'explanatory' at small-scale level. Initially, it aimed to collect basic information in terms of both qualitative and quantitative data, in line with Patton (1987), from the teachers and students regarding their general concerns and pedagogical problems of teaching English. It consisted of a questionnaire, semi-structured
interview, and document analysis. The issues which emerged from the initial findings of the survey (see chapter 7, section 7.6) were considered to be 'generative working hypotheses' [Geer (1969), Thomaz (1986)] which were further tested in the intensive study at the classroom level. This survey provided the basis for the in depth study.

It is argued that surveys can help to inform the design of field work and add to the perspective of data collection so as, for example, to help the researcher to obtain a representative sample and a holistic understanding of that sample. Many researchers including Zubir (1983), used methodological 'layering' or a combination of case study and survey respectively. According to Nisbet and Watt (1978), 'a large scale survey can be followed up by case studies, to test out conclusions by examining specific instances'. They suggested that both methods can be used to complement each other. My views on using both the survey and case study methods were further strengthened by Huberman and Miles (1984) who proposed that combinations of both methods "not only extend and deepen the data set; they also keep one another analytically honest and on target" (p.36)

5.3.3 CASE STUDY METHOD

The present study aims to understand the teachers' and students' 'world view' on their teaching-learning process and the specific practical problems they encounter during the teaching of English at classroom level. At the outset, a survey method was used to identify the main issues regarding curriculum change. The issues which emerged from the findings of the survey were further explored and probed in depth using the case study method.
Denny (1978) defined the case study as an intensive or complete examination of a facet, an issue, or perhaps the events of a geographical setting over time. MacDonald and Walker (1977) maintained that the case study method developed as a need to find ways of portraying the experience of the participants and learning milieu of the programme "so that prospective users of new programmes can relate them to their own experience, circumstances, concerns, and preferences" (Macdonald and Walker 1977, p.181).

They went on to say that:

Case study is the way of the artist, who achieves greatness when, through the portrayal of a single instance locked in time and circumstance, he communicates enduring truths about the human condition.

(p.182)

For Adelman and Walker (1975) the case study method has much in common with illuminative evaluation. Case study research attempts to reach understanding through the detailed study and portrayal of individual instances, persons, ideas, institutions and events (p.224). In recent years, educational researchers have begun to use case study methods more extensively when their aim is to describe and interpret an existing situation holistically. Pope and Gilbert (1984) suggested that the case study method is the mainstay of naturalistic inquiry which gives emphasis to 'understanding' why the individual does what s/he does and how behaviour changes as the individual responds to the environment. Therefore case studies are considered as idiographic studies which tend to be holistic, descriptive and naturalistic. A further strong support for using the case study was found in Guba and Lincoln's (1981 pp.375-376) work which is summarised below:
First, the case study deals with the issues in depth and provides a 'thick description' which is considered to be important for 'transferability judgements'.

Second, unlike the traditional deductive process of data collection, the case study abandons a priori hypotheses and prespecified frameworks to fit data in. The case study facilitates the researcher in understanding the participants' perspectives in the natural setting. Thus the theory begins to be grounded in the data obtained from the instructional and learning milieu. "Ground theory is capable of, and requires, continuous expansion and refinement; when the possibility for such expansion ceases, the possibility for further study also ceases". (Lincoln and Guba 1985, p.208)

Third, the case study presents holistically an account of the participants' shared thoughts, feelings and actions in their natural language. This may enable the participants to become more aware of their own views on the teaching-learning process.

Fourth, in the case study, the researcher interprets the data and provides it for the readers in a conversation-like format.

Fifth, the case study focuses on only those issues which are more important and relevant to the participants.

Sixth, the case study allows for 'naturalistic generalisation' rather than 'scientific generalisation' which is arrived at "by recognising the similarities of objects and issues in and out of context and by sensing the natural covariations of happenings" (Stake 1978, p.6).
Examining the applicability of the methods as discussed earlier, I used a combination of different techniques to collect both quantitative and qualitative data in line with the view of Glaser and Strauss (1967) that each form of data is useful for both verification and generation of theory. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.198) there are many opportunities for the naturalistic investigator to utilise quantitative data - probably more than are appreciated.

5.4 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

It can be seen from Figure 5.5 (see p.96) that a combination of research techniques was used in the present study. Except 'audio cassette at distance' (see Section 5.4.7), each technique proved to be useful in investigating holistically the teachers' and students' thoughts and actions in the natural environment. The cross (X) indicates the application of each technique in combination on the various occasions of study. The different techniques are combined to throw light on common problems, issues and significant features of the teaching-learning process. The data collected through these techniques have been analysed and discussed in respective chapters.

A brief description of each technique follows.

5.4.1 QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire is considered as one of the main tools for data collection in 'descriptive survey'. Following the advice of de Vaus (1986) each question concentrates on the phenomenon being investigated and tries to describe, by eliciting the information from the teachers, facts, their beliefs, feelings, perceptions and preferences. Gilbert and Pope (1984) suggested that "the questionnaire and test can be used
by the 'naturalistic' researchers whose aim is description of particular cases holistically" (p.22).

To obtain relevant initial information which provided the basis for the intensive study, a questionnaire (hereafter referred to as ELTQ) was designed especially for the English language teachers at secondary school level. Its aims and results are discussed in chapter 7. It was suggested earlier that the nature of a study dictates the nature of the research methodology or techniques, hence in the questionnaire, an open- and close-ended format was used at the initial stage to explore and build up bases for the intensive study.

The ELTQ was designed bearing in mind my personal experience both as English Teacher and Teacher Educator and the experience of others with whom I held occasional discussions in Pakistan before embarking upon this study. I noticed during my discussions and informal conversations that some of the teachers seemed to be hesitant about airing their views on the issues raised. Hence, I decided to use a questionnaire first followed by interviews to collect basic information. The questionnaire used consisted of six parts in which all possible issues identified in the previous conversations were included. A space was also left in the ELTQ for the respondents to give their open responses. This was found to be advantageous particularly because it gave shy teachers, who were reluctant to open up in discussions, an opportunity to be more spontaneous about airing their views.

The issues which evolved from the questionnaire allowed me to focus on them in the interview for further investigation. The process of analysing the open responses was obviously quite complex and raised a
fundamental question of consistency of data about the classification of words and phrases without distorting the meaning. Therefore, a process was used to check the internal consistency of data (see Chapter 6). Although I was aware that having only 33% of the questions in an open-ended form may have limited the teachers' free thought responses, this level was chosen because the practical constraints on teachers' time also had to be taken into account.

5.4.2 INTERVIEW

Like the questionnaire, the interview is also considered as a major tool both in the survey and case study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) noted the value of the interview in that "it permits the respondents to move back and forth in time to reconstruct the past, interpret the present, and predict the future, all without leaving a comfortable armchair" (p.273). It helps the researcher to gain access to knowing that which is inside a person's head. By using semi-structured interviews in both survey and case study, an attempt is made to explore both the teachers' and students' perspectives holistically.

As an interviewing technique, the semi-structured interview has been considered as a 'balanced' and 'flexible' form in which both the researcher and the respondents contribute equally. Wragg (1978 p.10) remarked that "it allows respondents to express themselves at some length, but offers enough shape to prevent aimless rambling". In semi-structured interviews, the interviewer either has a written or mental note of the questions to be raised during the interview but the order and precise wording of the questions is not predetermined (Pope and Gilbert 1984).
I used the semi-structured interview with a view that both researcher and respondents have the opportunity to discuss openly, freely and clearly. The semi-structured nature of the interview allows the participants to introduce perspectives which may not have been revealed in more structured format (Denicolo 1985).

Interview techniques have been said to be useful at the preliminary stage of hypothesis or problem formulation (Zubir 1983). It has the advantage that the qualitative data collected through interview are supportive in interpreting the quantitative data. The participants were interviewed individually as well as in groups. The group interviews allowed information to be validated through the member-checking procedure.

5.4.3 REPERTORY GRID

Kelly developed a psychological theory about how people make sense of themselves and the world around them which is known as 'the Psychology of Personal Constructs' (Kelly 1955). This theory is formally based on a fundamental postulate that 'a person's processes are psychologically channelised by the ways in which they anticipate events' and further postulated eleven corollaries (see Appendix B1).

Personal construct theory evolved around Kelly's fundamental postulate derived from the philosophical position 'constructive alternativism'. According to this, no one is a prisoner of his/her biography. But he/she is actively involved in construing his/her world in his/her own way within the range of action - 'range of convenience'. Thus each person erects a representational model of the world consisting of the
According to Kelly, all theories are hypotheses created by people. These may fit all the known facts at any particular time but eventually are replaced by a 'better' theory. In personal construct theory, a person has great importance, a view neglected in the past in behaviourist psychological theories. Kelly (1970) said "we start with a person - organisms, lower animals, and societies can wait" (p.9).

Kelly's model of Man as a scientist is not driven by instincts nor is his/her behaviour determined by the external environment. On the contrary, he/she is 'a form of motion' engaged in a process of observation, interpretation, prediction and control for developing his/her own theory. Thus each person differs from every other in their construction of events (individuality corollary). If the member of a group employs a construction of experience which is similar to that employed by another, his processes are psychologically similar to those of the other person (commonality corollary) (Kelly 1970, p.20). Ben-Peretz (1984, p.104) maintained that this "theory permits the in-depth investigation of construct systems of individuals as well as comparison between individuals and between groups".

It is Kelly's stress on the personal nature of meaning and the elevation of the person to the central focus of inquiry that aligns him with much of contemporary theorising on education generally and especially the teaching-learning process. To Kelly, teaching and learning, as a process of negotiating between the joint experimenters in the venture, can only be understood by reference to the curriculum users' - teachers
inner reactions - their systems of personal constructs. Pope (1980a, p.18) said that these issues were central to Kelly's view on research and led to the development of his repertory grid technique which was described by Fransella and Bannister (1977) thus:

It is an attempt to stand in the other's shoes, to see their world and as they see it, to understand their situation, their concerns.

(Fransella and Bannister 1977, p.7)

Repertory grid is a highly flexible technique (Pope 1980b, Beail 1985). It has variable applications, but its main use has been to investigate constructs about inanimate objects, events and situations. As my concern was to identify and understand teachers' perceptions on teaching methods and their role in terms of their 'theories-in-use' and to understand what are the discrepancies between teachers' 'theories-in-use' and 'action', repertory grids were used to understand teachers' personal theories. These were further classified in the light of the scheme produced by Fox (1983).

Bannister and Fransella (1986) suggested that "a grid is a way of getting an individual to tell you... the coherent picture they (participants) have" (p.48). Nash (1973), in his study, considered it to be a powerful method to explore the individuals' constructs.

Although I was aware of the administration problems of the repertory grid, I was also convinced that it "yields valuable data in a variety of contexts" (Beail 1985). In order to enter into the teacher's personal world, the repertory grid was found to be an effective and reflective technique. The process and analysis are discussed in Chapter 6 and results are mainly presented in Chapters 8, 9 and 10.
5.4.4 OBSERVATION

The main purpose of observation was to identify the practical problems which hinder the teachers in putting their intentions into practice and to identify how they resolve the practical problems in their daily routines.

Day (1984) suggests that "if they [researchers] are to achieve success, they must be prepared not only to talk with teachers about practice, but to observe teachers in their behavioural settings" (p.73). Two types of observation were used: participant and non-participant. The study was heavily reliant on participant observation; however, the latter type of observation was used as complementary when and where required. My role as observer in different situations was in accordance with Schatzman and Strauss (1973). They identified four types of role of the observer: passive presence, limited interaction, action control, observer as participant. These were interchangeably used in the present study.

Becker (1971, p.26) defined participant observation as a method of gathering data in which the researcher participates in the events, activity or daily life of the group or organisation he is studying. He joins in the activities and at the same time watches the group to see what situations they meet and how they behave in such situations (p.26). On the other hand, the non-participant observer stands aloof from the group activities being investigated and eschews group membership.

My own view concurs with Baily (1978, p.220) in that "in a natural setting it is difficult for the researcher who wishes to be covert not to act as participant".
In the present study, participant observation offered me the opportunity to establish a quick rapport with the participants and to become a member of their group. This also enabled me to gain insights into their practical problems encountered in the classroom. Conversely, non-participant observation permitted me to observe specific events or classroom interruptions from 'the outside'. Baily (1978) described four advantages of participant observation; out of the four I consider three to be relevant to my study. These are summarised below.

1. The investigator is able to discern ongoing behaviour as it occurs and is able to make appropriate notes about its silent features.
2. The researcher can develop a more intimate and informal relationship with the participants.
3. Observation takes place in the natural environment.

In the phenomenological framework adopted, structured observation [e.g. Flanders (1970) and Bales (1950)] was deemed to be inappropriate.

5.4.5 STIMULATED RECALL PROCEDURE

A growth in research on teachers' 'interactive' thoughts and decision-making has led to the use of the research technique called 'stimulated recall'. According to Calderhead (1981), stimulated recall provides a means of collecting teachers' retrospective reports of their thought processes. Hence, this technique has been employed in this study to give an account of teachers' descriptions of their decision-making about teaching-learning activities in the classroom. Audio recorded lessons were replayed in order to stimulate a commentary upon the teachers' thought processes at the time. The main purpose of this was to identify discrepancies in teachers' thoughts and actions, the factors
which hinder them in putting intentions into practice and to identify what 'coping strategies' they use to deal with their daily problems.

5.4.6 PERSONAL FIELD NOTE BOOK

The personal field note book was used to take notes during interviews and observation. This allowed me to make quick comments on the teachers' and students' views, to gain more information and to validate further my personal interpretations of the teachers' views. If I had omitted to keep a field note book I would have lost a great deal of valuable data, for example unexpected events which caused classroom interruption. I also noted discussions with other teachers at tea time related to my study or general area of interest in education. In addition, I recorded personal daily problems while observing or interviewing the participants and prepared a brief summary of everyday activities.

5.4.7 AUDIO CASSETTE AT DISTANCE

The audio cassette was used to revisit the participants at a distance. The main aim of using this technique was to address some additional issues which came out during the analysis of data of the main study and elicit teachers' reactions and further reflections. Financial constraints did not allow me to revisit Pakistan for further data collection. Researchers such as Kaikumba (1986) and Kaikumba and Cryer (1987) suggested the use of the audio cassette in such situations to collect relevant information from the respondents at a distance in the naturalistic setting. Following their advice I sent out 30 blank audio cassettes to the respondents along with the covering letter (Appendix B2) and 'checklist' (Appendix B3) containing open questions. Only 18
cassettes were received back intermittently and over a long period. As with all techniques, this one has advantages and disadvantages.

The problems that I found with this technique are outlined here to alert others who might consider it for their research.

(i) Five of the eighteen returned tapes were found to be blank on their arrival, although the participants reported that they had recorded on them. This may have been due to customs clearance procedures.

(ii) Although three other teachers spoke on the tape, the volume of recording was such that it made replay and listening very difficult. This may reflect their inexperience with the technology or practical difficulties.

(iii) In using this technique, I had expected teachers to record their views in a natural mood in their leisure time but nine of the cassettes contained two voices, one asking questions, the other responding, which made the situation more formal than intended, and probably less 'spontaneous'.

(iv) The majority of the teachers pointed out that they had no recording machines nor money for buying batteries to get their views recorded as desired. Those who pointed out the above problem were provided with a recording machine and batteries via a friend of mine in Pakistan.

Fortunately, I used this technique to provide additional rather than essential data. Bearing the above problems in mind, I would not recommend this technique for the collection of the main or important data for a study, especially one with time limits.
5.4.8 TEACHER'S DIARY

Some teachers were provided with diaries and were asked to maintain these throughout the academic year. The purpose of using teachers' diaries was to collect information on the practical problems that they experience daily and the strategies used to cope with the situations. This technique enabled me to support my previous observations and identification of the significant features of their teaching-learning process.

5.4.9 DOCUMENTS ANALYSIS

Relevant information was collected from the government and from semi-government departments' documents such as minutes of meetings, annual examination results, policies and plans. This information also provided a historical perspective of the teaching of English and its process of curriculum development.

The following chapter will describe and discuss the plan and strategy of the main study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESEARCH QUESTIONS</th>
<th>QUESTIONNAIRE</th>
<th>OPEN ENDED AND CLOSED</th>
<th>INTERVIEW INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP</th>
<th>REPERTORY</th>
<th>FIELD NOTE BOOK</th>
<th>OBSERVATION</th>
<th>PARTICIPANT AND NON-PARTICIPANT</th>
<th>STIMULATED</th>
<th>AUDIO CASSETTE</th>
<th>DISTANCE</th>
<th>TEACHER</th>
<th>DIARY</th>
<th>DOCUMENTATION</th>
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<tr>
<td>What are teachers' perceptions of the objectives in the existing EACL curriculum and in their ideal curriculum for each?</td>
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<td>How do teachers and students view the content of the curriculum?</td>
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<td>What are the students' perceptions of learning English?</td>
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<td>What are the students' perceptions of their learning approaches in relation to their teachers' teaching styles?</td>
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<td>How do teachers experience practical problems encountered while translating curriculum into practice and how do they resolve them in the uncertain situation?</td>
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<td>To what extent do teachers perceive their professional craft skills to be relevant to implementing curriculum innovation?</td>
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<td>How do the teachers view their teaching?</td>
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<td>What is the extent of the teachers' knowledge and experience of using the range of current English teaching methods and what is their conception of these methods?</td>
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<td>How effective do teachers perceive the methods in improving the teaching-learning process?</td>
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<td>How do teachers perceive their role as English teachers in classroom practice?</td>
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<td>How do teachers view their participation in the curriculum development process?</td>
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Figure 5.5 COMBINATION OF RESEARCH TECHNIQUES USED TO CROSS-CHECK THE INFORMATION ON CURRICULUM CHANGE PROBLEMS

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CHAPTER SIX

PLANNING THE MAIN STUDY:
THE PROCEDURE OF DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

In the naturalistic inquiry, planning and implementation go hand in hand, and usually the plans cannot be completed in time for the next operational steps that must be taken.

(Lincoln and Guba 1985, p.287)

6.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter I described the rationale for selecting a naturalistic inquiry and its adherent methods and techniques underlying an illuminative methodological stance for data collection. This chapter describes the plan (Section 6.1) and strategy of the main study. As the study proceeded, an 'emergent research design model' developed. This is described and the procedure involved in using each technique for data gathering is given. A brief account of the various socio-cultural constraints experienced during the fieldwork is also included.

6.1 FIELD WORK PLAN

The final shape of the main study in Pakistan is presented in figure 6.1 overleaf.

6.1.1 NEGOTIATING RESEARCH CONTRACTS

6.1.1.1 CORRESPONDENCE AT A DISTANCE

A copy of the introductory letter (see Appendix C 1) was sent in May 1986 to the head of each of a total of 20 government secondary schools (some for each sex in both urban and rural areas in Karachi) requesting
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>NUMBER OF WEEKS</th>
<th>PHASE</th>
<th>FIELD WORK ACTIVITIES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.10.1986</td>
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<td>I</td>
<td>* Seeking permission from school administration and negotiating the research contracts with the participants.</td>
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<td>* Repiloting and administering the ELT questionnaire with teachers to explore first hand issues related to curriculum change.</td>
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<td>* Repiloting other research techniques such as: interview, observation, repertory grid.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>* Collecting questionnaire and sending first reminder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* Conducting interviews with teachers, students, heads and educationists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.11.1986</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>* Collecting questionnaire and sending second reminder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* Using repertory grid 1 on teaching methods and grid 2 on the teacher's role in order to identify teachers' theories of action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.12.1987</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>* Appreciating teachers' perspective:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a) using observation, interview and stimulated recall to elicit how teachers translate externally developed innovation into practice and their understanding of its impact on the classroom milieu;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b) identifying the practical problems associated with curriculum change and understanding how teachers resolve them in their classroom practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.1.1987</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Eliciting further information regarding problems of curriculum change via teachers' diary and audio tape at a distance for understanding teachers' systems of thought in more depth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to 24.12.1987</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
them to allow me to observe the teaching-learning process in English lessons. The Director of School Education, Karachi, granted permission which was subsequently communicated via District Education Officers (for each sex) to the heads of the schools concerned (see Appendix C 2). Despite this, the heads of the female rural schools did not allow me entry to the all female schools because of social constraints (Section 6.8).

6.1.1.2 INFORMAL MEETINGS WITH THE HEADS AND TEACHERS

Informal meetings were arranged with the heads and teachers separately. During each of these meetings, I described the main purpose of my study and assured them that strict confidentiality and anonymity would be maintained. They did agree that individual cases might be presented in the study with fictitious names (see Chapters 8, 9 and 10) to give some flavour of the social and cultural context.

Those who agreed to participate in the study communicated with their heads of schools who provided a copy of their time table and arranged private space for the research activities (this was mostly science laboratories which were not ideal places for conducting interviews owing to the smell of chemicals). While talking to teachers, I gained the impression that some of them were reluctant to let me observe their classes because they had already been victims of official visits. Given this situation, I made it clear that being a researcher I had no intention of assessing their performance but simply wished to facilitate them, as an 'honest broker', in negotiating a possible alternative framework which may improve curriculum and instructional processes in English. Care was taken to create minimum disturbance during lesson
time by setting up the recording machine early and leaving quickly and quietly at the end of the sessions.

In each school, the headmaster allowed me to attend their school assemblies, meetings and other ritual ceremonies. I also had the opportunity to discuss with the teachers during their free time various educational issues generally and particularly the enhancement of professionalism in the schools, and raising the standards of education. This allowed me entry to the group and to gain the confidence of the participants.

Teachers agreed to allow me to introduce myself and the purpose of the visit to their classes so that I could also negotiate my research contracts with the students. I felt that it would be helpful if I mentioned to them the purpose of the research so that a better rapport could be established. They were told that my aim was to investigate and understand curriculum change issues and their impact on classroom processes with regard to TEACL as well as to understand their perspective on teaching and learning approaches. They were also told that I would be grateful if they would come forward with their plans and suggestions for the improvement of the curriculum and instructional processes. It was made clear that I would not be assessing or judging their abilities but only exploring with strict confidentiality the possibilities of improving the existing situation. As a result many students presented their names voluntarily.

6.2 EMERGENT RESEARCH DESIGN

As the inquiry proceeded, new issues emerged which led to the continued development of the research design (see Figure 6.2). As the inquiry
Figure 6.2 An emergent research design model (after Schwab 1973 and Parlett and Deurden 1977)
moved from one phase to another, salient issues began to emerge, and theory began to be grounded in the data obtained and gradually became more and more focused in the latter phases. Lincoln and Guba (1985) noted:

Indeed, there is no end to an emergent design; it seems likely that any naturalistic investigation could be continued indefinitely, since it will continually dredge up new questions and insights worth pursuing.

(p.2)

After having negotiated the research contracts with the participants, I identified the target population for both my initial survey and my case study. The 'purposive sampling' procedure was used in line with that of Cohen and Manion (1985). Thus 305 teachers (see Figure 6.3) were selected from four major metropolitan cities of Pakistan - Karachi, Quetta, Lahore, and Peshawar for using the questionnaire.

It is worth mentioning here that from the analysis of the questionnaire identical issues relating to curriculum change and teachers' concerns were identified in all the cities in which the same English language curriculum is taught. As the students and teachers also have a similar mix of socio-cultural backgrounds in all four cities, I decided to select only one city, i.e. Karachi, and further restricted the sample within this city so that the sample chosen would be relatively easily accessible (Denicolo 1985). The choice of Karachi was for the following two reasons:

(a) Karachi is an industrial city, hence many people have migrated from other parts of Pakistan to settle and earn their livelihood there.
### Figure 6.3

#### Details of Survey Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>Source of Administering Questionnaire</th>
<th>Number of Questionnaire Distributed</th>
<th>Rate of Response (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male: Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIND</td>
<td>KARACHI</td>
<td>Personally Administered</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BALUCHISTAN</td>
<td>QUETTA</td>
<td>Mailed</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUNJAB</td>
<td>LAHORE</td>
<td>Mailed</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NORTH WEST</td>
<td>PESHAWAR</td>
<td>Mailed</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Details of Questionnaire returned: 65 (43%) 48 (73.8%) 113 (52%) 26 (45%) 157 18 44 157 -
(b) In Karachi, being my residence and a former work place, it was easy to approach the teachers, most of whom already knew me both as an English Teacher and Teacher Educator.

At the outset 17 teachers who had voluntarily agreed to participate in the study were observed teaching. The sample was then further reduced to 9 teachers because 4 teachers were transferred and posted to other schools, 3 went on leave preparatory to retirement, and 1 was suspended owing to malpractice in an annual examination.

During the preliminary observation, it was realised that the time of travel between each school would be excessive if all 9 teachers' teaching behaviour were studied. Therefore, it was decided to reduce the sample further to 6 teachers who had different teaching experience and whose pedagogical perspectives fell equally between 'transmission' and 'interpretation' perspectives. Out of the 6, two teachers (male and female, one experienced and one probationer holding the 'interpretation' and 'transmission' style of teaching perspective respectively), are presented as individual detailed case studies (see Chapters 8 and 9). The other four teachers are presented in one combined case study (Chapter 10).

6.3 PROCEDURE INVOLVED IN USING MAIN RESEARCH TECHNIQUES FOR DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

6.3.1 PILOTING RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

Since finances allowed no more than one research visit to Pakistan, only the questionnaire could be piloted in advance there. The other techniques were piloted in England with Pakistani teachers who had taught in Pakistan previously. Discussion with both my supervisors and
research fellows in the department on the practical problems which arose during piloting enabled me to get prompt feedback and refine these techniques accordingly.

6.3.2 PROCESS OF DESIGNING AND PILOTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The English language teachers' (ELT) questionnaire was designed especially for teachers who had been involved in TEACL in secondary schools in Pakistan to gather relevant information. Before designing the ELT questionnaire, a review of the literature was done in order to design an appropriate questionnaire which could be used in the present study to overcome the problem of reliability and validity as suggested by Kerlinger (1969). Using this and my own previous experience of questionnaire design (Memon 1978), I prepared a first draft which was mailed out in May 1986 to 16 teachers in different schools in Karachi, accompanied by a detailed covering letter (see Appendix C 3) and 'evaluation sheet' (Appendix C 4). In order to avoid any undue delay in returns, two teachers, one male and one female, were requested to pilot the questionnaire on my behalf. After two months all copies were received back and the ELT questionnaire was revised and improved in the light of this feedback. However, it was repiloted in line with Oppenheim (1976) to remove any ambiguity which might arise after rewording some of the questions.

6.3.3 PROCESS OF ADMINISTERING THE ELT QUESTIONNAIRE

The final draft of the ELT questionnaire accompanied by the covering letter (Appendix C 5) was administered in four major cities (see Figure 6.3, p.104). In Karachi, these were personally distributed. In the other cities, the questionnaire along with the 'covering' and 'personal' letters were sent to friends who agreed to administer it. In each case
a reminder was distributed after 3 weeks. It may be noted here that similar social constraints in relation to having access to female teachers were experienced in all four cities. The rate of return was 51.5%. O'Muircheartaigh (1977) suggested that one of the main reasons for low response in such surveys was that the respondents were not under any obligation to cooperate with the researcher. However, an attempt was made to identify the 'sources of non-response' for this particular study.

6.3.4 SOURCES OF NON-RESPONSE

1. **Teachers not at schools**: The teachers were not present in their schools when visited for collection of their questionnaires.

2. **Teachers not at home**: As per schedule, I went to collect the questionnaire at their homes, but most of them were not present.

3. **Non-co-operation of the heads of schools**: The non-co-operation of the heads also affected the response rate.

4. **Unawareness about research**: Owing to lack of research in the education sector in Pakistan, teachers were unaware of the importance of research.

5. **Lost questionnaire**: Many of the teachers reported at the last minute that they had lost their questionnaire.

6. **Teachers' reluctance to hand over their questionnaire to their heads**: For a variety of reasons teachers wanted to give their completed questionnaire back directly rather than hand it over to their heads. The majority of these eventually posted it to me.
7. Postal problems: Most of the teachers informed me that they had posted their questionnaire, but only 9 out of 49 were received. In this connection a complaint was made to the postal authorities in Pakistan, with the result that a further 5 were traced.

6.3.5. ANALYSIS OF THE ELT QUESTIONNAIRE

The closed questions of the questionnaire were post-coded to analyse by 'SPSS-X' and 'MINITAB' computer programs. The open questions were analysed and illuminated with quotations from the responses given by teachers, the categories being derived from the data.

6.4 INTERVIEWS WITH THE TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Each teacher was interviewed (see Figure 6.4) once in the survey and twice in the case study, each instance being audio-recorded with their prior permission. In addition, group interviews were conducted. Each interview varied in terms of time. The duration of the first interview was 30 to 35 minutes. The second lasted for 60 to 90 minutes. Each group interview lasted for 90 to 120 minutes. The students were also interviewed in a group of 5. Each group was interviewed twice. The duration of the first group interview was 30 to 40 minutes and the second was 45 to 60 minutes. To avoid any interruption in the normal running of classes, interviews were conducted either in a 'free period' or 'after school' in the science laboratories. Each interview was terminated before the participants displayed any fatigue, and I summarised the participants' views so that they could check and make comments on my interpretations or add to or withdraw any information.
**FIGURE 6.4 SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWS WITH THE PARTICIPANTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATUS OF THE PARTICIPANTS</th>
<th>NATURE OF THE INTERVIEW</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>URBAN</td>
<td>RURAL</td>
<td>URBAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECONDARY ENGLISH TEACHERS</td>
<td>INDIVIDUAL (SEMI-STRUCTURED)</td>
<td>28R</td>
<td>14R</td>
<td>9R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GROUP INTERVIEW</td>
<td>3R</td>
<td>2R</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STUDENTS</td>
<td>GROUP INTERVIEW</td>
<td>6R</td>
<td>6R</td>
<td>6R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEADS OF SCHOOLS</td>
<td>INDIVIDUAL (SEMI-STRUCTURED)</td>
<td>11R</td>
<td>2R</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDUCATIONISTS</td>
<td>INDIVIDUAL (SEMI-STRUCTURED)</td>
<td>11NR</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3NR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**KEY**

- R = Recorded
- NR = Not Recorded

TOTAL = 131
This communication validation process allowed me to seek clarification of many issues on which the participants either intentionally or unintentionally avoided shedding light.

My own home was chosen as a venue for the teachers 'group interviews' by agreement, to give a relaxed atmosphere. During refreshments I had a general chat. After this I described the main purpose of the interview and requested them to consider the following rules during the interview:

- They should not hesitate to express their views on the problems under discussion.
- If they disagreed with their fellows they should justify their remarks
- Any comments should be constructive.

Thus a friendly atmosphere was created through mutual understanding and co-operation. Each member was encouraged to contribute equally in the interview. During the group interview I chose my role as a 'facilitator' or 'moderator' which allowed me to probe deeply into the discussion and to open new relevant dimensions of the research problem. The participants were asked to give their names or code numbers (e.g. Mr.A) before they spoke, which enabled me to identify individual views during transcription.

One of the teachers commented:

This was my first experience of a group interview. I thought that being a beginning teacher, I might not be able to speak in the presence of the experienced teachers...But the situation you created enabled me to share my own experience and concern with all my colleagues... I really enjoyed and also learned from others' experiences.

(Male urban teacher: 21)
All interviews were listened to several times. Those used in the case studies were fully transcribed. For the others, only relevant parts were recorded in writing and dealt with qualitatively in the study. The categories were derived from the data rather than imposed on it, preferably using participants' own words later translated from Sindhi and Urdu. Since Sindhi is my mother tongue and Urdu is the national language, I had no difficulty in understanding these except in one or two very minor instances. However, to check validity, checks of the translations were made by some individuals who had a good command of all these languages.

6.5 REPERTORY GRIDS

Repertory grid 1 was used with 17 teachers and repertory grid 2 with 14 teachers to elicit their perceptions on teaching methods (grid 1) and teachers' role (grid 2). The elements of both grids were elicited from the teachers' 'Elements Elicitation Interviews'. I decided to organise a 'practical orientation session' for 20 male teachers. Out of 20, 12 male teachers attended the session (the female urban teachers were invited and given separate practice of completing grids). The date, time and venue were selected in consultation with all teachers. Subsequently, the heads were requested to allow the teachers concerned to attend the session for one day.

6.5.1 PURPOSES OF ORIENTATION SESSION

This session was centred around four purposes:

(a) describing the purpose and the theoretical bases of the grids;

(b) negotiating the common sets of elements of the repertory grids (1 & 2);
After describing the aim of the repertory grid, I presented them with a list of elements for each grid which had already been elicited in their individual interviews. In grid 1, teachers added one more element - 'situational language teaching' (E5) and in grid 2, teachers added two more elements - 'to motivate the students for teaching English' (E1) and 'to make lesson planning interesting' (E3). Thus 9 common elements were produced for each grid. Care was taken to ensure that each element of both grids was well known and personally meaningful to the participants and representatives of the 'universe of discourse' which was central to the problem area under investigation (Shaw 1980).

6.5.2 PRACTICE OF COMPLETING DUMMY GRID

The teachers were offered two possible ways of completing the grids. In the first, participants completed a small dummy grid using cards of different colours, and in the second they wrote their constructs on the 'grid form' without using cards. Then they completed a grid on a sample subject which gave them practice and allowed for any questions.

6.5.3 THE GRID ELICITATION PROCESS

An in depth discussion of grid elicitation can be found in Pope (1980b). The following is a summary of my own fieldwork. The elements which had been negotiated in the 'practical orientation session' were written down in the grid form as E1....E9. Then the constructs were elicited using 'minimum context form' known as the 'triadic method' which is closest to Kelly's (1955) theory. This was done by offering the participants a randomly derived list of triads in which each participant was presented with three elements and asked in what way two of them were alike and
thereby different from the third. Each construct was elicited using the 'laddering' procedure (Hinkle 1965).

Each respondent was asked to give both the emergent pole (i.e. the way in which two of them were alike) and the implicit pole (i.e. what made the single element distinct from the pair). This construct was then recorded in the grid form. The participants were then asked to rate three elements on a five point scale and record their allotted values in the grid form. Applying the same process, the respondents were asked to rate the rest of the elements on construct 1. Help was provided to each participant, facilitating them to understand the process of completing grids. Thus a range of constructs, from 6 to 8, were elicited in each grid. For each construct, I checked whether my participants were happy with their labels for the constructs and the ratings: they were informed that they could change the name of the constructs or values of the ratings if they were not happy. This procedure allowed the participants to reconstrue their systems of meaning.

Thus both the grids (1 and 2) were completed individually (see specimen of raw grid for female urban teacher 1 at Appendix C 6) based on the 'conversational' and 'interactive' approach which permitted several checks throughout the period of construct elicitation. The conversation with each teacher was audio-recorded. During this conversation, each participant was encouraged to justify their constructs for the particular purpose of each grid. Thus the 'conversational approach' allowed me to focus their attention on the problem and not on my own ideas.

Zubir (1983) described her own experience:
The use of a conversational approach to grid elicitation, though highly enriching, consumed a lot of time... However, time consuming though it was, this is, I think, the best way to elicit personally valid constructs and ratings.

(p.320)

This emphasised for me that this method enabled me to understand the participants' personal meaning system at length, and on the other hand, it allowed the participants to reconstrue their personal construct system as they gradually became aware of the facts.

Each teacher took from two-and-a-half to three hours to complete the grid. Many teachers enjoyed the session and felt that they learnt about themselves. As one of the participants remarked:

My goodness what a job I'm doing! It was so exhausting, time consuming and mental exercise... I learnt a lot about myself... At the outset, I misunderstood that this would be like some sort of objective test aimed to assess my professional knowledge... But it was found rather a different tool. On the whole, I found it an interesting exercise in stimulating my thoughts and personal awareness of the problem.

(Male rural teacher 5)

6.5.4 ANALYSIS OF THE REPERTORY GRIDS

The grids were analysed using the FOCUS computer program (Shaw 1982). Each grid was analysed using the two-way cluster analytic technique which re-orders systematically the rows of the constructs and columns of elements to produce a FOCUSed grid showing the least variation between adjacent constructs and adjacent elements. The relationships between clusterings are represented in the form of a tree diagram for both elements and constructs (see Chapters 8 and 9).
Further I was also interested in exploring the similarities and differences in construing between female and male teachers (see Chapter 10). For this purpose, the raw grids of each group were analysed using the SOCIOGRAPIDS computer program (Shaw 1982). The sociogrids aim to investigate commonality of construing within a group. This technique is close to Kelly's commonality corollary.

6.5.5. FEEDBACK TO PARTICIPANTS

After analysing all the FOCUSed grids, I sent the results of grids 1 and 2 to the participants along with my observations on their grids. Pope (1987) suggested that every possible effort should be made to write up comments in non-technical and simple language for feedback and to help elicit reflections on the feedback (Personal communication). Each part of the FOCUSed grid was clearly displayed and labelled.

A detailed covering letter for each grid containing guidelines for writing the comments (see Appendices C 7 and C 8) on the feedback sheet (Appendix C 9) or for writing any additional construct on the 'blank grid form' along with my observations (see specimen at Appendix C 10) were sent to teachers in May 1987. After 2 months, a reminder was sent. As a result, some of them sent their written comments on the feedback sheet which revealed close agreement with my own observations.

One of them commented:

...I agreed with your comments...It facilitated me to become aware myself about my role which I prefer to play, but owing to contextual factors I'm unable to do so... I found a little bit of discrepancy between your interpretation and mine but these were not significant, hence I don't emphasise here...

(Female urban teacher 1)
The process of feedback to teachers on their grids was in line with Ben-Peretz (1984, p.104) who said that "teachers are, by nature of their profession, in a situation of constantly forecasting events, attempting to validate idiosyncratic construct frameworks; this constitutes teachers' learning in the context of their profession". One of the advantages of the feedback was that it made teachers aware of their own construing patterns and processes which may play an important role in changing their beliefs towards an improvement of the teaching-learning process.

6.6 PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION IN THE CLASSROOM

During observation, an attempt was made to understand how teachers make sense of the innovation in the 'cultural milieu', and to investigate further the factors which hinder the process of implementing innovation successfully. An attempt was also made to make it easier for the teachers to offer their comments on the teaching-learning process after each of the observations, since it was a time consuming exercise for them.

6.6.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE TEACHING PHASES

In the pre-active phase a procedure known as 'protocol analysis' (Calderhead 1984) was used with teachers to help them verbalise their covert thoughts while planning the instructional activities of their teaching. (See Chapters 8, 9 and 10).

In the inter-active phase of teaching, each lesson was audio-recorded and played back to teachers to help them recall their thoughts at the time using the 'stimulated recall procedure' (see Chapter 5) and to stimulate a commentary on their past thinking during the pre-active
phase (see Appendix D 1). Although I was aware that the audio-recorded lessons might not be as helpful as video recordings, lack of resources and finances meant that I was restricted to this method.

One difficulty of using this technique was that the teachers took a long time to recall their thinking and relate it to events which occurred in the classroom. In spite of that, the audio-recording did not only allow me to understand the teachers' perspective on thinking and practice but also provided me with valuable insights into their mode of teaching and the inherent practical problems of innovation. Each teacher appeared to be defending their actions, seemingly 'wrong' ones were blamed on the 'system'. The probationary teachers blamed their 'professional training' as 'unrealistic' and 'impracticable'.

In the post-active phase, the teachers described their short term plans and new strategies for overcoming their daily problems. In practice, they appeared to be 'helpless' and 'unguided' in achieving the aims of their daily planning.

Once the general flow of the lessons observed had been thoroughly assimilated, the main pedagogical functions (PF) which took place in the classroom were identified. Further, the frequency of occurrence of the pedagogical functions in ten selected (observed) lessons was noted and graphed (see specimen at Appendix D 2 and Chapters 8, 9 and 10). Each lesson presented a holistic view of classroom reality.

In addition, general features of the observed lessons were also discussed in each case study. While observing the classroom processes, several unexpected events took place which had quite significant effects
on the daily teaching-learning process. The duration and frequency of occurrence of each event had been recorded, so it was possible to note the effects of disruptions.

6.7 TEACHERS' DAILY DIARY

The 6 teachers who maintained their diaries over the academic year described their daily experiences and problems faced in their teaching while translating innovative curriculum into practice. This identified the increased dissatisfaction with their role, which led to a gap developing between their intentions and practice.

The analysis of the diaries was carried out by highlighting the main areas such as the nature of the problems and teachers' coping strategies to resolve them in their daily routine (see Chapters 8, 9 and 10).

6.8 INFLUENCE OF SOCIO-CULTURAL CONSTRAINTS ON THE STUDY AND PLANNING STRATEGY TO OVERCOME THEM

As mentioned earlier, I experienced some socio-cultural problems while doing field work for this study. The main influence of such constraints on the research were:

(a) The number of female schools in both urban and rural areas compared with male schools was very low. This is a general social phenomenon in developing countries. However, an attempt was made to select teachers from all female urban and rural schools to legitimise the results.

(b) While the controlling educational authority granted permission for the fieldwork, this overlooked a potential problem of social and religious values (eg that a strange male cannot talk to females directly). As a male researcher I was not allowed to
approach the female teachers directly either to distribute the questionnaire, conduct interviews or use repertory grids. However, a compromise was reached in urban female schools.

(c) The headmistresses of urban and rural female schools were pleased to take responsibility for distributing the questionnaire among their staff, but the rate of return was still low.

(d) When considering my request, the headmistresses of the female urban schools agreed to allow me to conduct interviews and use repertory grids in their presence, but the teachers seemed to be unhappy with this decision. A better alternative was that I could bring my wife with me and she could sit with them during the research activities. The female participants were assured that my wife would not in any way disclose their views and I would be responsible for all matters. Consequently, 6 female urban teachers voluntarily co-operated in this study. One of the female teachers commented on the way the interview was conducted:

Well, it was really the best way you invented to conduct the interview with the female teachers... At the outset, I felt awkward to talk to a strange male, but as the interview proceeded I completely forgot that I was talking to... Your questions were so inspiring and stimulating that I should have to share my views, experience and knowledge with you for this sort of constructive work which was a need of teachers.

(Female Urban Teacher 2)

The strategies described in this chapter were implemented in the main study to gather relevant information. This will be addressed in the case studies (Chapters 8, 9 and 10) but, in the next chapter, the initial survey is discussed which describes first hand curriculum issues affecting the teaching-learning process in EACL at secondary school level.
...curricular innovations are frequently misunderstood by 'consumers' of the education system, they are either resisted, ignored or misrepresented. Changes in curricula in developing countries are simply applications of experiences in curriculum development in Europe and America. Curriculum is often made without the provision of necessary complementarities, such as teachers, textbooks, and physical resources.


7.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is an attempt to explore and describe the first hand issues associated with curriculum change, which have significant bearing on the fate of 'received innovative doctrines' and are expected to be executed in the classroom. The findings drawn from the initial survey served as a basis for generating 'working hypotheses' [Geer (1969) and Thomaz (1986)] from which an intensive study could be developed. This is presented as an holistic view of innovation, and an attempt is made to understand the practical problems faced by both teachers and learners when innovative doctrines are implemented.


Before I give an account of the different aspects of teaching innovation, it is necessary to present the findings of a previous study in Pakistan which are relevant to this study. The survey used a 'questionnaire' with 130 English teachers and was conducted by a semi-government agency - the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education,
This survey concluded that the standards of TEACL had deteriorated considerably and further identified eight decisive factors which are described below in descending order.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS</th>
<th>RANK ORDER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Student teacher ratio (overcrowded classes)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Ineffective teaching instruction</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Irrelevant content of textbooks</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Inadequate INSET programme</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) Syllabus bound teaching</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) Lack of importance of English</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) Lack of sufficient teaching time</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h) Frequent use of ready-made guides and notes</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are all common findings reported not only with reference to the developing countries, but many of them, such as inappropriate instructional technology, curriculum material and syllabus-bound teaching, are cited in the curriculum implementation literature with reference to developed countries also (see Olson 1980). In the following Section the factors influencing the process of the existing curriculum translation into practice are identified in the present survey and compared with the previous survey (1974).

7.1.1 COMPARISON OF THE FACTORS IDENTIFIED IN THE GOVERNMENT SURVEY AND PRESENT INITIAL SURVEY

The teachers responding to the open-ended question of the ELT questionnaire mentioned the following influential factors which affected
the process of curriculum implementation. These factors have been compared with the survey (1974) (see Section 7.1) to describe how the existing situation has further deteriorated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS AFFECTING TEACHING LEARNING PROCESS</th>
<th>RANKS IN DESCENDING ORDER</th>
<th>N = 130</th>
<th>N = 157</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Student-teacher ratio (overcrowded)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Ineffective teaching instruction</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Irrelevant content of textbooks</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Inadequate INSET programme</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) Syllabus-bound teaching</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) Lack of importance of English</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) Lack of sufficient teaching time</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h) Frequent use of ready-made guides and notes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Lack of conceptual understanding of teaching methods</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(j) Mismatch between desired goals of teaching and actual demands of examinations</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(k) Mismatch between teachers' intentions and practice</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(l) Lack of supportive mechanism at classroom level</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(m) Lack of teachers' participation in curriculum development</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n) Lack of specialised teachers</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(o) Heavy reliance on imported educational innovation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worth mentioning here that the present survey has re-identified the decisive factors except (f), lack of importance of English, and thus confirmed the previous factors affecting the teaching-learning process. However, these factors now receive lower ranks except (d), inadequate INSET programme and (e), syllabus-bound teaching, which were ranked 8 and 9 in the present survey. In addition, the present survey has identified and added seven more determinant factors, all of which receiving high ranks. This is evidence that these new factors bear a higher influence on the teaching-learning process than the previous ones. Above all, this suggests that since 1974, the situation appears
to have deteriorated considerably. Further, a study conducted by an independent group of teachers and educationists, acknowledging the deterioration of teaching English, maintained in their report (1985):

The causes for the deterioration in the standard of English: absence of a clear language policy by the government in regard to English; the course content does not meet the needs of the students; teachers in most schools are not properly qualified or trained to teach English; with too many students in a class the teachers cannot properly check the errors in the written work of students; the expanded courses of study in science subjects and mathematics leave insufficient time for English; modern language techniques are not being adopted; secondary school students in some parts of our country have to learn four languages as against two in other countries; the habit of reading story books in English is not developed at the primary and secondary school stage.

(Better Education, 1985 p.7)

Sarwar (1985, p.8) asserted that "our students learn English for at least eight years, and yet everyone knows that by the end of their graduation [B.A, B.Sc or B.Com] they cannot write one correct sentence of English". The best example of the frustration of both the teachers and students can be seen in the results of the annual examination conducted by the Board of Secondary Education, Karachi (see figure 7.1). Compared with other subjects the pass rate in English appears to be very low. Such frustration can be attributed to the 'technocratic-bureaucratic ideology' based model of curriculum development in which both the curriculum users generally and teachers particularly have insufficient room to participate in deciding curriculum policy.

Looking at the present findings and views on the deterioration of standards of teaching, these demonstrate that the recommendations of the survey (1974) were neither implemented nor accepted by the teachers as being 'appropriate' steps. One educationist commented on the drawback of the curriculum policy thus:
FIGURE 7.1 Subject Wise Pass Percentage Results of the Secondary School Certificate Examination for the years 1984 and 1985

Source: (Graph based on the data collected from the Board of Secondary Education, Karachi)
I believe no one can understand and realise the sensitivity of the problems other than teachers facing them in their classroom milieu... As a matter of fact, half-hearted efforts are made to understand the curriculum problems with reference to the classroom... To be very frank, curriculum are always planned like 'building castles in the air'. Because the curriculum developers are allergic to understanding the contextual reality...

(Interview with educationist 2)
(Vocal emphasis)

Many more urge that the 'prescriptive model' of curriculum development has failed to facilitate the curriculum change process. This resulted in curriculum reforms which remained on 'paper' rather than in practice. The survey (1974) in its recommendations suggested that the 'guiding principles' of teaching English were:

The primary objective of teaching a second language (English)...(should be acquisition of) equal mastery of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing... no language can be considered to have been mastered if one cannot speak in or listen to it intelligently.

(Pakistan Government 1974, pp 9-10)

In practice no attention has been paid to the students' oral skills nor their testing (Mustafa 1985). This shows the mismatch between curriculum 'theory' and 'practice'. Lawton (1983, p.4) also acknowledged the dilemma of the 'bureaucratic model' of curriculum that "curriculum theory should precede curriculum planning, but in practice this is not usually what happens". One of the teachers reflected her views on the mismatch between curriculum theory and practice. She said:

I can't understand the logic of the curriculum developers that on the one hand they list down all the possible principles and aims of teaching English and propose the functional view of language teaching... On the other, they compel the teachers to follow examinations which require moderate proficiency in reading and writing... there is even no provision for testing students' listening comprehension and speaking abilities either in school or Board's exam...

(Female teacher: 05)
The male and female students expressed similar views in this respect:

I'm supposed to learn English at school so as to comprehend and communicate the message efficiently, but the present instructional system does not help me at all.

(Male Student - 03)
(Class nine)

I haven't any practice of speaking and listening to English... I wish to speak English, but it depends on our teacher and her teaching approach...

(Female Student - 08)
(Class ten)

These views explicitly suggest that until now there has been a lack of 'balanced curriculum' policy which addresses the values and expectations of both teachers and taught.

7.2 TEACHERS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING ENGLISH

As mentioned in Section 7.1.1 the Pakistan government's report (1974) indicated that among other decisive factors, the lack of importance of English was one of the major factors responsible for the deterioration of teaching English. Wilkins (1974) also suggested that:

If the social attitudes are negative (towards teaching English), the overall achievement can be relatively poor no matter how well he (the teacher) does his job. If social attitudes are positive, learning may proceed even where teaching is not particularly efficient. The achievement will be highest where attitudes and teaching together promote effective learning and lowest where attitudes are negative and teaching is weak.

(p.48)
7.2.1 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

In order to study teachers' attitude towards teaching English, the Likert scale format for rating the statements was used (see part 'B' of the questionnaire). The response of both male and female teachers was analysed by calculating the mean of the scale (see Figure 7.2). The highest mean of ratings for male teachers appear on item 21 'English is required to keep Pakistani scientists and educationists etc abreast of new knowledge' and item 20 'English is required for both written and oral examinations for the Superior Civil Services in Pakistan' is 4.78 and 4.76 respectively (Figure 7.2). This suggests that the male teachers tend to consider English as important for both 'academic' and 'professional' purposes.

On the other hand, the female teachers assign equal, high, ratings of 4.7 to 'English as a medium of communication in the interview for different jobs from grade 17 onwards' (item 14) and 'Proficiency in English is required in getting senior posts in the Navy' (item 17). It appears that the female teachers tend to consider English as an important language from the 'professional' point of view. Thus, the 'profession' appears to be a common incentive among both male and female teachers.

However, generally the mean of the ratings on the rest of the items for both male and female teachers suggest that they express a positive attitude towards the teaching of the English language.
Figure 7.2 Teachers' attitude towards teaching English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>MALE (N=113)</th>
<th>FEMALE (N=44)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English is a means of official correspondence...</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. English facilitates contacts with the world...</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. English is a medium of present and past...</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Most of the world's mass media use English.</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The study of English will improve our understanding...</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. English is a medium of professional education.</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; vocational education.</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; technical education.</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. English is a means of communicating ideas for...</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. English is spoken... by the majority of the world...</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. English is required for administrative jobs.</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. English is required for studying abroad.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. English is required in interviews for grade 8 to 16.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. English &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; grade 17 onwards.</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Proficiency in English is required for posts in banks.</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; Army.</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; Navy.</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; Air Force.</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; Private firms.</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. English is required for Civil Service exams.</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. &quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; Pakistani educationists.</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. All innovations are usually reported in English.</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Proficiency required for jobs in foreign countries.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>4.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Full statement can be seen in Section 'B' of the ELT questionnaire (Appendix C 5).
Therefore, it would seem that 'negative attitude' is not a contributory factor to the low pass rate of students in the examination nor does it hinder the process of curriculum implementation.

It would be pertinent to quote both a male and a female teacher's views which further highlighted the importance of English.

English occupies a place of pride in our education system... even illiterate persons use many words of English language in their conversation. English is subsumed in our culture, I would emphasise that English should be taught as a functional language...

(Male teacher 47)

I don't think there is controversy about teaching English, but to me we should think more about how to improve its teaching and learning process...

(Female teacher 09)

7.3 TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THE IMPORTANCE OF THE OBJECTIVES IN THE EXISTING AND THEIR IDEAL ENGLISH CURRICULUM

According to one of the leading Pakistani educationists, until now "very little serious realistic thinking has been done on the objectives of teaching English in Pakistan. It requires the head of a philosopher, the eyes of a scientist, the heart of a patriot, the hands of a soldier, the nerves of a politician and analysis of an academician (teacher) which we unfortunately lack and lack badly" (Hashmi 1985, p.iii). In order to investigate teachers' perceptions of the importance of the objectives in the 'existing' and their 'ideal' curriculum, 23 objectives of teaching English adopted from the Scheme of Studies and Syllabi for the Secondary School Certificate examinations (1981, pp.28-29) determined by the Board of Secondary Education, Karachi, were listed in Section 'D' of the ELT questionnaire. In the space provided no one mentioned any additional objective. Each teacher rated each objective
on a five-point scale for both curricula using 'an aims questionnaire technique' adapted from Boud (1974).

7.3.1. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The basic assumption behind the analysis of the results was that if the teachers indicated a high rating for objectives in the operational curriculum but showed a low preference for the same objectives in their ideal curriculum, then it can be interpreted that the existing curriculum is in mismatch with the intentions of the teacher.

A separate calculation was made for each objective as rated by the teachers for both curricula and these are shown as mean scores on the scales. Following Boud (1974), these were converted into ranks in ascending order for objectives in each curriculum (figures 7.3, 7.4). In other words, the highest mean value is assigned to the highest rank i.e. 23rd. Further, the rank orders are plotted in figures 7.5 (a-d) respectively so that the teachers' general consensus of opinion about the importance of the objectives could be visualised easily. The Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient (r) further provides a measure of the general level of agreement between the rankings of the teachers on the objectives considered important in the existing and their ideal curriculum. The results were significant at .01 level. The values for r are displayed on the relevant figures.
Figure 7.3  Mean of ratings of male and female teachers' perceptions of the objectives in the existing English language curriculum and their ranks in ascending order.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEACHING OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>RANK ORDER</th>
<th>RANK ORDER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td></td>
<td>MALE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(A) LISTENING COMPREHENSION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(N=113)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. To recognise the role of listening</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To recognise the nature of listening</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To attend listening tasks</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. To develop critical and creative habits</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To gain pleasure from listening</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B) SPEAKING ABILITY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. To express thoughts orally</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. To verbalise experiences</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. To articulate words clearly</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. To speak fluently</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. To control his/her voice</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. To extend and enrich vocabulary</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. To establish acceptable patterns of usage</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. To express thoughts clearly</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. To respond clearly</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C) READING COMPREHENSION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. To develop habit of reading with interest</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. To develop ability to use reading skills</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. To understand simple English usage</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. To read aloud written passages</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. To interpret the intended meaning of writer</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. To appreciate the pleasure of reading</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(D) WRITING ABILITY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. To develop skills for writing and spelling</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. To develop skills for writing good composition</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. To communicate ideas in written form</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Full statement can be seen in Section 'D' of the ELT questionnaire (Appendix C 5).
Mean of ratings of male and female teachers' perceptions of the objectives in the ideal English language curriculum and their ranks in ascending order.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TEACHING OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>MEAN MALE</th>
<th>MEAN FEMALE</th>
<th>RANK ORDER MALE</th>
<th>RANK ORDER FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>LISTENING COMPREHENSION</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. To recognise the role of listening</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. To recognise the nature of listening</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. To attend listening tasks</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. To develop critical and creative habits</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. To gain pleasure from listening</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>SPEAKING ABILITY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. To express thoughts orally</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. To verbalise experiences</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. To articulate words clearly</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. To speak fluently</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. To control his/her voice</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. To extend and enrich vocabulary</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. To establish acceptable patterns of usage</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. To express thoughts clearly</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. To respond clearly</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>READING COMPREHENSION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. To develop habit of reading with interest</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16. To develop ability to use reading skills</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17. To understand simple English usage</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18. To read aloud written passages</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19. To interpret the intended meaning of writer</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20. To appreciate the pleasure of reading</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>WRITING ABILITY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21. To develop skills for writing and spelling</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22. To develop skills for writing good composition</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23. To communicate ideas in written form</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Full statement can be seen in Section 'D' of the ELT questionnaire (Appendix C 5).
Figure 7.3 reveals that both male and female teachers tended to assign the first six high ranks to objectives related to 'reading' and 'writing' skills in the existing curriculum indicating the importance of these skills for them. The objectives associated with 'listening' and 'speaking' skills received least consideration in the existing curriculum. Further, the importance of the objectives in terms of language learning skills - reading and writing- are displayed in figure 7.5(a) which suggests a strong positive relationship between the rankings of the teachers. The value for $r = 0.63$ also indicates that the relationship appears to be significant at the 0.1 level.

Further, teachers' perceptions also suggest that their teaching appears to be more reading and writing skills oriented because of the influence of the public examinations. This was confirmed in the teachers' interviews. Some extracts from interviews are presented below:

We prepare students for examination which is meant to assess the students' reading and writing skills...we never pay attention to developing students' listening and speaking skills because of the pressure of the examination...The passing number of students is considered as a yardstick to measure teachers' efficiency...

(Male teacher 83)

I can't understand the logic of the curriculum developers. On the one hand they emphasise the development of students' four language skills and on the other the examinations are aiming only to assess students' reading and writing skills...I'll prefer to follow the examination syllabus other than the original curriculum proposals... My efficiency is measured in terms of students' pass percentage and their grades...

(Female teacher 10)
In Figure 7.4 the first six high ranks are given to objectives relating to 'listening' and 'speaking' skills. This shows that both groups of teachers tend to consider 'listening' and 'speaking' skills to be important in their ideal curriculum, whereas the 'reading' and 'writing' skills are perceived to be least important. The measure of agreement between teachers about the relative importance of these skills is indicated by the high positive relationship \( r = 0.78 \) at the .01 level of significance shown in figure 7.5 (b). This contrasted with their perception of the importance of 'reading' and 'writing' skills in the existing curriculum. Figures 7.5 (c) and 7.5 (d) demonstrate a strong negative relationship \( r = -0.69 \) and \( r = -0.60 \) at the .01 level of significance) between the objectives rated as most important in the existing curriculum and those similarly rated for their ideal curriculum for both groups of teachers.

In discussing this paradox there are two striking features. Firstly, teachers' pedagogical thoughts and decisions are pervasively influenced by the notion of the 'selective function of education' which is manifested in the perceived importance and influence of public examinations. Hence, in practice, the teachers focus their attention on covering those parts of the syllabus which are likely to be examined (e.g. students' knowledge and skills in terms of reading and writing) and the rest of the parts (e.g. developing students' listening and speaking skills) are likely to receive the least attention from the teachers. In other words, these are neglected, being unexaminable parts of the syllabus. These findings are congruent with Morris (1985) and Dove (1986). This inconsistency may contribute towards a mismatch between the desired aims of the innovation and the actual demands of
Figure 7.5(a) Male and female teachers' ranking of the objectives in the existing curriculum

Figure 7.5(b) Male and female teachers' ranking of the objectives in their ideal curriculum

Figure 7.5(c) Female teachers' ranking of the objectives in the existing and their ideal curriculum

Figure 7.5(d) Male teachers' ranking of the objectives in the existing and their ideal curriculum

Figure 7.5(a-d) Male and female teachers' ranking of the objectives in the existing and their ideal curriculum
examination. Morris (1985) suggested that the examination must be used to promote curriculum reforms.

Secondly, the innovative doctrines do not allow the teachers to put their intentions into practice. This on the one hand restricts the teachers' professional autonomy and interest and on the other, it leads to develop discrepancies between teachers' thoughts and practice. Day (1984) suggested 'consultancy' which equated with Hoyle's (1980) 'extended professionality', facilitating the teachers to bridge the gap between their intentions and practice. Thus the contrasting demands of the examination and discrepancies between teachers' intentions and practice may serve as major barriers to curriculum change.

It is strongly argued that these dilemmas associated with teaching innovation emerge when the innovation is developed outside the schools and then transmitted to them on the assumption that it will change the teachers' habitual practice in the classroom. The literature on the implementation of planned curriculum change suggests that such innovation has led to no significant change at the user level (Fullan 1972). (See further Chapters 2 and 3).

To circumvent such situations Smith and Keith (1971) and Morris (1983) offered a solution to this problem by adopting an 'alternative framework' rooted in the reality of the classroom through which curricular innovations can be implemented. Similarly, Connelly (1972) suggested an alternative model of curriculum development based on a 'participatory and collaborative approach', what he called an 'external and user development model'. To him:
The function of external development is to elaborate theoretical conceptions of society, knowledge, teacher, and learner, and to translate these conceptions into coherent curriculum materials, each of which serves as a clear-cut alternative available to teachers. The function of user development is to construct images of particular instructional settings by matching a variety of theoretical conceptions with the exigencies of these settings, and to translate these images into a curriculum-in-classroom use. The harmonious realisation of these functions would yield a measure of progressive improvement in the school curriculum practices.

(Connelly 1972, p.161)

Thus, through the 'collaborative approach', the gap between the desired goals of innovation and actual demands of examination can be bridged which may serve to improve the situation. The literature on curriculum implementation also suggested that teachers' inadequate knowledge and understanding of the teaching methods generally and particularly innovative method, affect the process of curriculum translation into practice. The following section presents an account of teachers' conception of teaching methods. Geer (1979, p.188) suggested that "poor teaching occurs when teachers have little knowledge or too little skill to impart the knowledge they have".

7.4. TEACHERS' PERSONAL INTERPRETATIONS OF THE TEACHING METHODS.

This section presents an account of teachers' conceptual level of understanding of teaching methods in terms of 'high', 'medium' and 'low'. To explore the extent of teachers' conceptualisation and their level of understanding of methods which they use in teaching English, the teachers were asked to provide their own interpretations as they understood each method, without consulting any reference work. Most of the methods which exist at the moment were listed in Question 22 of the ELT questionnaire. To elicit further the teachers' own choice of
methods, space was left to list any other methods that they used in teaching. Thus the majority of teachers provided four methods: look- and-say, play way, West method, and situational language teaching method.

It is important to note that 17 male and 2 female 'qualified' teachers failed to provide definitions of the methods. So far as the 'unqualified' male and female teachers were concerned, as most of them had no knowledge of any method, they did not respond; sometimes an excuse appeared in the margin, such as:

Sorry! I can't help you, you chose wrong person, I've been compelled to teach English...Being unqualified English teacher, I've no knowledge of the methods at all...

(Male teacher 50)

I had expected the 'qualified' teachers to provide definitions relevant to the concept of each method, but as the analysis shows, many qualified teachers hold misconceptions about methods. One of the reasons they gave was that since their first training they have not been offered opportunities to attend any refresher course. It is pertinent to mention here that out of 157 male and female teachers, only 11 attended refresher courses lasting for two weeks, and of those, eight found the courses 'irrelevant', a 'waste of time' and 'below standard'. The comments of one male and one female teacher are given below to illuminate their perceptions of the standard of refresher courses:

The same methods were taught which I already knew...No new information was provided on teaching methods and learning theories...I don't consider it helpful for my teaching. It was a waste of time.

(Male teacher 01)

I didn't learn from the refresher course nor get any further knowledge... I thought it was a waste of money and time as
well as interruption in the student's education. Since my relieving of duty for attending the course, nobody was deputed to my place...The resource person must have sufficient background of language teaching and learning theories.

(Female teacher 10)

It is also pointed out that, during the interviews, the probationer teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with their training. Many of them made remarks such as: "inadequate to meet the demands of real classroom-life". Hence, it can be argued that inadequate 'training' and 'refresher courses' and further lack of INSET have contributed towards the teachers' lack of conceptualisation of methods.

7.4.1 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

To analyse the teachers' interpretations of the methods, the male and female teachers' response was further broken down into two categories - 'qualified' and 'un-qualified' teachers. Each teacher's interpretation of the method was read thoroughly and analysed in the light of the standard concept of the methods mentioned in either English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) literature [see Mackey (1965); Richards and Rodgers (1986) and Larsen-Freeman (1986)].

The responses were analysed into three categories: 'high', 'medium' and 'low'. The following considerations were kept in mind in assessing the qualitative differences of teachers' conceptualisation of the methods.

1. Definitions which were clearly relevant to the original concept of each method were placed under 'high level of conceptual understanding'.
2. Definitions which were close to the original concept of each method were placed under 'medium level of understanding'.

3. Definitions which were only vaguely related to the original concept of each method were placed under 'low level of understanding'.

(NOTE: No one definition was found to be irrelevant).

To ensure internal consistency of data for reliability and validity, three members of the English Language Institute of the University of Surrey, as 'experts', were asked to check the responses and categorise them in their own way. Each of the experts classified the definitions into three categories, with agreement about into which the data fitted. However, all of them labelled each category in a unique way. For example, 'deep', 'surface' or 'shallow', might have created confusion, so that, by general consensus of the three experts, the simple labels - high, medium and low - were adopted to analyse the definitions qualitatively.

The means were calculated for the level of conceptual understanding of both the male and female (qualified and unqualified) teachers and plotted on the graph (Figure 7.6).

This exhibits three clusters of teaching methods - group 1 (behaviourism), group 2 (mentalism) and group 3 (humanism). Looking at the figure 7.6, it appears that female (qualified) teachers were likely to hold a high level of conceptual understanding of the methods except for 'audio lingual' and 'situational language' teaching methods in group 1 and of all the methods except for 'play way' in group 3. Among the male teachers, none was found to be in the category of high level of conceptual understanding. Though the female qualified teachers were
Figure 7.6: Male and female (qualified and un-qualified) teachers' level of conceptual understanding of the teaching methods.

Mean score of the teachers' level of conceptual understanding of the teaching methods: Low, Medium, High.
likely to hold a medium level understanding of the methods except play way in group 3, a comparison with their counterparts revealed that they tended to have a better understanding of the methods than the rest of their colleagues.

It is worth noting here that the female (unqualified) teachers tend to hold a low level understanding of all the methods except the 'structural method', 'audio visual method' and 'Dr. West's method' in group 1, 'the direct method' and 'grammar-translation method' in group 2 and 'play way method' in group 3. This indicates that these teachers have a better level of conceptual understanding of the methods compared to their male colleagues. A striking feature of the results is that most of the teachers seem to hold a low level understanding of the proposed official audio lingual method, which has significant implications for an effective teaching-learning process.

7.5 TEACHERS' PARTICIPATION IN THE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The literature has generally supported teachers' participation in curriculum development on professional and ethical grounds. Joyce (1972, p.174) suggested that "the teacher is to be...considered the professional in charge. To violate his freedom would be a violation of professional ethics". The concept of participation originally came from management studies into curriculum studies. This notion stressed the right of personnel "to participate in the decision affecting the work they do" (Myers 1970). This fact has now been recognised by the educationists following the humanistic movement as a means of curbing the bureaucratisation process of education which has dehumanised and demoralised the educational system (see also Kelly, 1989). Tanner and Tanner (1980) suggested that teachers as professionals should be
considered as 'diagnosticians' and 'problem solvers' rather than 'technicians', so that they must grow in insight and initiative (see also Stenhouse 1975).

Carson and Friesen (1978) also suggested that teachers 'should be involved to a considerable extent in educational-making in order to practise their expertise as well as to protect their professional interests'.

7.5.1 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

In this Section, the teachers' extent of agreement regarding their 'actual' and 'desired' participation in the curriculum is elicited. The teachers' response to questions 40 and 41 of the ELT questionnaire is analysed and the mean of their extent of agreement is calculated and displayed in figure 7.7. This figure shows that the majority of the teachers express their agreement that they are eager to participate in the process of curriculum development at various levels. There does not appear any significant difference between the male and female teachers' actual participation in the curriculum development process. However, to some extent the male teachers are rather more involved than the female teachers in the curriculum development process generally and implementation in particular. It is also important to note that the male teachers compared to female teachers tend to show a high agreement towards their desired participation in the implementation and decision-making of the curriculum development process.

Female teachers do however wish to participate in these processes (Figure 7.7), but seem to be reluctant to participate for two major reasons: first, the Subject Committee is overwhelmingly dominated by
Figure 7.7: Teachers' agreement in the actual and desired participation.

Stage 1 = Planning, 2 = Design, 3 = Implementation, 4 = Evaluation, 5 = Decision-Making

In the curriculum development process, the mean score of teachers' agreement in actual participation is compared to desired participation for both male and female teachers. The graph indicates that while the actual participation of female teachers is consistently higher than male teachers, the desired participation shows a slight increase over time for both genders, with male teachers' desired participation surpassing female teachers' by stage 5.
male teachers and educationists, and the socio-cultural values do not allow them to work with the male teachers. Secondly, the curriculum development process usually takes place in the offices of provincial bureaux or the National Bureau of Curriculum in the capital of Pakistan (Islamabad) i.e. quite far away from either their place of work or residence. Thus these two major factors - 'socio-cultural values' and 'long distance travelling' serve as main hurdles for the female teachers' participation in the curriculum development process.

So far as the male teachers are concerned, they believe that by their participation they will choose a good curriculum based on their value system which is likely to be implementable. On the other hand, it enables them to extend their professionalism which may lead to an increase in their job satisfaction. As one of the teachers related:

I believe the cure of all curriculum change ills lies with the teachers' participation...No one knows better than the teachers about the classroom reality...Our participation will not only facilitate the curriculum innovation to become implementable, but it will also extend professionalism in the educational system which is lacked badly at the moment.

(Male teacher 15)

Oliver (1977, p.329) asserted that the teachers' participation is of paramount importance in curriculum development. He further said that "a person (teacher) will more likely make changes if he is involved, a person (teacher) will more likely accept changes if he is involved...curriculum improvement is not a do-it-yourself act nor can one toss out the seed and let it 'just grow'. A considerable amount of action is required for many sources, and this action requires direction.
Figure 7.7 further demonstrates that only a limited number have access to participation at the different levels of the curriculum development process. For example, one teacher states:

Three years ago I was invited to attend the meeting of the English syllabus committee presided over by the subject specialist of the textbook board, where many teachers pointed out the weaknesses of the existing curriculum. The teachers needed to get these weaknesses removed from the textbooks. A memorandum was prepared containing the list of the weaknesses and duly signed by all participants (teachers) and presented to the subject specialist, but the weaknesses have not been removed so far...

(Interview with male teacher 51)

This shows that the teachers' recommendations and their feedback to the curriculum developers have not been given due consideration for the removal of the ambiguous concepts from the textbooks. It also indicates that the curriculum developers tend to be reluctant in sharing their decision powers with the teachers as members of the committee. Such participation may be termed 'passive participation' of the teachers which in fact does not contribute to the formulation of rational curriculum policy for change. Stenhouse (1975, p.25) suggested that "the emergent curriculum which is communicated to the profession at large must be grounded in the study of the classroom". It is my conviction that the entire formal and informal curriculum of the school must be filtered through the minds and hearts of classroom teachers. I believe this can only be done with the teachers' 'active' participation in the curriculum development process.

7.6 FINDINGS EMERGING FROM THE INITIAL SURVEY

In the initial survey, an attempt is made to identify the potential problems which affect the process of curriculum change. Through analysis of the questionnaire, interview and documents, some early
findings have emerged. Before the final conclusion is drawn, these problems for innovation need to be studied in-depth at the classroom level.

1. The lack of conceptual understanding of methods generally and innovative methods in particular have implications for translating innovative doctrines into practice.

The findings drawn from the qualitative analysis of the teachers' interpretation of the teaching methods suggested that the female (qualified) teachers have a better understanding (see figure 7.6) of the teaching methods than their counterparts - female (unqualified) and male (qualified and unqualified) teachers. On the whole, both groups of the female (qualified and unqualified) teachers have a better understanding of the methods on which their teaching practice is based. The main finding of this research is that all the teachers tended to have a low level of conceptual understanding of the audio lingual method. The majority of the teachers thought that this method made additional demands on teachers to be proficient and accurate in both spoken and written forms of English, which is a problem for many at the moment. Hence it can be argued that the teachers rely mainly on habitual routines rather than innovative ones. This has significant implications for curriculum policy and implementation strategy. The assumption that teachers would change their old practice automatically when they receive a new doctrine is not supported by the present findings. Many argue that theoretical (declarative) knowledge builds bases for practical (procedural) knowledge. Hence, as Wardaugh (1969, p.116) alerted us, "there is indeed nothing so practical as a good theory". Stern (1983, p.1) further augmented this, saying "good teaching practice is based on good theoretical understanding". 

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2. Mismatch between the desired goals of innovative doctrines and the actual demands of public examinations

The analysis of the data suggests the mismatch between the desired goals of innovative doctrines and the actual demands of examinations. Since the examination is considered to be a main criterion for judging teachers' efficiency, one hallmark of the good teacher in the eyes of parents, pupils and, indeed, teachers themselves, is the ability to help pupils pass examinations (Dove 1986).

For 'survival' in the classroom, the teachers tend to prefer to follow the examination syllabus rather than the original innovative doctrines. This is a common problem in both the developed and developing countries, but the latter are more affected, because the role of education in the developing countries serves as the main 'source of social mobility' and 'socio-economic status'. This tends to promote an 'instrumentalism' which is represented by the perceived importance and influence of the public examination. Consequently, the teachers' teaching style is focused on providing students only with the information necessary to pass the relevant examinations. Thus the teachers concentrate on examination classes and neglect other areas of the curriculum (Morris 1985), and this leads to the development of a 'selective educational function'.

3. Discrepancies between teachers' intentions and practice

Teaching has been considered as an intentional activity and form of human action which is guided by a set of personal beliefs and values which teachers hold about its nature, - what Polyani (1967) called 'implicit' or 'tacit' knowledge. Following Argyris and Schön (1974) many researchers, including Day (1984) and Pope et al. (1988),
maintained that teachers' actions are governed by their theories-in-use and the context in which teachers work, which results in inconsistency between their intentions and practice.

In this context, the findings of the present work suggest that in spite of a tightly centralised system where teachers are treated as the 'academics' prisoners', they tend to construe their teaching of English in more 'global' terms - acquisition of linguistic and communicative knowledge and skills. The findings further suggest that they also tend to assign high priority to the development of students' speaking and listening skills, followed by reading and writing skills, which contrasted with their practice. These findings are closely related to Lortie's (1975) that teachers reduce the educational goals stated in global terms into specific objectives in their daily work. Thus the teachers are unable to put their intentions into practice and their teaching becomes restricted to the 'selective function of education'.

To improve the teaching-learning process, there is need for a 'negotiable' curriculum which may match with the teachers' intentions.

4. Lack of 'supportive mechanism' leads to the development of inconsistency between teachers' 'espoused theory of action' and 'theory-in-use' and further increases teachers' dissatisfaction with their role

This finding has significant implications for curriculum change. The majority of the teachers suggest that the 'fidelity' or 'power-coercive' approach adopted for curriculum implementation does not leave sufficient room for adaptation of curriculum to circumstances. Hence, the central theme of their teaching activities is to complete the prescribed syllabus and prepare students for examinations. This fidelity
perspective of curriculum implementation has gone through severe attacks as being inappropriate to understand the 'world' of teachers (see Fullan and Pomfret 1977), and it considers teachers as 'faithful servants' rather than 'meaning makers'.

Research on teachers' thinking maintains that teachers as human beings and professionals, like others, are meaning makers who interpret the curriculum from their own frame of reference in a unique way. Thus during the process of making sense of innovation, they develop their own theories of action to share their meaning systems with the students in the learning context. Thus a classroom knowledge is constructed which is important for the researcher to understand. As a matter of fact, such features of the teachers are attributed to teachers of developed countries. The findings on this issue correspond with Hurst (1981) that the teachers in the developing countries are not in any way different, in terms of their reflections on the centrally produced innovation, from their counterparts in the developed countries.

Olson (1980) noted that teachers faced an uncertain and problematic situation while translating innovation into practice. Given the situation, the innovation is modified as teachers re-interpret the curriculum to suit the demands of the situation. Such expressions were noted during the interviews with the teachers. The majority of teachers pointed out that owing to the lack of any sort of administrative support, they were incapable of translating innovation in the original sense. To facilitate the teachers' action for translating the curriculum effectively, we need cooperative and well organised efforts to establish a 'supportive mechanism' (see Tanner and Tanner 1980). I contend that this will not only guide the teachers' action, save time,
resources and energy but will, indeed, increase the teachers' efficiency and develop their role satisfaction. As Hall and Loucks (1978) asserted, the teachers' concerns about innovation must be dealt with first if change is to be accomplished.

5. Lack of teachers' participation in the curriculum development process may contribute towards teachers' lack of awareness of innovation, and restrict their professionalism

This fifth factor has been identified from the analysis of teachers' interviews and questionnaires. The result indicates that at present the teachers have low participation in the curriculum development process which has strong implications for curriculum change policy. The results also suggest the high level of teachers' agreement towards their 'desired participation'. In this situation, there also appears a big gap between teachers' actual and desired participation. The teachers' low participation in the curriculum development process also indicates that the teachers are professionally deprived of choosing their own curriculum based on the students' needs and interests. It is important to note that male compared with female teachers tend to demand greater participation in the curriculum whereas the female teachers' perception of their participation in curriculum was mainly constrained by 'socio-cultural' and 'long distance travelling' factors (see Section 7.5). It is argued that, indeed, teachers are more knowledgeable in terms of students' needs, abilities and interests than the curriculum developers about the practical problems of the 'learning milieu'. Nicholls and Nicholls (1982, p.22) stressed that "he (teacher) is a person above average in general academic ability, with interests, ideas and experiences that can be used for the benefit of his pupils".
The majority of teachers voiced the opinion that their participation in curriculum planning would increase their performance towards implementing the curriculum. They also thought that without their participation in the curriculum, they felt currently isolated from an important part of the educational process. I contend that teachers' participation will not only facilitate the process of curriculum change by raising awareness of the innovation but will also help them in choosing an implementable curriculum. Thus their professional interest and autonomy will also be ensured and protected which will lead towards increased job satisfaction. Ben-Peretz (1980) suggested that the only way of achieving the goals of innovation was by assigning teachers a central role in curriculum.

6. **Heavy reliance on imported educational innovation may not lead to improvement of the quality of the teaching-learning process**

Evidence appeared from the analysis of the documents that the 'innovative doctrines' are in fact heavily based on innovative ideas borrowed either from Europe or America. The prescribed official audio lingual method was originally developed in America in the 1950s. It is 'grass rooted' in the structural philosophy of language pedagogy corresponding with the behaviouristic view of language learning. This method makes more demands on the teachers for using English as a means of classroom interaction. Paradoxically, the teachers felt themselves incompetent to do so because of their lack of competence and fluency in the target language, which was confirmed from the interviews with the teachers, heads and educationists.
It also appeared from the documents' analysis and interviews with the concerned participants that the process of transfer of imported educational technology had been seen as 'simplistic' and 'unproblematic', which generated unwarranted consequences. The contrasting cultural contexts served as a major hurdle and this affected the achievement of the original goals of curriculum innovation. Crossley's (1984) findings also demonstrated a more or less similar situation in the African countries.

The results further suggest that curriculum innovation was implemented without being tested or provision of explicit guidelines, supportive administrative mechanism, teachers training, physical resources and feedback to the curriculum developers. The result was that curriculum reforms failed to improve either the curriculum practice or teachers' pedagogy [see Crossley (1984) and Dove (1986)].

7. Positive attitude of teachers and students towards TEACL may improve the teaching-learning process

The previous studies [Pakistan Government (1974) and Better Education (1985)] conducted in the Pakistani context concluded that negative attitude was one of the determinants affecting the teaching of English. The present findings do not correspond with this. However, the male teachers' perception reveals that they tended to perceive the importance of English for both 'academic' and 'professional' purposes, whereas the females tended to perceive the importance from only the 'professional' point of view. This might be because of the females' increasing inclination towards teaching and other professions.
However, all the male and female teachers tend to hold a positive attitude towards the importance of teaching English in Pakistan. Hence, the question of negative attitude does not arise and cannot be considered as a 'contributory factor' which affects the teaching-learning process.

The government of Pakistan's own intentions also appear to be in favour of teaching English:

'Though mankind has not succeeded in evolving one language common to the entire mankind, yet English happens to be about the most widely used or one of the most widely understood languages amongst the community of nations. We in Pakistan need English, just as the other independent countries of the world do, mainly to communicate with the rest of the world and to get access to Science and Technology. It serves as a convenient corridor to the world outside.'

(Pakistan Government 1985, p.5)

8. **Unqualified teachers may affect the process of curriculum change**

In the past, 'every adult was considered as a teacher to teach any subject', irrespective of his/her academic and professional attainments, particularly in developing countries including Pakistan. Since then, this concept has been adopted in the teaching of core subjects generally and foreign languages in particular with the view that 'something is better than nothing'. The implication of this factor is that since the unqualified teachers lack knowledge of subject matter, methodology and proficiency in both the spoken and written forms of English, in turn they rely on only 'cheap ready-made guides' and 'model' question papers to survive in the classroom.
9. **Students' dissatisfaction with the language teaching and learning process.**

The students expressed their concern that their learning was predominantly 'reading and writing' skills oriented. The data also suggested that the methods used for teaching English did not appear to be stimulating and sufficiently motivating for them. They also voiced their opinions that the 'oral skills' considered to be important had been ignored. A need felt by the students was that their teaching and learning must enable them to comprehend and communicate their views in English. It is argued that in a situation where teachers' teaching style and goals do not match the students' demands of learning, this may create a hostile attitude towards their teachers. On the other hand, the teachers' teaching style is likely to develop the students' surface level of understanding [see Entwistle (1981)]. With the result that the majority of the students lose interest in their learning which in fact affects their academic achievements.

Case studies will now be described to relate the theory discussed in the previous chapters to teaching practice in Pakistan.
CASE STUDY 1: MR. SIDDQUI

AN ACCOUNT OF PREDOMINANTLY INTERPRETATION
PEDAGOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

It is no use asking teachers to modify their practice without providing the necessary resources.

(Hurst 1981, p.189)

8.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a portrait of a male urban experienced teacher holding the interpretation teaching style as defined in Chapter 3 (see further Barnes 1976). It concerns his reflections on externally planned innovation for implementation in schools and its impact on the classroom processes in TEACL. An attempt is made to understand how the students construe his teaching style relative to their learning approaches.

8.1 INSTITUTIONAL SETTING

The urban boys' secondary school in which the case study was conducted is in Karachi and is one of the oldest and largest institutions in Pakistan. It played a significant role in the independence of the nation, and produced many renowned scholars, scientists, educationists and politicians who have been serving the nation in their respective capacities. Since its establishment, it functioned as an independent institution under private management until 1972. As part of a general government policy for the 'nationalisation' of private educational institutions, it was then nationalised by the provincial government but its administration was soon taken over by the central government in order to maintain its historical reputation and high status as a national institution. Because of this special status, it imparts
education for the range of classes five to ten (ages 10 to 15 years) whereas the other secondary schools offer classes from six to ten (ages 11 to 15 years).

It follows the same syllabus as the other schools. English is taught as an additional compulsory language from classes five to ten. To gain admission, each student has to pass the entrance test. The school teaches from 7.45 a.m. to 1.45 p.m. in a single shift, whereas the other government secondary schools mostly run in two shifts (see case study 2). The students' uniform (white shirt, blue trousers and black shoes) is different from the other male schools and is compulsory. The teachers' dress is not prescribed, although national dress is preferred. A green gown is compulsory for them while teaching. Most of the classes contained 30 to 40 students, class nine, which was observed, consisting of 30 students of mixed ability.

The school has two large buildings with a large playground. Although the buildings are close to each other, it takes 7 minutes to walk from one building to the other. The Principal, Vice-Principal, Staffroom, teachers' tea club and science labs are accommodated in the main building.

8.2 PARTICIPANTS' ACCOUNTS

The data used in this case study was collected from the English teacher and 10 students of class nine who voluntarily agreed to participate.

8.2.1 MR. SIDDQUI'S ACCOUNT

After having informal meetings with all four English language teachers in this institution, Mr. Siddiqui (pseudonym) agreed to let me observe
his teaching-learning process. He was a Senior Staff member and an experienced teacher in the school. He wanted to become a medical doctor but his parents wished to see him as a teacher, as they had a long attachment and commitment to teaching and devoted their whole lives to this profession. He too gradually developed a high commitment to this profession after losing all hope of joining other professions. As he said:

My dream was to be a doctor, but neither my parents' economic conditions nor their enthusiasm for the teaching profession allowed me to do so... To be frank, I was not mentally prepared to join this profession... after a long struggle hunting different jobs other than teaching, I unwittingly joined this profession which I got easily...

(Teacher's vocal emphasis)

Mr. Siddiqui further explained the reasons for his unwillingness to join the teaching profession.

Today's society is much more materialistic... Few decades ago, the teachers had a very high regard reverencing them as holy... Today's teachers are considered to be the worst class of the society because of their low status and salary... Due to inflation I can't make both ends meet... The attitude of the society towards teachers is really annoying, even my real brother having good job, sometimes he is reluctant to invite me to the social gatherings... This is really mental torture, I can't avoid these things as a human being. Now, there is no way to get rid of this profession. Therefore, I've decided to continue this profession for my survival. However, I'll never advise my children to join this profession at any cost...

(Teacher's vocal emphasis)

It would be pertinent to mention here that the majority of male teachers voiced similar views about the teaching profession. Such dissatisfaction might have a strong influence on the teaching-learning process. If we are to make this profession more attractive, we ought to bring it to a par with other professions. Mr. Siddiqui pointed out that he had been a victim of his colleagues, Head of school and supervisory
staff on different academic and organisational issues. In spite of that, it was noted that he had been pleased to guide his colleagues in their daily teaching routines. Even the Head of school would come personally and discuss his administrative problems with him. Many teachers told me that Mr. Siddiqui was a 'neutral teacher' free from any sort of influence from the various groups of teachers in the school. He usually wore national dress with the green gown. He taught English, Maths and Pakistan Studies, but specialised in teaching English.

8.2.2 STUDENTS' ACCOUNTS

The terms 'pupil' and 'student' are both used interchangeably at the secondary school level, but as 'student' is more common, I have adopted this term. Class nine contained 30 students, 10 of whom, with different socio-economic backgrounds and abilities, voluntarily presented their names for the interview. Since the students' general background information was not available in the school, it was decided to conduct a preliminary interview with them to gather relevant information (see figure 8.1) This type of interview also enabled me to negotiate my research contract and establish a close rapport with them. On the day of my first observation, Mr. Siddiqui introduced me in the following way:

I know you all are anxious to know about the gentleman who is seated on the back desk...He is a researcher in Great Britain, the country of our former lords (laughter). Sorry, I just forgot the name of the university... Anyway, he is interested in observing our teaching-learning process for English... He also would like to conduct interviews with you...

(Teacher's vocal emphasis)
Figure 8.1 Profile of the Sample Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF STUDENT (PSEUDONYM)</th>
<th>AGE IN YEARS</th>
<th>*FATHER'S PROFESSION</th>
<th>STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Bashir Ahmad</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Medical Doctor</td>
<td>English is my favoured subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Nazir Ahmad</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td>English should be taught as a functional language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Muhammad Akram</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Advocate</td>
<td>Teaching English should enable the students to communicate in both spoken and written texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Abbas Ali</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Labourer</td>
<td>Four language learning skills should be given equal importance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Abdul Ghani</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Part time job</td>
<td>Learning of English language is a need for survival in the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Mujeeb Ali</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>English is a medium of instruction in tertiary education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Muhammad Ibrahim</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Section Officer</td>
<td>Fluency and accuracy in English is compulsory for civil servants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Abdul Aziz</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Technician</td>
<td>Learning English is necessary for understanding scientific knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Qasim Ali</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Learning English is a need for joining any job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Abdul Majeed</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Labourer</td>
<td>English is an international language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Owing to cultural constraints, the mother's profession cannot be mentioned.
After taking the students' attendance record, Mr. Siddiqui left the class to my disposal. I briefly introduced myself as a researcher and described the purpose of the study, stating that I was visiting their class to observe their teaching-learning process and to conduct interviews with them. They were assured that confidentiality of their views would be maintained and no real names would be mentioned in my thesis or elsewhere.

Discussing the observations of the classroom processes, it was generally noted that the teaching-learning process was slightly dominated by the teacher's authority. This appeared to be contrasted with what he earlier said in his interview as well as in the repertory grid conversation (see Section8.5) "that the teacher should facilitate the students' learning rather than imposing his or others' ideas on them". His inclination towards the 'traditional role' allowed a medium level classroom interaction either in the target language or students' mother tongue between teacher and students, but rarely within the peer groups.

8.3 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA FROM CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

The analysis in the classroom was intended:

(a) to investigate the practical problems which Mr. Siddiqui faced while translating curriculum innovation into practice; and

(b) to investigate his reflections on the teaching-learning process in English and further identify the students' concerns regarding the learning process.

Class nine was observed for 6 consecutive weeks (except public holidays). All the thirty lessons were audio recorded (except a few periods assigned to checking students' fair notebooks and 'dictation') with the prior permission of the teacher concerned. Field notes, taken to make quick comments on the classroom processes, were discussed with
the teacher after having completed each observation (see Section 8.4.2).

Some of the recurrent events occurring during the teaching were recorded which indicated how these factors were constraining the teaching-learning process in a particular 'cultural milieu' (see figure 8.2). It may be pointed out that the 'external factors' such as teacher's telephone call, Head's visit to the classroom, Head's call to the teacher, teacher's guest visit, appear to have caused more interruption than the others in the classroom.

Figure 8.2 The extent of the classroom interruption
When it is noted that a 'socio-political' crisis may at times close down the educational institutions in the country for several months, then the extent of the problem caused by daily interruptions can be better appreciated. In order to gain further insights into the nature of the teaching, commentaries offered by the teacher were obtained by using the stimulated recall method [i.e. by listening to the audio recorded lessons (see figure 8.3, Appendix D 1)].

8.3.1 GENERAL FEATURES OF THE CLASSROOM PROCESSES

The analysis of lesson transcriptions along with the notes revealed the following 'recurrent themes':

(a) Teacher's reliance on habitual practice

Before the teacher would start a new lesson he would ask the students about any difficulties and problems derived from their previous learning activities. In this regard, only 4 to 5 students would air their views on problems encountered. The rest of the students remained silent throughout the teaching period until the teacher asked them to respond to him. This shows either the students' heavy reliance either on the teacher's 'spoon-feeding' or their disinterest in the teaching-learning process. Sometimes he would mark the students' homework before he started the new lesson in order to check their understanding of the content of the previous lesson. Consequently he provided 'verbal' and 'written' feedback to the students. Those who failed to do their homework were corporally punished.

It was also noted that Mr. Siddiqui's teaching contained two main sequences of routine. First, he would spend half of his teaching time
on reading aloud the new lesson, explaining and demonstrating new concepts on the blackboard. In the second half, he would direct 'closed' questions (the right answers were logically determined by the teacher) based on the content of the prescribed textbook at the back bench sitters. If he failed to obtain response, the front bench sitters would volunteer an answer. The teacher would praise the students (e.g. 'good', 'nice' and 'well done' etc) and ask the back bench sitters to repeat the answer until they learnt it by heart. This shows that the teacher led the whole class to converge on one right answer which was predetermined by himself. Thus the students were not allowed to contribute by answering the questions in their own ways. This not only constrained the students' creative thinking and deep level understanding but also impeded the development of their confidence in practising oral English in the classroom. However, very occasionally, the teacher tended to adopt 'Cook's Tour' and 'Freewheeling' (see Walker and Adelman 1975) styles of questioning which led to the students' active participation in their learning process and created a friendly atmosphere in the classroom.

(b) Examination focused teaching

The teacher focused his teaching on the mandated content of the textbook so as to transmit the book knowledge into the students' mind from the examination point of view 'by hook or by crook'. Corporal punishment was used as a major incentive to get the students to learn content. Emphasis was given to the teaching of grammar and structure of sentences through rote learning or pattern practice grounded in the structural linguistic theory congruent with behaviouristic psychological learning theory. The teaching of language functions received the least attention of the teacher perhaps because of it is an the unexamined part of the
sylabus and the teacher lacked communicative competence in the target
language. It is also interesting to note that the 'received innovative
doctrines' recommended six teaching periods weekly, three for teaching
'content of the textbook' and three for 'developing students' productive
skills' whereas the teacher's practice was found to be inconsistent with
the mandate.

(c) Teacher's erratic behaviour

Although at most times the teacher seemed to be caring and sharing a
friendly atmosphere in the classroom, he would sometimes display erratic
behaviour (e.g. severe punishment, rudeness, unsmiling, harsh attitude
and sudden shouting etc) which constrained the effectiveness of the
students' learning process. In spite of this, a few students (perhaps
fast learners) initiated discussion freely and asked for further
information. For example:

Student: Sir, why was Quraish a noble family?
Teacher: What do you mean? (surprised)
Student: I mean why not other families?
Teacher: Oh, I see. I got your point, well... each family can be
noble if it does some thing for the betterment of human
beings... so far as the Quraish family is concerned, our
holy prophet belongs to this family and indeed, it
contributed to the expansion of Islam.

Student: Sir, if I was not wrong, we first read that the Quraish used
to worship idols and did not believe in one God, then how do
you say that this family contributed to the cause of Islam?
Teacher: (Surprised and hesitated to answer) Well, you are right,
but... it is an historical fact, though I'm very poor in
Muslim history, I can't go into detail, anyway to be
precise, I must tell you that this is a family which after
embracing Islam supported it morally, physically and
economically. Thus its sacrifices can't be forgotten...
(d) Mispronunciation of words of the target language
Considering the importance of learning correct pronunciation of the English words, the mandatory innovative doctrines emphasised the need to give more practice to the students, enabling them to pronounce words correctly and speak English with the proper stress and intonation. It was noted that both the teacher's and taughts' pronunciation was very much influenced by their mother tongue which appeared to be one of the hurdles in pronouncing words correctly. A few students, who also learnt English at the foreign language teaching centres, were capable of pronouncing words correctly, but the teacher seemed to be reluctant to appreciate these students, although their pronunciation appeared to be much better than the teacher's concerned. These students seemed to be more fluent and accurate in speaking than their teacher. This highlighted for me the teacher's lack of communicative knowledge and phonological rules.

(e) Lack of friendly atmosphere in the classroom
It appeared from Mr. Siddiqui's early conversation that he tended to consider his students as 'humans' rather than 'subjects' or 'robots' which contrasted with his classroom practice. Throughout the whole period of my observation, I obtained the impression that along with his perceived 'interpretation' teaching style, he would sometimes adopt the 'transmission' style of teaching. This resulted in the students feeling coerced and intimidated from talking freely with their teacher in the classroom. At such moments, the teacher's teaching behaviour seemed to be 'authoritarian' and 'unfriendly' which allowed only a 'medium' level of classroom interaction. No doubt, such a phenomenon contributed towards maintaining classroom discipline rather than developing students' linguistic, communicative and cognitive competence.

(f) Teacher's lack of knowledge of linguistic subject matter and language pedagogy
Although Mr. Siddiqui had a specialist qualification and long experience, he would frequently consult the grammar books and copy some of the examples from them on the blackboard while teaching 'active' and 'passive' voice, and 'direct' and 'indirect' speech, without providing an adequate explanation of the rules underlying them. This may indicate the teacher's lack of knowledge of linguistics and grammar. It was
noted that the teacher himself misinterpreted the English words used in different contexts while translating them into the students' mother tongue: evidence that he also lacked knowledge of the subject matter.

It was further noted that Mr. Siddiqui tended to use an 'eclectic' approach in his teaching; however, the grammar-translation method was overwhelmingly predominant in the classroom teaching. The proposed innovative audio lingual method was hardly used because of his lack of theoretical and practical knowledge of this method which was confirmed in the interviews.

(g) **Excessive use of mother tongue in the classroom discourse**
With only a few exceptions, the students mother tongue overwhelmingly dominated classroom discourse. Although the teacher was to some extent competent in English speaking, most of the students had difficulty with understanding spoken English. Little attention was given to developing their listening and speaking skills at the 'threshold' level. The students also seemed little interested in their learning process and this may have been exacerbated by the rare use of teaching aids by the teacher who relied mainly on chalk and talk strategies.

**Dissatisfaction with the content of the textbook**
The content of the textbook was based on the principles of the structural approach to syllabus design. There appeared to be no room for any dialogue or activity-based content. It was noted that both the teachers and the taught were not allowed to use any content other than that prescribed. This limited the 'autonomy' and 'freedom' of both the teachers and students in the classroom. It was also noted that on many occasions the teacher and students showed strong dissatisfaction and disinterest with the content of the textbooks.

**8.3.2 Specific Features of the Classroom Processes**
The pattern of the classroom teaching-learning process was identified in the following set of features in terms of pedagogical functions (PF) (see Figure 8.4) evolved from the analysis of the randomly selected transcriptions of the ten lessons observed (see specimen at Appendix D.2).
FIGURE 8.4 Recurrent Pedagogical Functions of the Classroom Processes

PF 1 Teacher teaches students. Memory
PF 2 Teacher provides feedback
PF 3 Teacher introduces new information
PF 4 Teacher's model reading
PF 5 Teacher reads students' text discussion
PF 6 Teacher poses questions, explanation
PF 7 Teacher evaluates students understanding
PF 8 Teacher requires students' response
PF 9 Teacher provides feedback
PF 10 Teacher moves quickly to new item
PF 11 Teacher recaps the students' use of the
PF 12 Students, silent reading
PF 13 Students, reading aloud

FREQUENCY OF PEDAGOGICAL FUNCTIONS OBSERVED IN 10 SELECTED LESSONS
PF 1: Teacher recalls students' memory
A first and foremost feature of the lessons observed was that the teacher would ask preliminary questions both in English and in the students' mother tongue addressing the slow learners. This appeared to be the general routine of his teaching before he started to teach a new lesson.

PF 2: Teacher introduces new information
After reviewing the students' previous knowledge, he would introduce new teaching activities in a sequence related to the students' past knowledge in the classroom.

PF 3: Teacher's model reading
Each new lesson was read aloud from the textbook by the teacher followed by the students reading aloud in unison. Then the teacher would translate each sentence to facilitate the students' learning, to make the content more understandable and further to enable them to copy the teacher's style of reading and adopt his speech's sound pattern and pronunciation.

PF 4: Teacher's lack of further explanation of each new lexical item
Each new word in the lesson was defined in the students' mother tongue rather than in English. During the teacher's explanation and demonstration on the blackboard, the majority of students asked the teacher for more explanation for their understanding. However, the teacher only defined the word in the context of the lesson rather than mentioning its other uses in different contexts. This indicates the teacher's 'restricted' view of teaching.

PF 5: Teacher avoids student-led discussion
It was observed that a few students initiated discussion with the teacher. The teacher seemed to avoid those discussions which were not related to the prescribed examination syllabus.

PF 6: Teacher postpones explanation
It was noted that owing to shortage of time, non-availability of audio visual aids and his lack of knowledge of subject matter, he would
postpone explanation and description of many teaching items requested by the students.

**PF 7: Teacher evaluates the students' understanding of the teaching content**

It was noted that the teacher would usually ask questions of the 'slow learners'. If that failed, the 'fast learners' would answer the questions or the teacher himself would write the answers on the blackboard. Thus the teacher would write all answers on the blackboard and the students would copy them at the end of the 'question-answer session', any broken English being corrected by the teacher.

It is also interesting to note that only one student had a good command of English. He would almost always talk to his teacher in English, while the teacher in turn would only respond in the student's mother tongue. The rest of the students tended to be unable to produce utterances in English spontaneously. This further indicates that listening comprehension and speaking skills have received little attention from the teachers perhaps because it is an unexaminable part of the examination syllabus.

**PF 8: Teacher rephrases students' response**

The teacher would rephrase the students' response and to some extent involve the students in classroom learning activities mainly based on cognitive (thinking process), rote learning (memorisation) and habit forming drills (transformation of sentences etc). The pattern of the whole teaching process that emerged can be referred to as 'rephrasing and modelling' the students' response in the classroom rather than encouraging them to produce their own utterances in the socio-linguistic context of the target language. It is interesting to note that when the teacher shifted his questioning style from 'closed' to 'Cook's Tour' and 'Freewheeling', the students seemed to be more eager to participate in the teaching-learning process. This allowed the students to practise spoken English. This would not only develop the students' confidence but also contribute towards the development of the students' cognitive and affective abilities.
PF 9: Teacher provides feedback
The teacher would give his students feedback whenever it was requested, either during classroom conversation or while checking students' homework. However, he frequently could not satisfy all the students' need for feedback because of physical and contextual constraints (e.g., size of the classroom, mixed ability of the students, socio-economic backgrounds and time allocation to teaching.)

PF 10: Teacher moves quickly to new items
It was observed that the teacher, without an appropriate explanation of the teaching item, would move quickly from one topic to another. Therefore, the students seemed to be unable to relate one item to another, which might have strong implications for the students' learning.

PF 11: Teacher facilitates the students' use of the target language
Mostly the classroom discourse seemed to be overwhelmingly dominated by the students' mother tongue. However, occasionally the teacher did encourage the students to respond to him in English.

PF 12: Individual students read aloud
The teacher randomly asked individual students to read a few sentences aloud with translation. The incorrectly pronounced words were corrected with the help of other students, and used as a basis for oral drills.

PF 13: Students' silent reading
Owing to shortage of time, the teacher did not allocate appropriate time to students for conceptualisation of the new learning items during silent reading. This resulted in only a few students responding to the teacher's questions.

Looking at figure 8.4 (p. 167), it appears that Mr. Siddiqui tended to give priority to 'introducing new information', 'avoiding student-led
discussion', 'rephrasing students' responses' and 'moving quickly to new teaching items'. This suggests that Mr. Siddiqui's main concern was to complete the prescribed examination syllabus which contrasted with the aims of the original innovative doctrines. This was also confirmed from his interviews as well as classroom observations.

8.4 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA FROM 'THINK ALOUD' AND 'STIMULATED RECALL' METHODS

8.4.1 TEACHER'S REFLECTIONS ON PREACTIVE TEACHING

His reported thoughts on the preactive phase of teaching reveal that his long term (yearly) planning of the teaching activities consisted of 2 sub phases. He would focus his attention (1) to cover the syllabus as soon as he could, and (2) to revise the syllabus enabling the students to understand the content of the textbook and to memorise it for the examination. Being an experienced teacher he believed that he did not need to prepare his daily lesson plan in detail. As he explained:

You know, I have been teaching for nearly twenty years. I know the strategy of how to execute and monitor the teaching activities... I really don't consider to plan teaching activities in detail... It is a waste of time and energy. I can't execute the lesson plan as it is... though, I have my own conceptual plans in my memory which allow me to make as many changes as I can while teaching in the classroom...

(Teacher's vocal emphasis)

These views correspond with Olson (1980) that experienced teachers have 'plans-in-memory'. Mr. Siddiqui's 'mental planning' contained the following points:

* Making learning easy so as to get the students through the examination.
* Organising learning activities in accordance with the students' needs, abilities and interests.
* Selecting appropriate method(s).
It is interesting to note that his main aim in the planning of teaching activities was to make learning easy so as to get the students through the examination. This shows that his thinking was more influenced by the demands of the examination than by the desired goals of innovative doctrines. He was of the opinion that the teacher should plan the main steps of the action (i.e. Herbartian steps of lesson planning - preparation, presentation, comparison and abstraction, generalisation and application) along with brief notes and 'memory joggers'. These might serve to aid his memory while translating curriculum into practice. He believed that it would not only save his and his students' time but also help him by focusing his attention on the particular topic.

His reported thoughts further indicate that he frequently found difficulty in putting his plans into action. This indicates that his plans seemed to be 'idealistic' rather than 'realistic', failing to consider the physical constraints, while planning the lesson as pointed out by Calderhead (1984 p.13). Calderhead went on to say that teachers work within the powerful framework of physical and ideological constraints so that "their practice may on occasion reflect the demands of that context more than the teachers' own beliefs and convictions about good or appropriate teaching".
8.4.1.1 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED DURING THE PREACTIVE TEACHING

Mr. Siddiqui described the following major constraints (figure 8.5) which constrained his thinking while planning the daily teaching activities.

Figure 8.5 Problems encountered during lesson planning

1. Lack of professional knowledge - subject matter, innovative method and linguistics.
2. Lack of organisational support at the classroom level to guide the teachers.
3. Lack of professional autonomy to select his own choice of content.
4. Inconsistency between the demands of examination and innovative doctrines.
5. Lack of instructional guide.

Given the situation it is impossible for the teacher to translate the innovative curriculum into practice as desired. This shows an implication for curriculum change policy. It is strongly argued that the 'sound' policy reflects the 'sound' curriculum. According to Becher and Maclure (1978, p.10) "Without a sturdy framework of national policy it is not likely that local development, or any other kind of curriculum innovation, can make coherent sense".

8.4.2 TEACHER'S REFLECTIONS ON THE INTERACTIVE PHASE OF TEACHING

To obtain the teacher's comments on his teaching, every fourth audio recorded lesson was played back to recall thoughts about his previous activities in the classroom. It was clear from Mr. Siddiqui's reflection on his interactive phase of teaching that he was fully aware of the lack of students' participation in his teaching, lack of systematic planning, of his own predominantly traditional approach to
teaching, an excessive use of the mother tongue in the target language learning class and his emphasis on rote learning. But he tended to blame the curriculum developers.

He also expressed his dissatisfaction with the outdated concept of syllabus design, the strategy for curriculum development which offered no participation of teachers and students, with the irrelevant content of the textbook, inappropriate INSET programme and inadequate time for teaching English. He considered these to be the most influential factors affecting the teaching-learning process. Nevertheless, it was noted from his reaction to his teaching that he made every possible effort in his own way to make learning meaningful and develop his students' basic skills for language learning as well as those of linguistic and communicative competence.

According to him, he tended to prefer the 'multi method' approach to teaching English. Among these methods he found the 'communicative language teaching approach' to be useful in developing students' linguistic and communicative competence since it enabled them to produce utterances in both written and spoken forms. He also expressed the need for professional autonomy so that he might put his thoughts and beliefs into practice freely.

Becher and Maclure (1978, p.13) maintained that "the work of curriculum development is not completed till it has actually penetrated the classroom and influenced what goes on between individual teachers and individual learners". Silberstein (1979, p.38) expressed similar views that "curriculum development does not end with the creation of teaching-learning situations in the classroom, and ... in this the teacher plays
a crucial and decisive role" (p.38). Since teachers are 'direct receivers' of the innovation, they must be aware of that innovation and its implication on classroom processes. Hence Shulman (1979) suggested that any changes in curriculum and instruction must be mediated through the minds, motives and activities of the participants. It appears from the data analysis that if innovation was developed and implemented through a 'power-coercive' strategy, then the innovation would create an 'uncertain situation' for teachers to translate new ideas into practice. This gives rise to practical problems for teachers in the classroom.

8.4.2.1 PRACTICAL PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED DURING INTERACTIVE TEACHING

Mr Siddiqui's comments on the implementation of the new curriculum, suggested that he only knew about the innovative curriculum via the school circular. He further mentioned that there were no explicit guidelines about how to teach the new curriculum. The teacher was therefore placed at the mercy of the forces which inhibited change by engendering powerlessness and confusion. Thus, Mr. Siddiqui carried out his traditional practice with some slight modifications in order to survive in the classroom. However, he described the following practical problems encountered while making sense of innovation in the classroom. These problems are classified into three major categories namely governing, frame and social (see Figure 8.6).
Figure 8.6 Practical problems encountered during interactive phase of teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>NATURE OF THE PROBLEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. GOVERNING FACTORS</td>
<td>* Teacher's implicit theory of teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Teacher's personal theories</td>
<td>* Teacher's commitment to the teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of teaching)</td>
<td>* Teacher's personal interpretation of the innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. FRAME FACTORS</td>
<td>* Reliance on imported innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Instructional milieu)</td>
<td>* Lack of awareness of the innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Inadequate professional knowledge to meet demands of innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of professional autonomy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of clear guidelines about teaching content and methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Non-availability of teaching aids.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of communication between curriculum developers and teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Mismatch between actual demands of examination and desired goals of innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of supportive mechanism at the classroom level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. SOCIAL FACTORS</td>
<td>* Lack of friendly atmosphere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Learning milieu)</td>
<td>* Students' individual differences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of cooperation between teacher and Head, and between teacher and teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Frequent interruption in the classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of physical facilities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

176
The governing factor is related to the teacher's personal ideology and belief system. The frame factor is associated with the instructional milieu and the social factor deals with the learning milieu. This suggests strong implications for a curriculum change policy. In other words, the innovative doctrines failed to realise the desired goals at the classroom level. It is argued that such situations will occur until efforts are made to understand the context in which teachers work. Given the situation, Calderhead (1984) suggested that before designing a curriculum, one should discover the significant features of the context in which the intended curriculum will be operated.

The complexity of the context can be partly seen in the following quote:

Today the Head admitted four new students... I made the sitting arrangement for only one student and the remaining three were standing during the teaching period. I pointed this out to the Head and Deputy as well, but they simply told me that we had to accommodate these students because they belonged to this area. As a sign of protest I have refused to teach the class until the desks are provided...

(Teacher diary)  
(14.5.1987)

Mr. Siddiqui also expressed the need to allow teachers to put their thoughts and beliefs freely into their teaching. This would help him in improving the existing situation. Hence a viable alternative framework is needed in which both teacher and students could understand each other's perspective which would not only help in establishing a friendly relationship but also lead to an efficient teaching-learning process. The following are extracts from the transcription of Mr. Siddiqui's reflections on his daily teaching, highlighting the different aspects of his teaching:

(a) **Reflection on the lack of use of audio visual aids**
I think my teaching was not as successful as I was expecting... Anyway, I did my best... Since students displayed their lack of interest, therefore, I changed my teaching style, but fruitful results have not been achieved so far... In this lesson (Mound of the Dead), I had to use AV aids while describing different articles found from the ruins, but I could not find them. To be very frank, I have never been to this place, nor my students, therefore, I found it difficult to teach this lesson...
(b) Reflection on mental planning
Having long experience, I didn't need to plan a lesson in black and white. However, I had plans in my mind, I can easily change them... By this time (lesson of Helen Keller) I started the lesson with students' reading rather than my model reading... Although many students found difficulty in pronouncing words correctly... I believe that by trial and error, they will not only learn effectively but develop their self-confidence which may lead them to adopt the self-directed learning approach...

(Teacher's vocal emphasis)

(c) Reflection on his role
You might have noticed changes in my role while teaching this lesson [Health is wealth]... I tended to manage and monitor the teaching activities rather than directing the students. Each student was eager to participate, I have never ever seen such enthusiasm of the students with learning... Although I couldn't give individual attention to each student because of inadequate teaching time... As a matter of fact, I can't apply this style because of the pressure of the examination... I've no hesitation to say that this type of learning is more efficient and spontaneous...

8.4.2.2 TEACHER'S REACTION TO THE RESEARCHER'S COMMENTS
After having completed each observation, I made some of the comments on the different aspects of the classroom processes to draw out Mr. Siddiqui's reaction in order to understand his personal 'world'.

Relevant extracts of the teacher's reaction taken from the transcriptions are given below.

(a) The excessive use of mother tongue in the classroom
I do agree with your comments. You know I'm a qualified English teacher... Believe me I'm unaware of many changes which have taken place in the linguistic and language pedagogy... Anyway, I frequently used English in the classroom and encouraged the students to respond in English... Many students were unable to understand simple spoken English because the proper attention was not given at middle stage level... Therefore, it is wise to teach them through their mother tongue so as to make their learning easy and get them through the examination...

(b) Lack of students' oral skills
You know, we (teachers) are bound to follow the restricted and mechanistic concept of teaching and prepare the students for examination which is only reading and writing oriented... I know if I failed to get my students through the examination, everybody would blame me as incompetent and soon... But no one has yet asked me about the lack of students' oral skills... I know, it is exploitation of language teaching, I'm helpless, I can't do anything more...
(c) Lack of classroom interaction
Yes, you are right, I know it is one of the major drawbacks of my teaching... I noticed that there was low level students' participation in the classroom. It is a natural phenomenon because of having a mixed ability group of students... No doubt, without students' effective participation, meaningful learning can't take place... You might have noticed that our students are very much reliant on 'spoon-feeding'. It is not the students' fault, but our education system and the personnel at the helm are responsible for that...

(d) Lack of individual attention
Within limited teaching time, it is difficult to give attention to each student... However, the slow learners deserve more attention than the fast learners...

(e) Lack of the use of innovative method
To be frank I don't know much about the audio lingual method... But I know it is similar to the direct method... I've no access to the literature of language pedagogy, therefore, I prefer to use those methods through which I can easily teach the syllabus... It doesn't mean that I'm against the innovative methods, I'll welcome any new idea which helps to improve the teaching-learning process...

(f) Use of corporal punishment
Well, corporal punishment is prohibited in the educational institutions... Being a human being, I'm not in favour of any sort of punishment... You know the human behaviour is different from animal's behaviour... Really, it is a pity when I apply all the possible strategies to teach the students and in spite of that, I can't get response from them, then the last choice is punishment, otherwise, I'll not get my students through the examination...

(g) Occurrence of interruptive events in the classroom
Yes, owing to these factors [school circular, Head's call, my telephone etc] the teaching-learning process is badly affected, but these are all beyond my control. Everybody knows that this is interruption... I think it is part and parcel of our learning milieu, you can't get rid of them. Sometimes, it really annoys me when somebody from outside interrupts me, particularly when the teaching-learning process is at high climax and students are actively participating to complete the work...

(Teacher's vocal emphasis)

(h) Lack of the students' autonomy and freedom in the teaching-learning process
You know our teaching is based on the restricted view of education... All the learning activities are predetermined by the curriculum developers who don't know the mental age, interest, and abilities of the students... Teaching is considered as goal oriented rather than moral activity... If you think that the students' autonomy is restricted by the teachers, then I'll not agree with you, because we are both sailing in the same boat and are victims of the system...

(Teacher's vocal emphasis)
It is clear from Mr. Siddiqui's reflections that the teacher seems to be the 'faithful servant' of the system in which he works and follows blindly the school ethos. Given this situation, it is argued that teachers cannot be blamed for the failure of the innovation until their voice is given due consideration. I strongly agree with Hurst (1981) that:

> in developing countries - [teachers] are willing (and often anxious) to see such improvements... [but] they will not work a lot harder for the sake of doubtful benefits when their own working conditions are so bad, and they cannot make good ideas work without the means to do so.

(p.192)

In addition, Johnson (1989a) maintained that the successful implementation of innovation depended on the active engagement and cooperation of all the participants throughout the process of curriculum development and effective organisational structure.

8.4.3 TEACHER'S REFLECTIONS ON THE POST-ACTIVE TEACHING

Mr. Siddiqui gave me the impression that he could not afford the required time to think about his past teaching activities because of his preoccupation with other social activities at home. However, before he entered the classroom, he would conceptually set out the strategy to overcome the past issues related to classroom processes. He also pointed out that owing to the lack of professional autonomy, he was only supposed to work to the approved policy within the given framework. However, for survival in the classroom he would employ the 'domination' strategy (see Wood 1979) while controlling the students' disruptive behaviour in the classroom. As he remarked, it "was necessary for him to maintain the classroom discipline". Sometimes he would use 'socialisation' and 'morale-boosting' survival strategies in the
classroom. According to him, the teacher should be fully prepared to
face the classroom rather than having to rely on these strategies.

8.5 ANALYSIS OF FOCUSED GRIDS 1 and 2

Figure 8.7 represents the FOCUSed grid 1 on Mr. Siddiqui's perceptions
of the teaching methods. Looking at the element tree, there appear 2
main clusterings. Cluster one (E9, E8, E7, E6, E5 and E4) is relatively
larger than cluster two (E2, E3 and E1). In cluster one E8 (Structural
method) and E7 (Natural method) are a highly matching pair (93%) and
form a sub-cluster at node 10. Further, E6 (Communicative language
teaching method) and E5 (Situational language teaching method) are a
nearly related pair (78%) and form a second sub-cluster at node 12. It
is interesting to note that the second sub-cluster is loosely related to
the first sub-cluster. However, these methods have been rated on the
emergent pole which suggests that Mr. Siddiqui tends to perceive these
methods to be useful in his teaching. E9 (Silent way method) and E4
(Audio lingual method) stand aloof in cluster one. This indicates that
Mr. Siddiqui does not seem to make as much use of these methods in his
teaching. However, he tends to use the multi-method approach in English
teaching as he explained:

Well, believe me, I don't know much about the practical
implications of the innovative method, but you can't ignore
other methods which give you good results and make students
satisfied... I'll prefer to use multi-method approach... it
is not really worthwhile to rely on only one method, I can't
find any significant difference between the traditional and
innovative methods...

(Grid conversation)

It appears from the above quote as well as from the analysis of the
element tree that the innovative audio lingual method is perceived by
him to be least effective in teaching. He further explained that:
Figure 8.7 FOCUSed grid 1 (teaching methods)
This method may have advantages for developing students' oral skills... but it also makes extra demands on the part of teachers and students to use English as a means of communication in the classroom, which is not always possible... This method can't be successful until it is introduced at the threshold level...

(Interview)

Cluster two contains E3 (Audio-visual method), E1 (Grammar-translation method) and E2 (Direct method). The first two elements are perceived to be similar and the last one appears to be least linked (71%) with the pair of E3 and E1. Since these three methods have been rated on the implicit pole on most of the constructs, it can be said that these methods receive low preferences for use in the classroom. This indicates the teacher's dissatisfaction with these methods, which was also confirmed from the interviews.

An examination of the construct tree shows that there are two main clusters. C4 (improves students' handwriting), C1 (develops students' reading skills) and C3 (develops students' speaking skills) form cluster one. C4 and C1 are a highly matching pair (100%) and C3 is loosely related to the pair. This indicates that the teacher tends to consider reading skills and students' hand-writing to be developed by slightly different methods than those which develop speaking skills. In cluster two, C6 (develops students' ability to manipulate syntax), C7 (use of correct articles) and C8 (use of appropriate forms of verb) form a joint sub-cluster having 100% matching score. C5 (developing students' listening skills) and C2 (developing students' writing skills) are least linked with the joint sub-cluster which shows that the teacher's teaching approach appears to be more concerned with 'formal' than 'functional' oriented methods. This was also confirmed during the
interview when he noted that more than half marks (60%) are assigned to the non-textual items in the examination. Therefore the teacher tends to give high weighting to methods which emphasise the teaching of non-textual items (such as forms of verb, articles, idioms etc). (See also Dove 1986).

Figure 8.8 presents the analysis of the FOCUSed Grid - 2 for Mr. Siddiqui on his role as an English teacher. The element tree diagram displays two main clusters regarding aspects of the teacher's role. In cluster one, E4 (to maintain friendly relationship with students) and E9 (to develop students' confidence while speaking English) are a closely related pair (87%) and form a sub-cluster at node 10. The other pair contains E2 (to encourage students to converse in English) and E7 (convey enthusiasm for English) which are related and matched at 84% score level. Two other elements - to make lesson planning interesting (E3), and to teach understanding through various methods (E5), are loosely linked within cluster one. These perceived aspects of the teacher's role have a strong bearing on the students' learning. His perceived role is justified in the following way:

Though our code of education system envisages the demarcation between teacher and student's status, no doubt teacher has an important role to play in the formal education process. Teacher is considered as a possessor of knowledge and students as passive recipients... What I've observed is that the students learn more when they are free of anxiety and fear of teacher... If teacher doesn't accommodate students' feelings and their personal meanings, then their learning becomes meaningless... Our job should be to understand the students' feelings and reactions from the inside...

(Grid conversation)

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To make lesson planning interesting
- To encourage the students to converse in English
- To convey enthusiasm for English
- To maintain friendly relationship with the students
- To develop students' confidence
- To develop students' creative thinking

- To provide feedback when marking students' work

- To motivate the students for learning English

- Students' previous experience

- Students' prior exposure to learning

- Students need for learning

- Students' effective learning environment

- Students need for full participation

- Meaningful learning

- Continuous assessment

- Of Mr. Stuart

Figure 8.3: Focus on graded (teacher's role)
In cluster two, the rest of the aspects of his role - to develop creative thinking (E8), to provide feedback when marking students' work (E6) and to motivate the students (E1), receive 3s and 4s rating on most of the constructs, which shows that Mr. Siddiqui seems to be reluctant to acknowledge their influence on the students' learning.

Looking at the construct tree, there appears one predominant cluster in which all the clusters except Cl and C6 are related at a 70% level. Each of them conveys the impact of the teacher's perceived role in terms of continuous assessment: (C3); meaningful learning (C8); students pay full attention (C5); removes students' anxiety (C2); optimum use of time (C4); raises the standard of teaching English (C7), and may be referred to as the 'process-product' orientation of the classroom learning. According to him product cannot be ignored:

We cannot isolate product from process and vice versa.... Both are dependent on each other... The existing falling standard of education is a result of emphasising the product to make people more educated... Though we need to increase literacy it doesn't mean that we should forget the quality... we ought to pay equal attention to both quality and quantity...

(Grid conversation)

8.5.1 TEACHER'S REFLECTIONS ON THE ANALYSIS OF HIS GRIDS

Mr. Siddiqui's reflections on his grids are given below:

I'm very happy to see my personal views on the teaching methods and role as English teacher in the classroom. The patterns of the analysis of both grids were quite interesting and appealing. I didn't find any difficulty in understanding them. Your explicit guidelines were quite helpful which were written in easy language, however, it would be better if I could talk in your presence.
Anyway I'm quite satisfied with my personal construct system... I don't intend to change any element or construct in both the grids. I agree with your observations on grid - 1 about teaching methods, but in grid - 2 about my role I would like to make comments on your observation. I agree that I see my role as a 'facilitator' but I would like to add a few words that the social system doesn't allow me to teach according to my wishes... I don't claim myself to be dynamic but I also want to see my role as facilitator.

(my emphasis)

8.5.2 DISCUSSION ON THE FOCUSed GRIDs 1 and 2

The analysis of the FOCUSed grid 1 reveals that Mr. Siddiqui considered a 'multi-method' approach to be effective in his teaching of English:

Teacher's knowledge should not be static, he must enrich his expertise and professional knowledge day by day. I know new teaching approaches have been taking place rapidly. Every teacher should have up to date information on pedagogical aspects of his role... There is no harm to apply new ideas and say goodbye to traditional ones. I think it is beneficial for both the teacher and taught. Teacher must use various methods to match with the demands of the students' learning.

(Grid conversation)

The data also suggest that he tended to develop students' linguistic competence to satisfy the increasing demands of the examination. It is also interesting to note that Mr. Siddiqui tended to show his dislike for the prescribed audio-lingual method because it does not match the contextual reality. In other words, it can be said that the audio-lingual method does not suit the demands of the public examination. The analysis of the grid indicates that Mr. Siddiqui tended to dislike the grammar-translation method in his teaching. Conversely, it was observed
that he tended to give more importance to this method in his teaching practice. This suggests disjunction between his 'espoused theory' and 'theory-in-use' owing to the influence of contextual factors (see Day 1984).

The analysis of the FOCUSed grid 2 shows that Mr. Siddiqui seemed to be more inclined to adopt an 'interpretation' style of teaching, perhaps as an influence of John Dewey's progressive views of curriculum and instruction:

Since Dewey's revolution in education I have been reading about 'discovery learning', 'problem solving' and 'child centred' approaches in learning... I'm not sure any of them have been officially introduced in our learning milieu... The teaching and learning process itself is a complex and reflexive activity. It is a continuously thinking process for both teacher and taught. We should offer opportunities and facilitate the students' learning to think and conceptualise every bit of information and make sure the students have assimilated new information... Students must find a way to use language in the social context and teacher must be the facilitator...

(Teacher's vocal emphasis)
(Interview)

It is worth mentioning here that in spite of his perceived 'interpretation' style of pedagogy, he also tended to employ the 'teacher domination' strategy and rote learning (noted during the observation). According to Mr. Siddiqui, sometimes "these strategies seemed to be necessary to achieve the teaching goals".
8.6 DATA AND INTERPRETATION FROM THE GRID CONVERSATION, INTERVIEW AND TEACHER'S DIARY

(a) VIEWS ON TEACHING AND LEARNING IN ENGLISH

Mr. Siddiqui thought that the teachers should depart from the conventional view of teaching and learning, i.e. that the subject matter should be a 'commodity to be transferred to the student's mind by the act of teaching'. Teachers must consider students as human beings having their own values and feelings to appreciate their learning. Therefore teachers should consider their freedom and autonomy to learn in their own preferred ways. He said:

Teaching is a quite tough and technical job, it is not easy that everyone can teach. To me it is unwise to allocate teaching English periods to everyone... You know teaching demands some sort of special expertise...

(Grid conversation)

Our teaching should not only be focused on teaching linguistic competence as I'm doing at the moment... Our students must know how to use language in the particular social context... Students' learning should contribute towards improvement of both the linguistic and communicative competence...

(Interview)

Coordinating Mr. Siddiqui's data on his theory of teaching within the scheme of 'Personal Theories of Teaching' (see figure 8.9), it is interesting to note that he tends to adopt both the 'simple' and 'developed' theories (Fox (1983)). Perhaps this reflects his long experience as a teacher.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transfer Theory</th>
<th>Teaching Theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Develop creative thinking</td>
<td>Provide feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrate perspectives</td>
<td>Refashioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help the students to understand</td>
<td>Get the student passed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explore genuine for genuine learning</td>
<td>Improve English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop genuine opportunities</td>
<td>Teach vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide the students to solve</td>
<td>Teach the concept as it is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide problem solving and present</td>
<td>Improve English through exam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interact context in the</td>
<td>Teach personal perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote intellectual ability</td>
<td>Build foundation of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop the students to solve</td>
<td>Important knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrate perspectives</td>
<td>Students for another</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8.9 Mr. Smith's personal theories of teaching classified in the right of the scheme of Dement Fox (1983)
(b) VIEWS ON TEACHING CONTENT

Mr. Siddiqui expressed his dissatisfaction with the content of the curriculum which he teaches:

You know, each subject has its own identity, if you mix up English with history or other subjects, then what do you expect from our students... I mean this is a case with our content of teaching English. Each topic is so uninteresting, dry where there is no interesting exercise or dialogue... Sometimes I'm really confused either I'm teaching English or history... Content should be based on functional-notional approach of curriculum design to make students able to learn both the forms and functions of the language which should be a main purpose of language teaching...

(Interview)

He further described:

Today I taught about the 'secret of success'. I think that the title of lesson should be 'winning prize'... Anyway, this lesson seems to be fallacy rather than reality... You can imagine the drawback of the content appeared in the students' different questions. 'Sir, it is a story about King... Where does he belong to?...If he belongs to different country how is it possible to announce prize in rupees, why not in his own currency?... To be frank, I had no answer of these questions... I think there is no use of such lessons...

Teacher's daily diary
(2.11.1987)

(c) VIEWS ON CURRICULUM INNOVATION AND ITS IMPACT ON LEARNING

Mr. Siddiqui thought that the innovation was not rationally planned considering the actual learning situation. He also considered that the
innovation was not properly diffused or disseminated, so that it failed to change the attitude of the teachers, nor did it achieve the goals of the innovative curriculum. As he explained:

So far as my opinion is concerned, I really don't see any change in my practice... Change must come from the bottom not from the top. I believe nobody can change the situation until the teachers play their part as 'change agents' or catalysts and not receivers of the innovative doctrines...

(Interview)

He further described:

I've almost completed syllabus, therefore, I thought that I should give practice speaking to my students. Majority of them were enjoying it. All of a sudden, the Education Officer paid a surprise visit to my class... He asked me to stop juggling. Let me see students' fair notebooks... Now tell me what I can do...

Teacher's daily diary
(21.12.1987)

The above views indicate that if a teacher on his own departs from the traditional role (maintaining classroom discipline and checking students' fair notebooks etc) to the progressive role, he is discouraged in many ways. I strongly agree with Saeed (1977) that the supervisory staff, who are often unaware of the innovation, serve as a major barrier for the curriculum change.

(e) VIEWS ON SUPPORTIVE MECHANISM AT CLASSROOM LEVEL

According to Mr. Siddiqui supportive mechanisms can give a lot of help to the teacher in solving his daily problems encountered during teaching. During the observation it was noted that the teacher badly
needed professional support from the school to guide his action in order to implement the new ideas in the classroom. Furthermore, it may dispel the teacher's anxiety about his survival in the classroom. In this connection, he said:

Indeed, supportive mechanism can solve the teacher's problems arising owing to the implementation of new ideas... The Head is 'Jack of all trades and master of none' and can't help the staff particularly in their pedagogical problems...

(Interview)
(My emphasis)

(f) VIEWS ON TEACHER'S PARTICIPATION IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
Mr. Siddiqui considered that he was deprived of his professional interest, autonomy and participation in the curriculum development process. According to him, the subject experts, selected from tertiary education, have no experience of teaching secondary classes, nor do they know the school phenomenology in which both the teachers and taught face practical problems. He believes that teachers' participation in the curriculum will help the curriculum developers change policy and overcome the issues of the failure of innovation.

(g) VIEWS ON EXAMINATION ORIENTED TEACHING
He stated that the examination was considered as a yardstick to measure both the teacher's and students' performance and effectiveness of innovation. He further said that the examination pattern was mainly based on the selective function of education, therefore teachers would cover only those parts of the syllabus which seemed to be examinable, while the other parts were ignored. There therefore appears to be an
inconsistency between the actual demands of the examination and the desired goals of innovation.

(h) VIEWS ON TEACHING PROFESSION
According to Mr. Siddiqui, the majority of teachers, (like himself), entered the teaching world when they lost all hope of lucrative jobs where they could make more money. In order to make the teaching profession more attractive, there is a need to raise their socio-economic status. He further suggested that to bring his profession to a par with other professions, there was a need to organise a professional body to deal with teachers' selection and their academic and professional attainments. It seems that such drastic steps would not only lead to raising the status of the teaching profession, but also enhance professionalism among the teachers.

8.7 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE STUDENTS' INTERVIEW DATA

8.7.1 STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR LEARNING STRATEGIES
From the interview transcriptions two major categories regarding students' learning strategies have emerged. These two categories have been labelled as follows:

1. Teacher Oriented Learning (TOL)
2. Activity Oriented Learning (AOL)

Category one conveys the idea that the teacher is considered as a source of knowledge and the learner is treated as a passive recipient of knowledge, what Rogers (1983) refers to as the politics of a 'jug and mug' theory of education. Category two subsumes the view of education as a process of development which only takes place when learning is directly related to the interest of the learner. Thus the teacher's job
is not to transmit the 'nuggets' but to facilitate students' learning through developing their critical thinking, that is the politics of 'whole person learning' or 'person centred learning' theory of education (Rogers 1983).

Out of 10 students, 7 preferred to adopt the AOL strategy and the remaining 3 preferred to adopt the TOL strategy while doing their tasks. It is pertinent to mention here that those students who preferred to adopt the TOL strategy thought that it would help them to accomplish their task in terms of receiving and memorising the knowledge imparted by the teacher for an examination pass. Hence, it can be said that 'academic achievement' was the main aim and fear of failure of the examination was the main reason to adopt a TOL strategy. It appeared from the students' interviews that those who preferred to adopt the AOL strategy might change their learning strategy subject to change of task. Further students' data suggested that those who adopted the TOL strategy were likely to use the 'surface level approach' (Marton and Säljö 1976). This can be seen in the following examples taken from the transcripts.

**Examples from transcripts:**

**Example 1**

Teacher Oriented Learning

I've been told that if I don't rely on teacher's knowledge, I'll be failed in the examination. It happened with many friends of mine...

Surface level approach

I only try to learn main points of the subject matter by heart. If I forget after the examination, I don't mind.

(Muhammad Akram)
Example 2
Teacher Oriented Learning
Surface level approach
You know, my basic aim of secondary education is to get matric certificate for doing any job. Therefore, I'll prefer to learn via teacher...

It is understood when someone gets ideas from the teacher's mouth, then you don't need to think critically.

(Abdul Ghani)

Example 3
Teacher Oriented Learning
Surface level approach
Really, I'm getting sick of teacher's authoritarian attitude. But I've no alternative... I've to tolerate until I pass my exam...

I don't need to concentrate while remembering the teaching content... I used to repeat each sentence until I learn it by heart.

(Muhammad Ibrahim)

Some students preferred to adopt the AOL strategy because it facilitated them in developing their critical thinking. It can be said that 'personal development as a whole' was the main aim, and learning through solving problems was the main reason for adopting the AOL strategy. The data further suggested that those who tended to adopt the AOL strategy were likely to use 'deep level approach' (Marton and Säljö 1976). This may be seen in the following examples taken from the transcripts:

Examples from transcripts:

Example 1
Activity Oriented Learning
I like learning which is free from fear of the teacher... Teacher
should be mediator between learner and content of learning...

Deep level approach

Before involving myself in the task, I deeply think and negotiate with my peer group how to deal with the problem...

(Nazir Ahmad)

Example 2

Activity Oriented Learning

When I work with the peers I feel free myself from any sort of anxiety, we can talk freely... Teacher should only guide us...

Deep level approach

When I involve in the practical work, I go through its pros and cons... After long deliberative process we find solution to the problem...

(Bashir Ahmad)

It is interesting to note that those who tended to adopt the TOL strategy, despite a preference for the AOL strategy, seemed to be influenced by their learning task and their teacher's teaching style which were both predominantly examination oriented. This suggests that these two decisive factors compel the students to adopt for their academic achievement the TOL strategy which ignored the empathic understanding and the establishment of a climate for self-initiated and experiential learning. Thus the students' personal choice and freedom for learning was restricted by the context in which learning took place. This was also confirmed from the students' perceptions of their English teacher's teaching style, as can be seen in the following Section.
8.7.2 STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR TEACHERS' TEACHING STYLE

From the analysis of the students' protocols it appeared that out of 10 students, 7 tended to dislike Mr. Siddiqui's teaching style in terms of his 'erratic behaviour', little effort to understand the students' reactions, and predominantly examination and rote learning oriented teaching. This indicates a mismatch between teacher's teaching style and students' learning intentions which also support the earlier findings, discussed in Section 8.7.1. The relevant extracts highlighting students' perceptions of their teacher's teaching style are given below.

**VIEWS IN FAVOUR**

He makes every possible effort to explain and demonstrate each new concept and tries to relate new information with the students' existing knowledge...

(Abdul Majeed)

No doubt his teaching is syllabus bound, but he doesn't make students feel uninteresting teaching...

(Abdul Aziz)

**VIEWS IN DISFAVOUR**

He always talks too much and leaves no room for students to share their views with him. I hate such teaching because it doesn't contribute towards the meaningful learning...

(Nazir Ahmad)

Though teacher has vast knowledge and experience but it doesn't mean that he should impose his ideas upon the students... I've no hesitation to say that our schools are not in any way different from the prisons...

(Bashir Ahmad)

(vocal emphasis)
Our English teacher has got examination phobia, every time he talks about the questions to be expected in the examination... I think that the teacher needs to create such environment in which the students may negotiate learning task leading to develop their competence and language skills...

(Mujeeb Ali)
(vocal emphasis)

The majority of the students disliking their teacher's teaching style stressed that Mr. Siddiqui failed to consider and match his teaching style with the students' preferred style of learning because of the increasing demands of the examination. It was also confirmed from the classroom observation during the 'question-answer' session that the majority of the students seemed to be reluctant to respond to the teacher, particularly while the teacher was asking 'closed' questions. Given this situation, the teacher's extreme style of teaching may contribute towards the adoption of students' 'surface level' learning strategy. This is perceived to be a general phenomenon reported in the literature on students' learning (see Becker et al. (1968), Snyder (1971) and Zubir (1983)). Hence, Entwistle (1981) suggested a 'versatile style' of teaching to accommodate students' individual learning approaches. Olson (1980) and Olson and Eaton (1987) suggested 'reflexive' teaching, responsive to the context of learning. I believe that such a view of teaching will not only facilitate the teachers in matching their teaching with students' expectations and learning strategies, but also help them to overcome the practical problems of their teaching.
At the outset of the case study, it was mentioned that Mr. Siddiqui gradually developed an enthusiasm for his teaching profession when he lost all hope of joining other professions. This appeared to be a 'common phenomenon' noted across all the male probationers and experienced teachers (see chapter 10) [for female teachers see chapter 9]. Hurst (1981) found that those teachers who had low commitment and enthusiasm "have little more faith in their colleagues and superiors than they have in themselves" (p.190).

Given this situation, the teacher relies on his well established and tried habitual practice for 'survival' in the classroom. It was noted that during 'uncertain situations' Mr. Siddiqui tended to adopt various survival strategies such as 'domination', 'socialisation' and 'morale-boosting' (see Wood 1979). It is argued that these strategies may help the teacher in meeting his 'survival needs' in the classroom but may not be consistent with the students' expectations and learning approaches. Thus the students may be likely to adopt the 'surface' level learning strategy.

Mr. Siddiqui thought that the innovation was not properly diffused and disseminated: he heard about the innovation through the 'school circular', which did not provide explicit guidelines on how to translate the innovative ideas into practice. It is strongly argued that successful implementation of innovation depends on change in the belief system and practice of the curriculum users as well as change in the organisational structure to facilitate the teachers in their actions. In the absence of these suggested measures, I agree with Hurst (1981)
that it is not wise to ask the teachers to change their old routines at short notice without providing necessary resources. Hence, the teachers cannot be made scapegoats for the failure of curriculum reforms.

The data suggests that Mr. Siddiqui's teaching routines contained two main sequences: first, he would deliver goods mostly without using the 'audio-visual aids'. Secondly, he would check the students' understanding-cum-memorisation about the teaching content by asking mostly 'closed' questions to be expected in the examination. This left no room for the students' active participation in the classroom process. Sometimes, the teacher would depart from his traditional style of questioning to 'Cook's Tour' and 'Freewheeling' (see Walker and Adelman 1975). This allowed the students to practise speaking English and further led to creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom.

The data indicates that the teacher's 'preactive' and 'interactive' phases of teaching appeared to be mainly aimed to complete the examination syllabus, without providing adequate explanations to the students. According to him, his efficiency was judged in terms of covering the syllabus, students' pass number, and attainment of high grades. Therefore, Mr. Siddiqui tended to focus his teaching on only those learning items which contained the greatest weighting in the marking system, such as non-textual teaching items - articles, idioms, prepositions, active-passive voice and direct-indirect speech etc which obtained 60% weighting in the examination.

Thus the teacher tended to ignore the unexaminable part (developing students' listening and speaking skills) of the syllabus. These findings seem to be consistent with Olson (1980) in the context of
developed countries and Leong (1982) and Morris (1985) in developing countries. Thus, it can be said that the teacher deviated from the original version of the innovative curriculum in order to meet the increasing demands of the 'actual context' of learning and his conflicting task based on the 'selective function of education'. This led to generating a discrepancy between the actual demands of the learning context manifested in the importance attached to the examination and the desired goals of the innovative curriculum, as well as creating a mismatch between the teacher's teaching style and students' learning strategies. The students' interview protocols suggest that the majority of students tended to adopt the TOL strategy because of fear of failing the examination and corporal punishment by the teacher.

Thus 'academic achievement' was perceived to be the main aim and 'fear of failure of examination' and 'fear of teacher's punishment' were considered as main reasons. Otherwise, these students might change their learning strategies depending on the nature of the task, which was confirmed from their interviews. I agree with Laurillard (1978) and with others that the students' learning approach varies from task to task. These findings are further supported by the students' perception of their teacher's teaching style. The data shows that the majority of students tended to dislike their teacher's teaching style because it was predominantly examination oriented. Hence the perceived mismatch may hinder the process of curriculum change. Rudduck (1986) maintained that "effective change is largely dependent on building a shared understanding" between teachers and students.
On the other hand, inappropriately devised and supported innovations also caused inconsistency between the teacher's thoughts and action. For example, the teacher tended to perceive his role as 'facilitator' in terms of maintaining a friendly relationship with the students, developing students' confidence while speaking English, encouraging students to converse in English and making the lesson plan interesting through various methods. Conversely, in practice, he tended to attach more importance to his traditional role - 'instructor' rooted in the politics of the 'jug and mug' theory of education (see Rogers 1983). While perceiving the effectiveness of several teaching methods, he tended to consider a 'multi-method' approach generally a humanistic oriented method - 'communicative language teaching' in particular - as effective in his teaching. However, his classroom practice appeared to be overwhelmingly dominated by the 'grammar-translation method' and the students' mother tongue was used as the main medium of classroom discourse. Hence, the teacher's action was constrained by his perception of his task and contextual factors [see Keddie (1971) and Day (1984)].

The data further suggests that an officially prescribed 'audio lingual method' was perceived to be least effective or was ignored as being dysfunctional to meet the needs of the learning milieu. It is interesting to note that external factors (see figure 8.2) contributed towards classroom interruption. Thus more than half of the teaching time could be described as 'wasted'. This has a significant influence on the teaching-learning process. In addition, other factors such as inadequate knowledge of the innovative teaching method, lack of professional knowledge of the subject matter, lack of professional autonomy, lack of supportive mechanism, irrelevant content of the
textbook and the lack of physical facilities etc which affected the process of implementation of the innovative curriculum, were identified and categorised in figure 8.6. This also suggests that the process of curriculum translation into practice was equally hindered by the governing, framing and social factors which have direct implications for the curriculum change policy.

An argument which seems to be valid in this connection is that of Fullan's (1972) that those innovations which were developed external to the schools and imposed upon the teachers and taught, led to 'no significant change at the user level'. Such reactions can be captured in the phrase 'innovation without change'. In order to save time, energy and the national resource, there is a felt need to change the curriculum policy, based on the learning complexities of the classroom.
CHAPTER NINE

CASE STUDY 2: MISS EIJAZ

AN ACCOUNT OF A PREDOMINANTLY TRANSMISSION
PEDAGOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

Effective change is largely dependent on building a shared understanding of the intended change among the members of a working group - and in particular the working group of a teacher and his or her pupils.

(Rudduck 1986, p.107)

9.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, a case study of a male urban experienced teacher who holds an 'interpretation' perspective of teaching (see Barnes 1976) was described. The case study in this chapter portrays an account of a female urban probationer teacher who holds a 'transmission' pedagogical perspective. Her reflections on the implementation of centrally planned innovation, its impact on the teaching-learning process in EACL, the practical problems she encounters during the 'preactive' and 'interactive' phases of teaching, and her 'coping strategies' to resolve them which may provide a deep insight into understanding the process of curriculum change, are discussed in detail. Further, an attempt is made to understand how her students perceive the relationship between their teacher's teaching style and their learning strategies which also may have implications for curriculum change policy.

9.1 INSTITUTIONAL SETTING

This case study was conducted in a Government Girls Secondary Urdu Medium School which is situated in a densely populated urban area in
Karachi. It accommodates the maximum number of female students because of the scarcity of girls schools. Despite this, it is a small school consisting of 9 rooms. The size of each room is hardly big enough to accommodate 60 to 70 students at a time. The building of this school is annexed to a girls primary school and an intermediate girls college. Compared to other Government schools, it lacks all the basic 'physical facilities' required for healthy organisation. To effect administration and supervision, a female Additional Director of Education, District Education Officers, Deputy and Sub-Divisional Education Officers, along with their supporting staff are appointed at regional, district and sub-divisional levels respectively.

Owing to religious, social and cultural values, no strange male person is allowed to enter the girls school premises except for parents or senior male education officers from the education department. This school works in two shifts: morning and evening. The former shift runs from 7.30 a.m. to 12 noon and the latter from 12.30 p.m. to 5 p.m. Like other government schools, it ranges from class six to ten. English is taught as an additional compulsory language as one of the subjects of the core curriculum at secondary school level. Six periods, each of 35 minutes, in a week are allocated to TEACL.

Class ten (Matric) was observed which contained 66 students of mixed ability but with different age groups (15 to 16 years) and of differing socio-economic backgrounds. Three to four students shared a medium size wooden dual desk, probably resulting in physical discomfort. There is no formal dress for the female teachers. Nevertheless, they are required to wear a simple dress with dopatta (a piece of cloth thrown loosely over the head and shoulders) during their teaching. However,
the girl students have compulsory dress (blue shirt, white shalwar with dopatta and black shoes). It was observed that the probationer teachers tended to be reluctant to mix with the experienced teachers and vice versa. It was also observed that the experienced teachers seemed to be more respected among the staff and students and close to the Head of School, perhaps because of their experience and high professional status in the school. It was also noted that the probationer teachers seemed to be more overloaded in terms of teaching periods compared to the experienced teachers (see figure 9.1).

**Figure 9.1** Comparison of experienced and probationer teacher's teaching load.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position of the teacher</th>
<th>Teaching load</th>
<th>Total number of teacher periods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probationer teacher</td>
<td>Subjects: *Eng Eng Eng Maths Maths</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Class : X IX VII X VII</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Periods : 8 6 8</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experienced teacher</td>
<td>Subjects: Eng Eng Urdu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Class : VIA VIB VIA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Periods : 8 8 8</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* English

9.2 PARTICIPANTS' ACCOUNTS

The data used in this case study was collected from a probationer English language teacher who was involved in TEACL to class X (Matric) and 10 students who all voluntarily agreed to participate in this case study.

9.2.1 THE FEMALE URBAN TEACHER'S ACCOUNT

Miss Eijaz (pseudonym) belongs to an upper class family. She was educated through English medium schools, therefore she has quite a good
command of English with a beautiful accent. She specialised in TEACL while studying for a B.Ed. Her interview protocols and repertory grid analysis revealed that her pedagogical perspective falls within the 'transmission perspective'. The analysis of her interpretation of the teaching methods indicates that she seems to have a 'medium level of conceptual understanding' of teaching methods except for the officially prescribed audio lingual method. She entered the teaching world 2 years ago considering it a 'noble profession'. She expressed her views about the profession in the following way:

I'm the only member of my family who joined this profession intentionally after acquiring B.Ed qualification... I'm proud of this profession because it is noble... No doubt there are social barriers and dislikings for this profession, I think it is a general phenomena all over the world related to low salary and low social status in society... Teachers are easily blamed for the failure of any curriculum policy, but no one holds responsibility for that to the policy makers...

(Interview)
(Teacher's vocal emphasis)

9.2.2 STUDENTS' ACCOUNTS

The students who participated in this case study agreed to present their views on their concerns and issues regarding the teaching-learning process in English. Some brief information was obtained through 'preliminary interviews' about their backgrounds and attitude towards learning English (see figure 9.2). This type of conversation not only provided insights into the students' perspective and helped in the preparation of a profile of the group of the students, but also enabled me to establish quick rapport with them for an 'in- depth' interview conducted at a later stage.
### Figure 9.2 Profile of the sample of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name (Pseudonym)</th>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Father's Profession</th>
<th>Attitude towards English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nasira</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Labourer</td>
<td>English is a main barrier in getting through the examination. Equal emphasis should be given to learning the four language skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bushra</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Tailor</td>
<td>English is a source of acquiring modern knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nahida</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>English should be given optional status of foreign language in the curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kulsoom</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Labourer</td>
<td>English should be taught as an optional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilshad</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Shopkeeper</td>
<td>English is my favourite subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nahid</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Labourer</td>
<td>English is the medium of tertiary education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zubeda</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Labourer</td>
<td>English should be an optional subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kausar</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Hairdresser</td>
<td>English is a real hurdle which affects overall performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farzana</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Technician</td>
<td>English should be taught as a functional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rafat</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Learning English is a necessity for Pakistani students in and outside the country.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9.3 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA FROM CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

Class ten was observed over a 6 weeks period. All lessons were audio recorded with the permission of the teacher concerned. Field notes were taken in order to offer comments on the teacher's teaching behaviour immediately after each observation. In addition, some of the recurring events during the teaching process were recorded. These indicated the extent of the 'interruption' to the normal classes which affected the learning milieu (see figure 9.3). It was observed that most of the events seemed to be beyond the teacher's power to overcome them: the Head's visit, teacher's telephone call and the parents' visit during the classroom processes appeared to be the main external factors which interrupted her teaching. Above all, 31% of her teaching time appears to be 'wasted', which affected the classroom practice. The teacher was of the opinion that there was a need to bring about change in the 'school policy' so as to minimise classroom interruption in normal teaching. Explaining a 'Head's visit to the classroom' as an interruption, she said:

If the Head of School observes the classroom practice and guides the teacher in her pedagogical problems, then I would appreciate her. I'm afraid the Head has failed to do so...The Head would enter the classroom and only ask the students about their uniform, cleaning their mouth and teeth, and checking their nails, hair and dopatta or shoes. I think, this is not Head's job. If the Head visits the classroom for this purpose then I have no hesitation to say that it is in fact an 'interference' or 'interruption' from the academic point of view.
This was also confirmed during the observations.

In order to gain further insight into the nature of the discrepancy between the teacher's 'theory in use' and 'theory of action' together with the nature of the practical problems and the teacher's coping strategies to resolve them, the commentaries offered by the teacher (obtained by using the methods of think aloud and stimulated recall) will be discussed later (see Section 9.4).

On the day of my first observation, Miss Eijaz briefly introduced myself and my wife (see Chapter 6, Section 6.8) and I gave a short overview describing the aim of my study and assuring the students about issues of confidentiality. Thirteen students of mixed ability and socio-economic backgrounds volunteered to take part, three subsequently dropped out to leave 10 in total. A point worth mentioning here is that the female
(probationer or experienced) teachers appeared to be more polite, friendly and sympathetic to their students (perhaps because of their maternal affection) than the male teachers. It was observed that the teacher made every possible effort to stimulate and encourage the students to participate in their learning. But these efforts did not prove to be fully successful. Despite her emphasis on using English, she did allow her students to express their views in their mother tongue when they seemed unable to produce their thoughts explicitly in English.

9.3.1 GENERAL FEATURES OF THE CLASSROOM PROCESSES

General impressions gained from the observations are mentioned below:

(a) **Inadequate allocation of teaching periods.**
It was found that the six periods per week were inadequate to teach a foreign language and complete the syllabus. In a period of 35 minutes, the teacher would spend 10 minutes on the attendance register and other necessary queries regarding students' absence and truancy. Owing to the shortness of time left, the teacher postponed eight times her planned classroom activities in ten observed lessons.

(b) **The examination-syllabus-bound teaching activities.**
A central theme of her teaching was to cover the syllabus and give students practice in cramming the content of the lesson for the examination. Therefore, her teaching seemed to be mainly based on the 'habit formation' model of language learning associated with mimicry drills and pattern practices.

(c) **Grammar and translation oriented teaching.**
It was found that great weighting was given to teaching grammar and translation because of the requirements of the examination and
predominant traditional approach in language teaching. This suggests that the teacher would give less importance to the functional approach to language teaching.

(d) **Lack of practice of pronunciation, stress and intonation.**
It appeared that this area of language teaching was totally ignored. Each student pronounced and produced the sound pattern of each word in her own way because of the influence of the mother tongue.

(e) **Lack of emphasis on the development of students' speaking and listening comprehension skills.**
Out of 66 students, only 15 to 20 tried to give a response in 'broken English', whereas the other students were even unable to pronounce the word correctly. The students seemed unable to use their full vocabulary in a particular context.

(f) **Frequent use of traditional methods.**
Teaching seemed to be more reliant on the use of traditional methods than on innovative ones. It may be pointed out here that the recommended innovative method i.e. 'audio lingual', was hardly used in the classroom. The students were unable to speak English or understand it spoken in the classroom by their teacher. The examination system and the content of the textbook appeared to be the main hurdles in using innovative methods; the examination aimed to assess the students' linguistic knowledge, reading and writing skills rather than listening comprehension and speaking skills or communicative competence.

(g) **Irrelevant content of the textbook.**
Since the content of the textbook was based on the formal linguistic approach i.e. 'Structural approach' of syllabus design, there was no lesson based on conversation and dialogue. Hence,
the students seemed to be reluctant to take an active part in the teaching-learning process.

(h) **Lack of classroom communication by the students in the target language.**

The teacher mainly used English as a means of communication in the classroom. Sometimes she would also use the students' mother tongue to facilitate them in their learning. As far as the students were concerned, they frequently used their mother tongue in the classroom because of their lack of competence in speaking English.

(i) **Lack of professional autonomy in the classroom.**

It was observed that the teacher's decisions were tightly 'system bound'. Therefore, she was not allowed to select any content or method other than the prescribed ones. She decided all affairs related to classroom management within the 'framework' or 'instructional milieu' of the existing system. It appears that the teacher had very little freedom to determine classroom activities. Hence her practice was constrained in numerous and quite complex ways.

(j) **Lack of supportive mechanisms at the classroom level.**

There appeared a lack of instructional guidance, an expert system or coordination between Head and teacher and colleagues to help her in solving the problems which she encountered at both the planning and interactive phases of teaching (see Sections 9.4.1.1 and 9.4.1.2).

(k) **Mismatch between teacher's 'theory-in-use' and 'theory of action'.**

The central control of the curriculum and the influence of the external examination system, the school ethos and other contextual factors (see figure 9.6), did not allow her to put her own
intentions into practice. This not only gave rise to inconsistency between the teacher's thinking and practice but also contributed towards dissatisfaction with her role.

### 9.3.2 SPECIFIC FEATURES OF THE CLASSROOM PROCESSES

From the observations of the classroom processes, a 'classroom pattern' evolved containing three main categories: teacher's initiative, students' response and teacher's feedback. Each category consists of a different range of pedagogical functions (PF) as displayed in figure 9.4.

Looking at figure 9.4, it appears that the whole classroom process mainly tends to be based on 'teacher's rephrasing and modelling students' response'. This indicates that the teacher's questioning style tends to fall within the 'closed questioning style' outlined by Walker and Adelman (1975). One of the drawbacks of such a questioning style is that the right answer is logically determined by the teacher and students are expected to give the right answer. Failing that, the teacher rephrases the student's answer and leads her students to focus their attention on one right answer. This not only limits the students' creative and critical thinking but also leaves insufficient room for the students to participate in their learning process and restricts their production of spontaneous utterances in the target language.

It is interesting to note that the teacher gave more attention to 'introducing new information', 'moving quickly to new item' and 'recalling students' memory' than the other pedagogical functions. This suggests that the teacher's action tends to be 'responsive' to the learning context manifested in covering the syllabus in the classroom.
Figure 9.4: Recurrent Pedagogical Functions of the Classroom Processes.
This was also confirmed from the teacher's interview. Further, it can be seen from figure 9.4 that the 'teacher's reluctance to provide further explanation' of the teaching items indicates that the focus of her teaching is to complete the examination syllabus. It shows that the teacher only attached importance to those items which appeared to be relevant to the examination. Thus it can be said that the classroom pattern appeared to be teacher dominated.

9.4 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA FROM THINK ALOUD AND STIMULATED RECALL METHOD

9.4.1 TEACHER'S REFLECTIONS ON THE PREACTIVE TEACHING

While Miss Eijaz was reflecting on the preactive phase of her teaching, she explained that lesson planning was 'part and parcel' of her teaching which served as an aide memoire and helped in guiding her daily action in the classroom. She would plan her activities over the year based on the timing of half-yearly examinations. She tended to prefer to plan her teaching activities daily considering the students' interests, needs, and abilities and her day-to-day development plan of knowledge and skills. Such planning can be referred to as 'incremental planning' (Clark and Yinger 1980). It is further interesting to note that she tried to make best use of her and her students' time in the classroom.

9.4.1.1 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED DURING THE PLANNING OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

In response to a question about what problems she encountered while planning teaching activities, she told me that she experienced numerous planning problems which are presented in figure 9.5.
It was observed that Miss Eijaz would plan her lesson in writing, because she thought that being a 'probationer teacher' she needed full preparation before she entered the classroom. She seemed very 'sensitive' though she had less control over her planned activities while executing them in the classroom. She found difficulty with planning her lesson using the recommended method of lesson planning i.e. 'Herbartians steps' which she considered to be 'impractical'in the real classroom situation. Therefore, she tended to plan her lesson in her own convenient and preferred style. Above all, her planning appeared to be consistent with Tyler's (1949) linear approach based on the prescriptive model of planning teaching.

9.4.2 TEACHER'S REFLECTIONS ON THE INTERACTIVE PHASE OF TEACHING

It evolved from the teacher's reflections on her interactive phase of teaching that she was aware of the mismatch between her 'action' and 'theory-in-use'. For example she stated a preference for using the communicative language teaching method in place of the audio lingual method. In reality she tended to attach more importance to the
traditional methods. She explained that most of the time she used English as a means of communication in the classroom so as to encourage her students to speak English. She acknowledged that she failed to pay full attention to developing students' listening comprehension and speaking skills. The grammar-translation method seemed to be predominant, with little use of a 'composite' or 'multi-method' approach in her teaching. Like Mr. Siddiqui, her teaching seemed to be examination oriented, and therefore she tended to concentrate on developing students' reading and writing skills together with teaching grammar.

It is interesting to note that she emphasised that her **ultimate aim** was to transmit knowledge required by the examination system rather than facilitating the students in developing their understanding and building links between the students' existing and previous knowledge. She often went on to deviate from her original lesson plan to cope with an 'uncertain situation' and meet the increased changing and conflicting demands of the classroom context. To overcome the 'uncertain situation' she tended to make 'immediate' decisions by reducing the lesson time to compensate for the conflicting demands of the classroom. However, she mainly relied upon 'occupational therapy' (Wood 1979) by giving students repetitive tasks.

The main steps of her 'classroom pattern' revealed that her teaching can be found in the 'scheme of classroom communication' outlined by Sinclair and Coulthard (1974). However, her planning seemed to be 'flexible' and 'reflexive' which allowed her to make immediate changes to fit her teaching to the classroom context.
### 9.4.2.1 The Practical Problems Encountered During the Interactive Teaching.

As a result of the implementation of a centrally directed innovation, the teacher often faced multi-dimensional contextual problems which impeded her lesson plans being put into practice. Taking into consideration the nature and sources of the problems, three main categories have emerged (see figure 9.6) which have implications for curriculum change policy.

#### Figure 9.6 Practical problems encountered during interactive phase of teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>NATURE OF THE PROBLEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. GOVERNING FACTORS (Teacher's personal theories of teaching)</td>
<td>* Teacher's personal theories of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Teacher's personal interpretation of the innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. FRAMING FACTORS (Instructional milieu)</td>
<td>* Imported innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Centrally developed innovation leaving no room for teacher's participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of awareness of the innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of knowledge of the subject matter, and methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Mismatch between the desired goals of curriculum and the actual demands of examination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of professional support at the classroom level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Lack of audio visual aids.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. SOCIAL FACTORS
   (Learning milieu)
   * Lack of physical facilities.
   * Lack of social relationship between teacher and students.
   * Expectations of parents, colleagues, Head and students.
   * Frequent classroom interruption.

I believe that the solution for effective implementation of change policy lies with an understanding of the teacher's 'platform' which she brings to the classroom to shape her action. This can be understood through deliberation as outlined by Schwab (1973). Schwab (1975) in his foreword [in Reid and Walker (1975)] demonstrated that 'through deliberation we can generate alternative solutions to our practical problems of curriculum development'. Thus we need an alternative curriculum policy grounded in the proposed learning context in which it is going to be implemented. Postman and Weingartner (1971) also alerted us that if innovation did not appear to capture the attention of both the teachers and taught, then it may have significant effects on the classroom life.

The following extracts have been taken from the transcription of Miss Eijaz's reflections on the various dimensions of her teaching, illuminating her perspective on teaching.

(a) REFLECTIONS ON THE LACK OF USE OF AUDIO VISUAL AIDS.

I know the importance of the A.V. aids... The school doesn't provide... In spite of my repeated requests to the Head, an appropriate response was not received so far... I can buy only those which are easily available on the low cost... If the content was locally based then the teacher could use her own resources.

(Interview)
(b) **REFLECTIONS ON THE SYSTEMATIC PLANNING OF TEACHING.**

To me, every teacher has a plan either mentally or in writing for her teaching. Being a probationer teacher I found it necessary to plan the activities in advance as well as in detail... I think planning must be flexible to accommodate all the possible changes in the light of the requirements of the classroom context.

(Interview)
(My emphasis)

(c) **REFLECTIONS ON HER PROFESSIONAL ROLE.**

It is a dilemma of our approach to teaching that the teacher is expected to follow either the school policy or curriculum policy... Since my efficiency is assessed in terms of students' pass number and high grades, therefore I put all my efforts into getting my job secured... I prefer to impart to the students bookish knowledge to get them through the examination.

(Interview)

(d) **DISCREPANCY BETWEEN TEACHER'S THINKING AND PRACTICE.**

You know, the teacher in the classroom is bound by certain formal and informal rules and regulations which are imposed by the system... Teacher is just like a puppet, she only does what the syllabus and examination make demands on her. Teacher's intentions are not considered at all.

(Interview)
(my emphasis)

9.4.2.2 **TEACHER'S REACTION TO THE RESEARCHER'S COMMENTS**

After completion of each observation, a few comments were made by the researcher on her teaching processes to elicit her reaction. The relevant extracts of the teacher's reactions are presented in the following section.

(a) **USE OF THE MOTHER TONGUE IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE CLASSROOM.**

My task is to encourage the students to speak English and make all possible efforts to develop students' confidence and give them practice of speaking English but owing to lack of time I'm unable to do so... I think the teacher should not be blamed in this behalf... The students can't
understand English because they haven't any practice of listening and speaking English at the threshold level. Therefore, I ask them to give response in their mother tongue. No doubt, the students are anxious to speak English, they have considerable amount of vocabulary, but they can't use it in the context...

(Interview)

(b) **LACK OF THE STUDENTS' COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE.**

I strongly agree that the students must develop their communicative competence, otherwise there is no use of learning English... Its teaching shouldn't be limited to only teaching of reading and writing skills or few grammar rules

(Interview)

(c) **LACK OF INDIVIDUAL ATTENTION.**

You know within 35 minutes, it is not possible for me to give equal attention to 66 students... Therefore, I arrange them in the different peer groups... The leader of each group has been assigned responsibility to share her views with the members of the group and let me know the progress. However, I go round and help the students in solving their problems... I know it is not wise to put the burden on the intelligent students... but there is no way out...

(Interview)

(d) **LITTLE USE OF THE INNOVATIVE METHODS.**

No doubt the method is an actual tool for the teacher to deliver her goods in an effective manner... The innovative method make more demands on the students as well as the teachers to use English in the classroom and contribute equally in the teaching-learning process...

(Interview)

9.4.3 **TEACHER'S REFLECTION ON THE POST-ACTIVE TEACHING**

According to her, before planning a new lesson, she would evaluate the effectiveness of the previous lesson. However, she found herself to be helpless in overcoming the interruptions and problems both at the preactive and interactive phases of teaching in the classroom.
9.5 ANALYSIS OF THE REPERTORY GRID - 1 AND 2.

Figure 9.7 represents the FOCUSed Grid for Miss Eijaz about her perception of the teaching methods. Looking at the element tree, there are two main clusters. The first cluster contains four elements (E9, E6, E8, E1). Within this cluster E6 (Communicative language teaching) and E8 (Structural approach) are a closely related pair having a matching score of 84%. It seems that both these methods have similar influences on her teaching. E1 (grammar-translation method) is closely linked to the sub-cluster of E6 and E8 which indicates that this method has also a significant influence on her teaching and later E9 (Silent way) is joined with the main cluster. The high ratings of these elements on all the constructs reveal that she has perceived that these methods should be effective in her teaching. In her conversation, she commented on the combination of communicative, structural and grammar-translation method:

As far as I know each method is based on different principles and techniques of language teaching. You know the grammar-translation method has particular advantage for language teaching in our education system... I use it for teaching grammar and translation... But I prefer to use an eclectic (multi method) approach in teaching English which may help in developing students' competence...

An important observation is that the officially recommended audio-lingual method appears to be quite isolated in the elements tree showing her dislike for this method. She stated in her interview that:

In the past the language teaching emphasis was placed on the mastery of language structure learned through pattern drills and memorisation... Therefore, the learning of the language system was the main purpose of language teaching which influenced the students' learning - in terms of reading and writing, rather than speaking and listening skills... With the pace of time, the climate has begun to change and attention is focused on teaching language for the purpose of communication all over the world, but our curriculum theorists still persist with learning through pattern
Figure 9.7 FOCUSed grid 1 (teaching methods) of Miss Eijaz
drills... This curbs the students' abilities... I don't like this approach at all, therefore, I prefer to use communicative language teaching...

(Interview)

She was of the opinion that the audio lingual method did not suit the learning context because it demanded more use of the target language in the classroom, whereas the students were unable to speak English spontaneously.

In the second cluster (E3, E2, E7, E5), E2 (Direct method) and E7 (Natural approach) are a highly related pair. E5 (Situational language teaching) and E3 (Audio visual) are loosely linked to the pair of E2 and E7.

The low ratings of the elements of the second cluster on all constructs indicate that this group of methods is considered to be least effective in her teaching. She stated that:

Well, you know each method is important, but you can't apply all of them... It depends on the situation,... you must have practical knowledge of how to use them...

(Interview)

Looking at the construct tree there are two main clusters, a large cluster (C7, C1, C3, C4, C6, C5) and cluster two (C2, C9). Further, C7 (helpful in teaching tenses) and C1 (helpful in developing students' reading skills) are a highly related pair having the matching score of 83%. The rest of the constructs are loosely related to each other in cluster one. In cluster two, C2 (developing students' writing skills) and C9 (helpful in translation from mother tongue to English) are a closely related pair. It is evident that the approach adopted for language teaching appears to be 'restricted' with emphasis on the
development of reading and writing skills along with the acquisition of knowledge of grammar and translation.

In figure 9.8 the FOCUSed Grid represents the teacher's perception of her role. The element tree indicates that there appear to be two main clusters. The first contains five elements (E9, E2, E6, E4, E7). In cluster one E6 (to provide feedback) and E4 (to maintain friendly relationship with the students) are a highly related pair. E9 (to develop confidence) and E2 (to encourage students to converse in English) are a related pair and form another sub-cluster. Both the pairs then form a higher level cluster. E7 (to convey enthusiasm for English) is loosely linked with the joint cluster which may indicate the teacher's dissatisfaction with that part of her role. All the elements have been rated highly on nearly all the constructs which reflects the teacher's process-product oriented approach to teaching.

Teaching is a social activity. I consider school as a society and the classroom as a community in which a group has a common interest to live in... Each individual by nature is different, therefore, we must organise common activities in a way that every student can take interest... We have to create a sense of responsibility among them. The teacher's job is to stimulate and provoke her students' thoughts and feelings and help them in learning. But we can't avoid to prepare them for the examination. (Interview)

The second cluster has 4 elements (E1, E3, E5 and E8). E5 (to teach for understanding through various methods) and E8 (to develop creative thinking) are a related pair and form a sub-cluster. Linked to these are E1 (to motivate students to learn English) and E3 (to make lesson planning interesting), forming a second main cluster. As she commented on the instructional role:

I don't want to injure the statements attached to this sort of role (Instructional). Each person has expectations. The
Figure 9.8 FOCUSed grid 2 (teacher's role)
students have expectations of their teachers and vice versa... The students come to school to share their experience with teachers... The teacher's responsibility is to share her public knowledge with them. If you want to impose your ideas upon them which are different from their expectations, then students may lose interest in the study... This is a problem with our teaching that the teachers behave in contrast to students' expectations... I consider teaching as a constructive activity based on the experiences of both the teachers and students... I must say there is a need to bring about a drastic change in the teachers' attitude and beliefs system towards their role...

(Interview)

Looking at the construct tree of the grid, there are two main clusters. The first cluster, C3 (competition for jobs), C5 (to get students through the examination) and C2 (more time is required) appears to be related to the 'product oriented approach' in teaching which aims to transmit knowledge and measure the product via examinations designed to monitor the extent to which the students had learned this body of knowledge and to enable them to compete for jobs. In cluster two, C6 (students are satisfied), C1 (continuous assessment), C4 (more efforts are required), C7 (students solve their problems) and C8 (students' active involvement) appear to predominate. This seems to be related to the 'process oriented approach' in teaching which aims to make learning more meaningful. It appears that the teacher perceived her role in accordance with the 'process-product oriented approach' or 'transmission-interpretation style of teaching'. However, she seemed to be more inclined to rationalise her 'product oriented' approach which may indicate her personal preference for the alternative.

9.5.1 TEACHER'S REFLECTIONS ON THE ANALYSIS OF HER GRID 1 AND 2.

To allow the teacher to comment on and react to her grids 1 and 2, she was sent the feedback in detail along with my observations on the grids. She commented:

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Your observations appear to be in harmony with my views. So far as the emphasis on the examination is concerned, it is considered as source of assessment of the product...Though I'm not in favour that the examination should be the only way of assessing students' knowledge and teacher's efficiency. The actual point is the process which is involved in organising students' thoughts and abilities to let them reshape their knowledge through interaction so that the students can develop their competence... The teachers should also contribute... The pattern of the grid is interesting and inspiring... Your interpretation of my perception regarding teaching methods and role are nearly the same. I haven't any intention to change any element or construct... The way you have described my role which is really interesting...I don't need to draw an alternative diagram.

(My emphasis)

9.5.2 DISCUSSION ON THE FOCUSED GRIDS 1 AND 2

The analysis of grid 1 reveals that Miss Eijaz considered an eclectic (multi method) approach to be helpful in teaching English. She tended to prefer innovative methods based on the humanistic and holistic approach in language teaching to develop students as a whole rather than focus on any one aspect. Further her perspective on teaching may be found in the following quote:

I'm a human being and also teach human beings who are stimulus free... I must consider their perspective on learning and organise and manage learning activities in the way they desire to learn...

(Grid conversation)

The teacher further attempted to justify her preferred role as:

So far as the facilitator role is considered I think it will enable both the teacher and taught to decide what activities to be included and how these activities be organised and managed for the students for meaningful learning... The teachers and students should negotiate... accomplish their task jointly...

(Interview)

She expressed the need to adopt a humanistic perspective in the classroom:
Since ages the teachers are playing their role by dint of authority and exercising so-called power... They have been controlling the thoughts, attitudes and emotions of the learners by their dominant teaching behaviour... It is not easy job to change the teachers' attitude at once, you have to negotiate and develop a sense of awareness among the teachers to think about their role in a broader perspective and reorient them to teach how to respect the human beings.

(Interview)
(my emphasis)

It appears from the grid analysis that she perceived that an eclectic approach would be effective in her teaching particularly in the mixed ability group of students. She said:

Each student has individual differences, interest and needs, though it is impossible in our situation but not difficult... The teachers have to give sacrifices and the curriculum planners have to adopt a flexible approach...

(Grid conversation)

9.6 INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA FROM GRIDS CONVERSATION, TEACHER'SREFLECTIVE THOUGHTS AND TEACHER'S DAILY DIARY.

The following relevant extracts have been taken to summarise the data collected through the various techniques described in order to portray the teacher's thoughts and perceptions on the different dimensions of her classroom processes.

(a) VIEWS ON TEACHING ENGLISH

It has been practice that the teaching of English has been restricted to only the development of students' reading and writing skills and the rest of the skills are ignored. We need to adopt a rational approach for teaching English to develop all skills and competence...

(Interview)

Coordinating the teacher's data on her approach to teaching and learning and testing it with Fox's (1983) scheme of the 'Personal Theories of Teaching' (see figure 9.9), it is interesting to note that she tended to adopt 'simple' rather than 'developed theories', perhaps because she was a probationer teacher.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theorists</th>
<th>Growing Theory</th>
<th>Traveling Theory</th>
<th>Shaping Theory</th>
<th>Transfer Theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple Theorists</td>
<td>Miss Eliza’s personal theories of teaching classified under the scheme of Fox (1983)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 9.9** Miss Eliza’s personal theories of teaching classified under the scheme of Fox (1983)
(b) TEACHING CONTENT

You know the existing textbooks used for teaching English are based on the outdated structural approach... There is a lack of lessons based on the dialogue and graded vocabulary. The topics included are not according to the needs and interest of the students. The construction of lessons is not based on the principles from simple to easy approach...

(Interview)

(c) TEACHERS IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMME

The existing pre and in-service training are too inadequate to learn about the new approaches. Once a teacher is appointed, she is never provided with further training about teaching techniques or linguistics. In most cases, the teachers who are non-specialised in teaching English are involved in teaching. They are not aware of the methods used in teaching English nor linguistics. You can't expect the unqualified teachers will teach like qualified teachers. They build their teaching upon the cheap notes and ready-made guides and force the students to memorise the content...

(Interview)

(d) PERFORMANCE OF THE RESOURCE PERSON RESPONSIBLE FOR TEACHING

During my 2 years service, I had undergone a 15 days' course organised by the education department. I was really much shocked to see the performance of the resource persons who had lack of mastery of English and theoretical knowledge of the teaching methods... They hardly talked about the theory of language teaching.

(Interview)

(e) TEACHING PROFESSION

In our society, teaching profession is least liked because of low salary and considered as traditional job... It is general held opinion that teachers are considered as rejected persons of the society. Those people entered the profession who could not get any other job... No doubt to some extent it is true but you can't generalise the situation...

(Grid conversation)

(Teacher's vocal emphasis)

(f) EXAMINATION SYSTEM

You know our examination system is very poor. Students pass their examination by dint of malpractice and unfair means. The examination aims to assess the student's capacity of memory rather than understanding of the content... On paper, the students are required to learn four skills, but in reality, only two skills are taught to some extent in which the students are examined. The students only memorise the answer of the expected questions to pass the examination, hence they concentrate on the selected study of the syllabus...

(Grid conversation)
She further pointed out:

It may not be surprising for you but maybe for others who don't know about our education system. I have just seen the school circular emphasising the completion of the examination syllabus. It also further mentions that so and so lessons are deleted from the examination syllabus. The interesting thing is that those are lessons I have already taught and they seemed to be interesting for the students who really enjoyed them. In this situation, who should be responsible for preparing the students for 'selective study' rather than global?

(Teacher's daily diary)  
(4.5.87)  
(my emphasis)

(g) SELECTION OF THE CONTENT

You will be surprised to know that without any teaching aids or supplementary information, I taught a new topic. The students felt bored... To be very frank I was also not clear about the aims of the teaching content of the lesson on eskimos. I found difficulty to explain many things which I never seen nor knew in my life... I just guessed about them, really I don't know whether I was right or wrong... There was also large amount of the vocabulary... Many students were enthusiastic to learn more about the eskimos, but I could not help them... I think it was not my fault. The textbook writers must be aware of the potential problems which may arise when the teaching of this lesson will take place...

(Teacher's daily diary)  
(3.4.1987)  
(my emphasis)

She further quotes her students' remarks:

Miss, what a funny lesson it was! It might be interesting if you had more information about it. I didn't learn except construction of a few sentences.

(Teacher's daily diary)  
(3.4.1987)

(h) CURRICULUM INNOVATION AND THE SUPPORT SYSTEM

I've noted during my service that the teachers are not being consulted whenever any new idea is introduced... On the contrary, in the case of failure of innovation or falling standards of education, the teachers become the target of blame from every corner... No one dares to blame the curriculum developers who introduce the imported innovation without its proper trial at micro or macro level... To be very frank, I have no hesitation to say that the curriculum developers are responsible for the deterioration in the standards of teaching... Teachers just play part of mediator between the demands of curriculum innovation and actual classroom requirements. I'm really sick of the bureaucratic system... Given the situation, the teachers are
mentally or technically reluctant to accept innovation until they are given active participation... The concept and purpose of the innovation are not clear. For example the curriculum proposal suggests the audio lingual approach in language teaching as a respectable approach, I really don't know what they mean by this... They ought to explain... No one is ready to guide you... There is lack of coordination between teacher and teacher and teacher and Head...

(Grid conversation)
(my emphases)

She further mentioned either the lack of knowledge or cooperation among teachers and the Head in the school:

I wanted to keep this issue off the record. But it is very interesting as well as alarming that those who are involved in teaching English were unable to tell me the literary meaning of the sentence that 'It is said that God writes His law on the hearts of men, and a teacher is one who can read what He writes on the human heart' (lesson on profession). Nor the Head of school made me satisfied. Such issues can be found in our textbook. Sometimes, I think I'm unable to teach and must leave the profession for ever.

(Teacher's daily diary)
(11.5.1987)

(i) LACK OF PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY

The curriculum policy, organisational structure and environment of the classroom don't allow the teachers to work at their own pace... Whenever you plan your lesson considering your past experience and present intentions, if you fail to execute it in the classroom, then obviously you will be frustrated... It is really a waste of time and energy...

(Interview)

She further mentioned:

Before writing this issue in the diary, I thought that I shouldn't write such issues. You may think it is minor but to me it is a major issue. Being a class teacher, I'm empowered to grant my students leave for one or two days. I wanted to exercise my power and recommended two students leave permission to the Head. She refused them. I knew the students' reasons appeared to be genuine.

(Teacher's daily diary)
(5.11.1987)

(j) TEACHER'S GENERAL REMARKS ON HER TEACHING

As you know the teacher is not free to do other than the prescribed syllabus... The teaching is based on the very restricted concept of teaching. Though the teachers are servants of the government but on the other hand in any way they are
professional... The curriculum developers implement the curriculum in a haphazard way without proper diffusion or supportive mechanism... I should not only teach the students from the examination point of view, but consider the development of their cognitive and affective abilities... No doubt the examination has great importance in our education system... I also put my all possible efforts to get my students through the examination... The students learn vocabulary without use in a proper sentence.

(Teacher's daily diary)
(7.9.1987)
(my emphasis)

In the following Sections the students' perceptions of their learning strategies and their relationship with the teacher's teaching style are discussed.

9.7 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE STUDENTS' INTERVIEW DATA

9.7.1 STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR LEARNING STRATEGIES

From the interview transcriptions of the students' views on their learning approaches, two main categories emerged, labelled 'Teacher Oriented Learning' (TOL) and 'Activity Oriented Learning' (AOL). Further description of these categories can be found in Chapter 8, Section 8.7.1. It is worth mentioning here that out of 10 students, 7 tended to prefer the AOL strategy, giving the following reasons (constructs):

- to choose their own learning activities
- to feel free from the fear of teacher
- students solve their own learning problems
- students feel confident to work on their own
- freedom of thoughts and feelings
- to shift from teacher's 'spoon-feeding' to 'self-directed' learning
- enable them to develop their creative and critical thinking
- healthy competition between peers and thought provoking learning
- students develop interpersonal skills
- helps in understanding each other's perspective
- learn more from peers than from teachers
- students are able to evolve their learning in logical steps
- not easily forgotten learning
- develops clearer and deep self-insights in the problems
- students feel independent
- students justify their action logically
- students are able to develop language learning skills easily
- students feel responsibility to complete their work.

The above students' constructs reveal that their 'ultimate aim' of learning appears to be more 'global' which is likely to fall within the 'person centred' domain of learning (see Rogers 1983), whereas the immediate aim of learning seems to be the 'academic oriented' domain of learning to pass the examination.

It is interesting to note that these students thought that their learning strategy may depend on the classroom task and the nature of the teacher's teaching style. This suggests that these students may have the ability to shift their learning strategy from AOL to TOL and vice versa. As one of the students stated:

Though, I feel suffocation and boredom when the teacher is imparting her wisdom and experiences which are irrelevant to our daily life. But these are important to learn because I have to pass my examination. I feel much relaxed when I'm doing things with my own experience.

These students seemed to have the ability to adopt the TOL strategy for 'academic achievement' which was considered to be the 'immediate aim' of
their learning. It was also noted that for 'academic achievement' they might adopt 'surface level of processing', this being confirmed from their interviews. On the other hand when these students tended to achieve their ultimate aim - 'person developing' - they appeared to adopt 'deep level processing' (see Marton and Säljö (1976)). Extracts from the interviews of the students concerned are included here to demonstrate further their perspectives on their learning strategies.

**Examples from transcripts:**

**Example one**

AOL strategy
It helps me to build my competence as well as confidence to use target language in the different communicative activities in the classroom. It influences me to think directly in the target language rather than mother tongue.

Deep level processing
I learn more when things are at my disposal. I need enough time, concentration and appropriate environment to think and inquire about them... This is the way to learn and I learn quickly and build confidence.

(Nahida 03)

**Example two**

AOL strategy
I don't like the idea of mechanistic learning to have only mastery of language structure, learned like mathematical formulae...

Deep level processing
I inquire myself about the different grammatical rules of the target language which are totally different from my mother tongue. When I apply them, I know the meaning and logic of the sentence which I can't learn through the teacher's mouth.

(Dilshad 05)

**Example three**

AOL strategy
Though I'm student, it doesn't mean that I should only rely on the teacher. I have my own thoughts and feelings... I forget things quickly which I learned through the teacher's 'spoon-feeding'. I only enjoy those
activities in which I participated and had opportunity to discuss and inquire further...

Deep level processing

To be frank, I can't learn until I go deeper and deeper into the things. Thus I develop my confidence and competence to solve my learning problems in which the teacher may not help me...

(Rafat 10)

The remaining 3 students tended to adopt TOL strategy for the following given reasons:

- teacher teaches what is expected in the examination
- teacher summarises the content of teaching and makes learning easy
- teacher gives notes in the classroom
- teacher's authoritarian teaching style
- fear of failure of examination
- teacher saves me from the hard work and detailed study.

The above students' constructs suggest that their learning strategy is very much influenced by the teaching style of the teacher and their learning task. Thus it appears that these students seemed to be dependent on the teacher's 'spoon feeding' which was also confirmed from the interviews. It is also pointed out that these students seemed to be reluctant to adopt an alternative learning strategy, also confirmed from their interviews and classroom observation, perhaps because of the significance attached to 'academic achievement'. Thus it can be said that these students tended to perceive 'academic achievement' as both their 'immediate' and 'ultimate' aim of learning. Their inclination towards the TOL strategy influenced them to adopt 'surface level processing' as can be illustrated in the following examples of extracts from their interviews:
Examples from transcripts

Example one

TOL strategy

Teacher teaches us the facts, she imparts relevant knowledge useful for passing the examination.

Surface level processing

Whatever teacher says in the classroom, I copy it and memorise it. I don't need to go in detail and argue about the things why they happen as they are.

(Nasira 01)

Example two

TOL strategy

This is teacher's job to summarise content and make learning easy. The information I receive from the teacher, I've easy access because it is copied in my notebook.

Surface level processing

I don't bother to think deeply about the things. You know, we need a certificate to enter the job. English is compulsory, therefore, I learn it.

(Zubeda 07)

The data shows that the majority of the students preferred to adopt an AOL strategy to complete their tasks, whereas the teacher's teaching style seemed to accentuate 'academic achievement'. It was also observed that these students had the ability to shift from one learning strategy to another, but then their learning processes were rather different. For example, when the students tended to adopt AOL strategy, they were prone to use 'deep level processing'. A few students appeared to be reluctant to adopt an alternative approach in their learning perhaps because of their lack of confidence and creativity. Thus it can be said that there appears to be a mismatch between the teacher's teaching style and her students' learning strategies.
9.7.2 STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR TEACHER'S TEACHING STYLE

Out of 10 students, 7 students were likely to dislike their teacher's teaching style since they made the following remarks (constructs):

- not helpful in developing students' confidence
- not encouraging and facilitating behaviour
- not allowed to share/contrast their views with the teacher
- no freedom to initiate a discussion in the classroom
- syllabus bound teaching
- emphasis on cramming
- inadequate process of written or oral feedback
- always imposing her idea
- no emphasis on developing students' listening and speaking skills
- no sense of humour
- does not help in personal growth
- lack of empathetic understanding
- lack of creativity in the classroom processes.

This data confirms the previous findings that there appears to be a mismatch between the teacher's teaching style and the students' learning strategies. This has a strong influence on the teaching-learning process as well as strong implications for curriculum change policy. To illuminate the students' perceptions about their teacher's teaching style, a few examples are given below:

(a) VIEWS IN DISFAVOUR

No doubt she is polite and humble, but she follows the syllabus strictly. She never uses A.V. aids to make lesson interesting. She is happy with those students who memorise things quickly.

(Nahida 03)

Her approach is quite authoritarian, perhaps an influence of her upper class family. She always imposes her idea on the students.
No one can dare to confront her views. She gives us the impression that she is only knowledgeable and God has given all knowledge only to her. We are humans, we have own experiences, she is supposed to understand them, but I'm afraid she doesn't bother.

(Dilshad 05)

She has got examination phobia, always she is worried about her efficiency rather than students' understanding of the content. Sometimes, she teaches silly things based on fallacy rather than reality. Sometimes, she moves quickly on new items without providing adequate explanation of previous ones.

(Rafat 10)

Only 3 students tended to like her teaching style because they considered it 'helpful in getting them through the examination'. These students' views on the teacher's teaching style are given below:

(b) VIEWS IN FAVOUR

She makes every possible effort to pitch her teaching at the students' cognitive level. If I compare her with the English poetry teacher, her approach to teaching is quite stimulating... English is not our mother tongue, therefore, we feel it is difficult, otherwise nothing is wrong with her teaching approach.

(Nasira 01)

In spite of the pressure of examination wherein only two skills [reading and writing] were likely to be assessed, she encouraged the students to speak English in the classroom.

(Zubeda 07)

9.8 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of Miss Eijaz's data indicates that being a probationer teacher, her ideology of teaching (see figure 9.9) may be subsumed in 'Simple Theories of Teaching' (Fox 1983). As a novice teacher, she considered daily lesson planning as 'part and parcel' of her teaching processes. Her planning approach appeared to be consistent with Tyler's (1949) 'linear approach' of planning. It is interesting to note that she found 'Herbartian Steps' of lesson planning (i.e. preparation;
presentation and association; comparison and abstraction; generalisation and application) based on Herbart's 'Apperception Theory of Learning' to be 'impractical' in the real classroom life.

Her reported thoughts on the preactive phase of teaching revealed that her lesson planning seemed to be 'incremental' rather than 'comprehensive' (Clark and Yinger 1980). Consequently she failed to consider the influence of the ideological and physical constraints which meant that execution in the classroom was not as smooth as it was anticipated. Her main aim of organising learning activities seemed to be to make the best use of her own and her students' time in order to complete the examination syllabus according to her schedule [see Peterson et al. (1978), and McCutcheon (1980).

In addition, her planning was further affected by the severe classroom interruption (see figure 9.3) that occurred during the course of classroom teaching. The Head's frequent visits for some inquiries, teachers telephoning from outside and the parents' visits during the teaching time were perceived to have major effects on her teaching. This resulted in the teacher feeling that her planning was just a 'waste of time' (see McCutcheon 1980). Further, such interruption served as one of the major 'change barriers' affecting the process of curriculum translation into practice.

It was confirmed from this data that imported curriculum innovations (e.g. audio lingual method) were frequently implemented in the schools for 'institutionalisation' without amending them to fit the 'cultural milieu' or without support, appropriate diffusion and dissemination. As a result, the innovation in the schools either died through rejection or
were so modified and assimilated into current schools practice that their identity was lost (Thomson and Deer 1989). Consequently, these innovations have failed to change the 'habitual practice' of the teacher and thus their status remains 'on paper' (Dove 1986) or just as a 'vision' (Olson 1980).

The data regarding her interactive phase of teaching shows that her central theme of teaching usually appeared to be to complete the examination syllabus, maintaining and checking the students' notebooks and preparing the students for examination by solving model question papers in the classroom. Thus she perceived this business to be a significant part of her teaching processes - because the quality, fullness of the students' notebooks, students' pass percentage and attainment of high grades in the examination were used as the accepted criteria for judging the teacher's efficiency. The literature on curriculum study demonstrated this to be a 'common problem' in both the developed countries (Calderhead 1984) and under-developed countries [(Morris (1985) and Dove (1986)].

The striking feature of the actual classroom processes was that the teacher was prone to give high priority to those learning items which appeared to be expected in the terminal or annual examinations. The rest were either ignored or received least attention from the teacher. In other words, the teacher selected those parts which appeared to fit with her routines or were most useful to her in the particular 'learning milieu'. These findings accord with Olson (1980). It is evident that Miss Eijaz tended to give more attention to teaching reading and writing skills as an examinable part of the syllabus and neglected the teaching of listening and speaking skills as an unexaminable part of the
syllabus. This shows a mismatch between the desired aim of innovation and the actual demands of the learning context manifested in the importance attached to the examination.

These findings were further confirmed from the data of the classroom processes (see figure 9.4). During the observation it was noted that her teaching mainly consisted of the pedagogical functions such as recalling students' memory (PF1), introducing new information (PF2), avoiding more explanation (PF4), avoiding students' led discussion (PF5) and rephrasing and remodelling students' response (PF9). The remaining pedagogical functions captured relatively little of the teacher's attention. This indicates that her teaching approach was more influenced by the context of the learning. Her survival strategy for the 'uncertain situation' was to keep the students busy by doing some repetitive tasks in the classroom, what Wood (1979) calls 'occupational therapy'.

Her questioning style, based on the 'closed' mode outlined by Walker and Adelman (1975), did not allow students to give responses in their own preferred ways. This constrained effective classroom interaction between teacher and students and between students and students, affected the students' cognitive and affective development and also constrained the students' practice in producing utterances in English spontaneously.

The grid data suggests that she tended to perceive a 'multi method' approach to be useful in her teaching processes, but in practice, her teaching was overwhelmingly dominated by her traditional practice (i.e. grammar-translation method). She perceived the officially recommended audio lingual method to be irrelevant and inefficient for meeting the
increased conflicting demands of the examination. Further, she had a 'low level conceptual understanding' of this method. Thus it was perceived to be wholly dysfunctional for meeting the actual demands of the learning context.

Although ideologically she tended to maintain a balance between the 'process' and 'product' oriented approaches to learning, in practice she tended to give more importance to the 'product' oriented approach. This suggests that teacher's actions are constrained by the phenomenology of the classroom context, which contributes to the mismatch between their thoughts and actions. This accords with Calderhead (1984, p.13) who asserts that:

Owing to the powerful framework of physical and ideological constraints within which teachers work, their classroom practice may on occasion reflect the demands of that context more than teachers' own beliefs and convictions about good or appropriate teaching.

The students' data obtained through 'constructs interviews' and observations indicates that they view the teacher's teaching style to be embedded in 'academic achievement'. This led to the development of a mismatch between the teacher's teaching style and the students' learning strategies. This has strong implications for curriculum change policy. It was also confirmed from the data that the majority of students tended to prefer to adopt an alternative AOL strategy related to 'the person developing as a whole' (see Rogers 1983). It is interesting to note that when students adopted the AOL strategy they tended to use 'deep level processing' (see Marton and Säljö 1976). When they shifted from 'person developing' to 'academic achievement' learning orientation and joined with other students, they tended to adopt 'surface level processing' in reaction to the influence of the teacher's teaching
style. The students thought that their teacher's style of teaching compelled them to memorise the content of teaching in order to get them through the examination. A few students seemed to favour her teaching style because it did help them to pass the examination.

The data of the teacher's case study further suggested three main factors - governing (teacher's theory of teaching), framing (instructional milieu) and social (learning milieu) - which served as 'main change barriers' to successful implementation of innovation. I believe change will not occur unless a 'coherent' curriculum change policy is framed taking into consideration the above change barriers.
CHAPTER TEN

COMBINED FOUR SHORT CASE STUDIES

Very fundamental changes must occur at the user level (and of necessity at other levels) if effective change outcomes are to result.

(Fullan 1972, p.2)

10.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter considers an attempt to compare and contrast four cases (Case study 3, 4, 5 and 6) in a 'combined form'. In order to preserve the richness and originality of the data, the participants' narratives concerning the issues of curriculum change which serve as the 'change barriers' are described in their own language by simple translation into English. Further, a huge amount of data is condensed and presented in tabular form which covers the main areas of the inquiry (see figure 10.1 overleaf). Section 10.1 deals with the comparative perspective of four teachers on the 'instructional and learning milieu'. In Section 10.2, an account of the comparative perspective of the students on the impact of their teachers' teaching styles on their learning strategies are presented. Section 10.3 will give a precis review of the four case studies.

10.1 A COMPARISON OF FOUR CASES: TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE

10.1.1 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THEIR PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE

Miss Farzana, an experienced specialist teacher, considered her professional knowledge to be inadequate to meet the increased demands of the innovative curriculum, because she has never undertaken any
| TEACHERS | Miss FARZANA  
(Case Study Three) | Mr RASHADI  
(Case Study Four) | Mr SOOMRO  
(Case Study Five) | Mr SHAIKH  
(Case Study Six) |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FOCUSING AREAS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. GENERAL BACKGROUND OF THE TEACHERS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS</td>
<td>Female school serves an urban area of a predominantly business community</td>
<td>Male school serves the population of the middle class (white collar) in the urban area</td>
<td>Male school serves a mixed population in a rural area</td>
<td>Male school serves a rural area of a predominantly farming community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* TEACHER'S STATUS</td>
<td>Experienced (Deputy Head)</td>
<td>Probationer (Junior School teacher)</td>
<td>Experienced (High School teacher)</td>
<td>Probationer (Junior School teacher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* NATURE OF THE QUALIFICATION</td>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>Non-Specialist</td>
<td>Non-Specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* LEVEL OF CONCEPTUAL UNDERSTANDING OF AN OFFICIALLY PRESCRIBED AUDIO LINGUAL METHOD</td>
<td>MEDIUM</td>
<td>LOW</td>
<td>LOW</td>
<td>LOW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* FAVOURED PEDAGOGICAL STYLE</td>
<td>Interpretation (Developed teaching theories)</td>
<td>Transmission (Simple teaching theories)</td>
<td>Mixed Transmission (Simple teaching theories)</td>
<td>Transmission (Simple teaching theories)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* GENERAL IMPRESSION ABOUT THE TEACHING PROFESSION</td>
<td>Favoured, suitable for the females</td>
<td>Thankless, low paid, non-creative and less attractive</td>
<td>Boring, frustrating</td>
<td>Disaster and anxiety promoter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. PATTERN OF THE CLASSROOM PROCESSES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* GENERAL PATTERN</td>
<td>Teacher and students' equal contributions</td>
<td>Teacher dominated classroom activities</td>
<td>Low level of the classroom interaction</td>
<td>Teacher dominated and seldom students' interaction in classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informal and non-threatening atmosphere</td>
<td>Formal, authoritative coercive and frightening atmosphere</td>
<td>Instructional and formal but sometimes managerial and facilitative</td>
<td>Teacher's unfriendly atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Examination oriented teaching</td>
<td>Examination oriented teaching</td>
<td>Examination oriented teaching</td>
<td>Examination oriented teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequent use of the cheap ready made guides</td>
<td>Extensive use of the cheap ready made guides</td>
<td>Extensive use of the cheap ready made guides</td>
<td>Extensive use of the cheap ready made guides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching based on habitual practice</td>
<td>Teaching based on habitual practice</td>
<td>Teaching based on habitual practice</td>
<td>Teaching based on habitual practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. MAIN TEACHING CONCERNS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* LANGUAGE OF THE CLASSROOM DISCOURSE</td>
<td>Frequent use of English</td>
<td>Frequent use of English</td>
<td>Predominantly mother tongue</td>
<td>Predominantly mother tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* USE OF TEACHING AIDS</td>
<td>Not at all (Except blackboard)</td>
<td>Not at all (Except blackboard)</td>
<td>Not at all (Except Blackboard)</td>
<td>Not at all (Except Blackboard)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* QUESTIONING STYLE</td>
<td>Closed, Cook's Tour and free-wheeling</td>
<td>Closed</td>
<td>Closed</td>
<td>Closed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* THE EXTENT OF THE CLASS INTERRUPTION</td>
<td>33% teaching time</td>
<td>48% teaching time</td>
<td>49% teaching time</td>
<td>44% teaching time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitate student learning by linking new concepts with existing ones</td>
<td>Pattern practice, role learning, get students through exams</td>
<td>Pattern practice, role learning, developing creative thinking</td>
<td>Pattern practice, role learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students' intellectual development</td>
<td>To impart knowledge</td>
<td>Impact knowledge to fill empty container</td>
<td>Imparting subject matter to students by the act of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal emphasis on four language learning skills</td>
<td>Equal emphasis on four language learning skills</td>
<td>Equal emphasis on four language learning skills</td>
<td>Equal emphasis on four language learning skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHERS</td>
<td>FOCUSING AREA</td>
<td>Miss FARZANA (Case Study Three)</td>
<td>Mr RASHADI (Case Study Four)</td>
<td>Mr SOOMRO (Case Study Five)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- English should be means of classroom discourse</td>
<td>- English should be means of classroom discourse</td>
<td>- English should be means of classroom discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Teaching of English should be assigned to specialist teachers</td>
<td>- Teaching of English should be assigned to specialist teachers</td>
<td>- Teaching of English should be assigned to specialist teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Need for improving standards of teaching</td>
<td>- Meaningful learning</td>
<td>- Efficient learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Punishment should be prohibited</td>
<td>- Light punishment is necessary</td>
<td>- Moral punishment rather than physical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. USE OF THE TEACHING METHODS</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Audio lingual - an officially recommended method perceived to be least effective owing to its non applicability in the learning context</td>
<td>- The audio lingual method was disliked because it made more demands on the teacher</td>
<td>- The audio lingual method did not meet the demands of the learning milieu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Multi method approach perceived to be helpful in accommodating students individual differences and facilitating learning at their own pace</td>
<td>- Multi method approach offers opportunities to students to learn English via various methods</td>
<td>- Multi method approach was considered to be useful because it is helpful in developing students' language learning skills, personal and inter-personal skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar translation method suited to the demands of the learning context</td>
<td>- Grammar translation method considered to be suitable</td>
<td>- Grammar translation method considered to be suitable</td>
<td>- Grammar translation method perceived to be helpful in getting students through exams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. PERCEIVED PRACTICAL PROBLEMS</td>
<td>Implicit theories of teaching</td>
<td>- Implicit theories of teaching</td>
<td>- Implicit theories of teaching</td>
<td>- Implicit theories of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GE GOVERNING FACTORS (Teacher's Ideology)</td>
<td>Teacher's commitment towards the teaching profession</td>
<td>- Teacher's expectations of the students</td>
<td>- Teacher's interpretation of the innovation</td>
<td>- Teacher's commitment to the teaching profession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher's interpretation of the innovation</td>
<td>- Teacher's interpretation of the innovation</td>
<td>- Teacher's interpretation of the innovation</td>
<td>- Teacher's interpretation of the innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ambitious person</td>
<td>- Ambitious person planning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRAME FACTOR (Instructional Milieu)</td>
<td>Overcrowded classes</td>
<td>- Lack of professional support at classroom level</td>
<td>- Lack of professional planning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of professional support at classroom level</td>
<td>- Lack of professional support at classroom level</td>
<td>- Lack of professional support at classroom level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of diffusion and dissemination of innovation</td>
<td>- Lack of diffusion and dissemination of innovation</td>
<td>- Lack of diffusion and dissemination of innovation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non availability of teaching aids</td>
<td>- Non availability of teaching aids</td>
<td>- Non availability of teaching aids</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL FACTORS (Learning Milieu)</td>
<td>- Lack of professional knowledge</td>
<td>- Lack of professional knowledge</td>
<td>- Lack of professional knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of innovation knowledge</td>
<td>- Lack of innovation knowledge</td>
<td>- Lack of innovation knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mismatch between desired goals of innovation and actual demands of the learning context</td>
<td>- Mismatch between desired goals of innovation and actual demands of the learning context</td>
<td>- Mismatch between desired goals of innovation and actual demands of the learning context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of professional autonomy</td>
<td>- Lack of professional autonomy</td>
<td>- Lack of professional autonomy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL FACTORS (Learning Milieu)</td>
<td>Students' individual differences</td>
<td>- Student's individual differences</td>
<td>- Student's individual differences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of social relationships between teachers &amp; students</td>
<td>- Lack of social relationships between teachers &amp; students</td>
<td>- Lack of social relationships between teachers &amp; students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional jealousy</td>
<td>- Professional jealousy</td>
<td>- Professional jealousy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL FACTORS (Learning Milieu)</td>
<td>Socialisation-cum-negotiation</td>
<td>- Occupational therapy</td>
<td>- Domination-cum-socialisation</td>
<td>- Occupational therapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. SURVIVAL STRATEGIES</td>
<td>Occupational therapy</td>
<td>- Occupational therapy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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sort of in-service training to brush up her professional knowledge of linguistics or language pedagogy. This view was confirmed by the analysis of her interpretations of teaching methods which indicated that she tended to have a 'low level conceptual understanding' of the new methods related to the functional and holistic view of language learning. It is worth noting here that she also tended to have a 'low level conceptual understanding' of an officially prescribed audio lingual method. Therefore, she appeared to be reluctant to employ this method in her classroom practice. This was perceived to be a 'common dilemma' throughout all these case studies.

Out of these four teachers, only Mr. Soomro was offered an opportunity to attend a refresher course which lasted 2 weeks. He found it to be 'absurd' and 'irrelevant' to his teaching. This reveals that these teachers tended to rely mostly on their old routines based on either their previous professional training or day-to-day experience. However, the latter was considered to be more 'helpful' whereas the former was perceived to be 'outdated' and 'inadequate' to meet the demands of the innovative curriculum.

Messrs Rashadi and Shaikh (both probationers and non-specialist teachers) felt that their professional training did not match classroom reality nor their personal vision of their tasks. On the other hand the school organisation, the frame and the social factors tended to compel them to conform to their own version of reality. Given this situation, it was necessary for them to forget all the theories learnt during training and start again to get themselves resocialised in the new cultural milieu and to relearn real practice in the classroom.
10.1.2 IMPRESSION GAINED FROM THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

The data gathered from all the four teachers indicates that the main concerns of their teaching were to cover the syllabus, maintain classroom discipline, keep students' fair notebooks, check students' homework and spelling, and prepare the students to get through the external examinations, considered to be the main criteria for judging teachers' efficiency. Obviously the general classroom patterns appeared to be different from each other, although a similarity was found in many areas amongst the male teachers e.g. formalist style, aggressive attitude towards students, frequent use of corporal punishment, teacher dominant classroom processes, students treated as passive receivers of knowledge, closed questioning style, heavy reliance on unauthorised ready-made guides, recitation of the habitual practice and an excessive use of the students' mother tongue rather than the target language in the classroom.

Conversely, the female teacher would encourage the students to be involved in their own learning. Thus, the students seemed to be at liberty to contrast or agree with the views of their teacher. Her shift from 'closed' questioning style to 'Cook's Tour' and 'Freewheeling' would allow more students' participation in their learning processes. This led to the creation of a friendly and non-threatening atmosphere in the classroom. In addition, it motivated the students to share their views with their teachers. Hence both the latter questioning styles contributed towards students' speaking practice in English as well as the production of their own utterances spontaneously in the target language in the classroom. The data further suggest that among other pedagogical functions (see figure 10.2), teachers recall students' memory (PF1), teachers introduce new information (PF2), teachers are
reluctant to provide further explanation of the new teaching items (PF4), teachers avoid student led discussion (PF5), teachers rephrase the students' response (PF8), and teachers move quickly to new teaching items (PF10), were considered to be the 'central themes' of their teaching due to the influence of the contextual factors (such as completion and revision of the syllabus, getting students through the examination etc.). This was confirmed from their interviews.

Looking at figure 10.2 overleaf, it appears that in spite of the influence of the examination based on the philosophy of the 'selective function of education', the female teacher tended to facilitate her students to some extent to use the target language in the particular social context. In contrast, the other three teachers were likely to ignore this aspect of language learning and deviated from the original aims of the doctrine perhaps because it is an unexaminable part of the syllabus. This was confirmed from the teachers' interviews. It is evident that the centrally developed innovation has failed to operate in achieving its intended outcome. I am led to agree with Calderhead's (1984) view that such curriculum innovations always have a 'superficial impact on classroom life'.

10.1.3 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THE PREACTIVE PHASE OF TEACHING
All the teachers' reported thoughts on the preactive phase of teaching reveal that their lesson planning, either the 'written' or the conceptual, serves two main purposes. The first is to ensure that their teaching follows the examination syllabus. The second is to make the best use of time in the classroom for themselves and the students. The probationer teachers (Messrs Rashadi and Shaikh), in spite of their detailed and systematic planning based on Herbartian five steps of
Figure 10.2 Comparison of Main Recurrent Pedagogical Functions

- PF 1: Teachers recall students' memory
- PF 2: Teachers introduce new information
- PF 4: Teachers evaluate to provide further explanation
- PF 5: Teachers avoid the students' led discussion
- PF 8: Teachers generate new teaching items
- PF 9: Teachers move quickly to new teaching items
- PF 10: Teachers correct the students' use of language in the context

Pedagogical Functions

Frequency of Pedagogical Functions in the Classroom

Key:
- Mr. Shakh
- Mr. Soomro
- Mr. Rashadi
- Miss Farzana
lesson planning (i.e. preparation, presentation, comparison and abstraction, generalisation and application), failed to put their plans into practice perhaps because of their lack of experience, confidence, and practical knowledge about the subject matter and the learning context. This was confirmed in both the observations and interviews. In other words, their planning can be termed 'too ambitious'.

10.1.4 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THE INTERACTIVE PHASE OF TEACHING

The reported teachers' thoughts on the interactive phase of teaching show that experienced teachers appeared to be guided by a set of well-established routines. Hence they would employ their repertoire of routines in connection with each specific teaching activity. They developed a mental image of the different types of lessons involving a specific sequence of activities and carried out the same activities with some 'fine-tuning adjustment'. On the other hand the probationer teachers tended to rely upon 'ready-made guides' and followed them so blindly that they could not even confirm the spelling and meaning of the words in the dictionary, perhaps because they lacked knowledge of the subject matter. This may lead to a misconception of the innovation. These teachers considered the use of the unauthorised guide as a 'helping hand' in their teaching, especially when they were afraid of consulting their colleagues or Heads. As one of the teachers said:

If I consult the Head or any staff members which means I'm going to disclose my own weakness... They will propagate among the students and other colleagues, it happened with many teachers...The Head may use such weaknesses against me in our cold war.

(Mr. Shaikh)
This highlights the lack of a 'supportive mechanism' at classroom level and sense of 'restricted professionalism' as well. Given this situation, the teachers were placed at the mercy of change barriers which were difficult for them to understand and which tended to impede change by engendering powerlessness and confusion. This necessitated them to use different survival strategies to secure their job. Probationer teachers were prone to adopt what Wood (1979) calls 'occupational therapy' as survival strategy i.e. giving the students repetitive drill practice. On the other hand the experienced female teacher tended to adopt a 'socialisation-cum-negotiation' strategy. It was noted that when an experienced male teacher adopted 'domination-cum-socialisation' survival strategies, I had the impression that he was just trying to hide a teaching weakness. In fact, this created a social gap between the teacher and the students rather than bridging that gap, something considered to be necessary for effective learning. These impressions were confirmed from the classroom observations and the students' interviews (see Section 10.1.2, 10.2).

10.1.5 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE METHODS AND THEIR ROLE

The FOCUSed Mode grid in figure 10.3 exhibits 3 main groups of the clusters. Cluster one contains E4 (audio lingual method) and E2 (direct method) which are a closely related pair having 78% matching score. E5 (situational language teaching) is closely linked with the pair of E4 and E2, and form a cluster. This indicates a teacher-perceived similarity between these methods. The second cluster comprises E1 (grammar-translation) and E8 (structural method) which tend to be perceived as similar, having the same influence on the teaching. E6 (communicative language teaching) is least linked within cluster two.
The methods associated with cluster one and two have been rated highly which suggests that all the teachers tend to perceive these methods to be effective in their teaching. Miss Farzana, Mr. Soomro and Mr. Shaikh [G1, G3, G4] appeared to have shared greater common understanding than G2 – Mr. Rashadi, for whom only one common construct appears. The rest of the methods such as natural, audio visual and silent way stand isolated in the element tree diagram. Therefore, it might be said that these methods failed to capture the teachers' attention during their teaching process.

Examining the construct tree in figure 10.3, 4 main clusterings appear. Cluster one containing C9 (motivates the students to speak English) and C10 (students feel relaxed) are a highly matching pair (72%) and may be referred to the 'affective' domain of the students' learning. Cluster two comprises C4 (provides thorough drill in the model sentences), C1 (creative writing), C2 (developing translation skills) and C6 (students improve their English accent) and may be loosely subsumed in the 'cognitive' domain of learning. Cluster three consists of C3 (teaching prepositions), C5 (teaching forms of verb) and C4 (developing reading skills) and may be associated with developing students' 'linguistic competence'. The fourth and last cluster containing C12 (developing listening skills), C8 (use of the language in the context) and C13 (developing confidence for speaking English) may be related to the development of students' 'communicative competence'. Thus the teachers tended to perceive the methods to be effective in terms of developing students' 'affective', 'cognitive', 'linguistic' and 'communicative' competence. This suggests their approach to teaching might be 'open' and 'global'. However, all these four teachers tended in their practice to give more importance to the 'restricted' approach underlying the
philosophy of the 'selective function of education'. It can be said that in practice, the teachers' teaching behaviour was highly influenced by the context of learning manifested in attaching importance to the examination. Such conflict gave rise to the discrepancy between the teachers' thoughts and actions. As far as the nature of the discrepancy is concerned, it may accord with the findings outlined by Keddie (1971) and Day (1984). Given this situation, the teachers' classroom behaviour failed to reflect their 'theories of action', nor did it show a consistency with the desired ends of doctrine. This corroborates the earlier findings of this study that innovation is likely to have only superficial impact on the classroom life until it is grounded in the intended context of learning. Thus all the teachers expressed the need for the design of a 'coherent' curriculum policy.

In figure 10.4, the element tree displays two main clusterings. Cluster one appears to be predominant. It contains E6 (to provide feedback when marking the students' work) and E2 (to encourage the students to converse in English) which are a highly related pair (82%), and E8 (to develop the students' creative thinking) is closely linked (80%) with the pair. E4 (to maintain friendly relationship with the students) with E9 (to develop students' confidence), and E3 (to make lesson planning interesting) with E1 (to motivate the students for learning English) are related pairs (75%) within cluster one. All these dimensions of the teachers' role are joined together at 73% level of matching score. The preponderance of cluster one suggests the teachers' 'core role' in the classroom. As in grid 1, teachers 1, 3 and 4 tended to share greater common understanding while construing their 'core role' in the
Figure 10.4 FOCUSed Mode grid of four teachers.
classroom. Again, Mr. Rashadi (teacher 2) tends to share less understanding with the members of the group while construing his 'core role'. This mirrors his frustration and dissatisfaction with his role. So far as the other three teachers [G1, G3 and G4] are concerned, a discrepancy appears between their 'perceived role' and 'actual role' played in the classroom. This indicates that although the teachers could change their traditional routines, the actual demands of the instructional and learning milieu do not allow them to do so at their own pace.

In the analysis of the construct tree two dominating clusters, containing an equal number of the constructs, appear. Cluster one comprising C12 (students are able to assess their progress), C8 (students are eager to speak English), C6 (deep level understanding), C2 (students appreciate their learning), C1 (students feel free to talk to their teachers), and C11 (self-directed learning) may be referred to the 'process oriented approach'. Cluster two consisting of C10 (pass the examination), C9 (provokes the students' thoughts), C3 (students solve their learning problems), C7 (makes the students work hard), C4 (students feel relaxed), C5 (students take initiative) may be associated with the 'product oriented approach'. Theoretically it seems that the teachers perceived the impact of their role on the students' learning in terms of 'process' and 'product'. But in the classroom reality, they tended to attach more importance to 'product' than to the 'process' of language learning, - an approach disfavoured by the majority of the students (see Section 10.2). Again, this suggests disjunction between the teachers' thought and action. Therefore, there is a perceived need to formulate a 'coherent' curriculum change policy grounded in the classroom reality.

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As mentioned earlier, all the four teachers seemed to be reluctant to use an officially recommended audio lingual method, therefore the traditional method of grammar-translation was predominant in their teaching. However, this data indicates an awareness that the 'multi-method approach' may have a significant influence on the students' learning in terms of cognitive, affective, interpersonal, social, linguistic and communicative competence. The following sections indicate that they were of the opinion that a change is needed in the infrastructure of the education system to improve the existing situation.

10.1.6 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON CURRICULAR INNOVATION

All the teachers expressed their discontentment with the innovative doctrines in terms of curriculum objectives, content, teaching methods and students' assessment. They thought that the proposed innovative ideas were the product of the wisdom of either the bureaucrats or the educationists selected from tertiary education who had no knowledge at all of the school phenomenology. They also believed that these so-called curriculum developers always relied on the experiences of the developed countries. This was confirmed from government documents, one of which maintained that:

The National Committee while updating the structures, vocabulary and methodologies of English language teaching have benefited from the recommendations of the most recent authorities on the development of material and methodologies of teaching English as second/foreign language e.g. Wilga G Rivers, 'Teaching Foreign Language Skill', Christopher J Brumfit, 'Teaching English as a Foreign Language', Donn Byrne's 'English Teaching Perspectives' etc.

(Pakistan Government 1986, p.i)

Thus the innovation was adopted without an investigation being made of
its feasibility and its consequences. For example, the audio lingual method makes additional demands both on the teachers and the taught to use the target language rather than the mother tongue as a means of 'classroom discourse'. Consequently all the teachers except Miss Farzana seemed to be handicapped in using English in the classroom because of their own lack of proficiency in both spoken and written communication.

I strongly suspect that the audio lingual method was mostly used in developed countries with adequate technical resources and support available to the teachers. Conversely, in the Pakistani schools, the teachers had no access to tapes, language labs and audio visual aids, while sometimes the students even brought the chalks to the classroom (see further Hurst 1981). It was also noted that the teachers lacked 'declarative' and 'procedural' knowledge of methods generally and the 'audio lingual method' in particular, a certain level of proficiency in English, and adequate professional support at the classroom level to guide their actions. Given this situation, it could be argued that it was premature to implement the proposed innovation in the Pakistani context where there was already a 'crisis' in the form of the shortage of skilled and proficient teachers for teaching English. All the teachers were in agreement that the emphasis on learning speaking and listening comprehension skills should be given high priority at the threshold level. They also rejected the prevailing orthodoxy that 'every adult is a teacher' and further emphasised that the teaching of English should be allotted only to those teachers who had been properly trained and who were proficient in English.
The data of all four case studies further suggests that the innovation was not properly diffused, disseminated and tested before being practised. Thus the teachers remained 'ill-informed' and 'unaware' of new ideas. This in turn led to the development of 'innovation ills' which I believe could only be cured by raising the teachers' academic and professional awareness. They need to be enabled to adopt new ideas with the help of a 'supportive mechanism' within the 'classroom' or school organisation level and by joint efforts of both the teachers and curriculum planners. Calderhead (1984) suggested:

If new ideas are to be successfully translated into action in the classroom, there is clearly a need for teachers, curriculum developers, and those in authority within schools, to come to a fuller understanding of the processes involved in planning and classroom teaching, and a need for greater cooperation among them.

(p.88)

Hence, in the case of the failure of innovation, the teachers should not be made scapegoats.

10.1.7 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THE PRACTICAL PROBLEMS

The data of all the teachers indicates that the classroom processes seemed to be constrained by the three major types of problems which were labelled as 'governing', 'frame' and 'social'. As in the previous case studies, these have equally contributed towards the failure of the innovation and have strong implications for curriculum change policy.

The data further indicates that nearly half of the teaching time was turned into 'waste' because of the interruption in the normal classes from outside elements (see figure 10.5 (a-d)). The teachers would change the sequence of activities by dropping some parts from their
152% \text{(TEACHING)}

Mr. Rashidi (Case Four)
Figure 10.5(b)

Mr. Soomro (Case Five)
Figure 10.5(c)

Mr. Shaikh (Case Six)
Figure 10.5(d)

KEY:
SC: School circular
TT: Teacher's telephone call
HV: Head's visit
SSV: Supervisory staff's visit
PV: Parents' visit
HC: Head's call to teacher
TGV: Teacher's guest visit
CV: Colleague's visit for the different purposes

Figure 10.5 (a–d) The extent of the classroom interruptions

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original lesson plans to complete the lesson in the given time. Classroom interruption was considered a main impediment to the successful implementation of innovation, teachers' action and students' learning process.

10.1.8 THE IMPLICATIONS OF CURRICULUM CHANGE POLICY

Johnson (1989a) maintained that the failure of curriculum innovation is a failure of curriculum policy. Therefore Johnson (1989b) suggested that decisions regarding curriculum development processes should be related to the context of classroom learning. Olson (1982b), underlining the importance of the policy said that offering remedies for curriculum change problems is actual improvement of the curriculum change policy. The data reveals that the curriculum change policy was neither rationally framed nor grounded in the learning context where the innovation was supposed to be implemented. The literature on curriculum study demonstrated that the mismatch between the desired aims of curriculum change policy and actual demands of the instructional and learning milieu was perceived a common dilemma in both the developed countries (see Olson 1980) and the developing countries (see Dove 1986).

In this context Dove (1986, p.51) further went on to say that:

Policy targets were too ambitious, time scales were too short, resources allocated were inadequate and the vital stages in the development of curriculum such as situational analysis or monitoring and evaluation were neglected. The outcome was that very many plans for new curricula remained on paper, in syllabuses and textbooks and teacher's guides.

Hence, there is a need to improve the curriculum change policy which may serve successful implementation of the innovation.
For the empirical part of the study, 80 students as a total sample were selected from six schools and interviewed. Of these 80, 20 students' descriptions and their perceptions concerning their needs for learning English associated with the relevance of language skills, learning approaches and the teachers' teaching style have already been described in the previous two detailed case studies (see Chapter 8 and 9).

In order to gain further insights into the students' perspective, the remaining 60 students' data is summarised and presented in figures 10.6, 10.7 and 10.8. For the analysis of the data, no prior theoretical framework was imposed, rather the explanatory concepts and categories were drawn from the data. The content validity and the consistency in the data were checked accordingly (see Chapter 6).

10.2.1 LANGUAGE LEARNING NEEDS COMPARED WITH THE RELEVANCE OF THE FOUR BASIC LANGUAGE SKILLS

Figure 10.6 (overleaf) shows three main categories of the students' perceived needs regarding learning English - academic, professional and international - which are compared with the relevance of the students' language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing). The data suggests that the majority of the students perceived that speaking and listening skills were relatively important for their needs. However, it appeared from the classroom observation and teachers' and students' interviews that the school practice consisted of the teaching of reading and writing skills because these were to be directly assessed in the examination. As far as speaking and listening comprehension skills are concerned, these remain unexamined in the internal context as well as in the external examination. Therefore, it can be suggested that these skills did not receive the teachers' proper attention in the
### Figure 10.6 Students' perceived needs of learning English and their relevance to language skills (N=60)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived needs for learning English</th>
<th>Listening %</th>
<th>Speaking %</th>
<th>Writing %</th>
<th>Reading %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. ACADEMIC NEEDS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Means of communication in seminars, symposia etc. in Pakistan</em></td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Medium of instruction in higher education</em></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Proficiency required in English for studying abroad</em></td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Proficiency required in English for competitive examinations</em></td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. PROFESSIONAL NEEDS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Advocates/Barrister</em></td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Engineering</em></td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Medicine</em></td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Army, Navy and Air force</em></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Banking</em></td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Administration</em></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Teaching</em></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. INTERNATIONAL NEEDS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Means of communication with the world</em></td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Means of international mass media</em></td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>English as an International language</em></td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Prerequisite for getting jobs abroad</em></td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Acquisition of knowledge of science and technology</em></td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
classroom. This highlights the 'conflicting situation' between teachers and students in the classroom derived from the lack of realistic curriculum change policy. Thus the students lose their interest in learning English which produces another constraint upon the successful implementation of innovation.

10.2.2 STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR LEARNING STRATEGIES

A considerable amount of research on students' learning approaches in higher education has been conducted in western countries to identify the main factors which affect these approaches. These factors have implications for curriculum and instructional strategy in the classroom. There is a general consensus among researchers, including Laurillard (1979), Entwistle (1981), and Allan (1985), about the content and contextual factors which may be influential in affecting students' learning approaches.

To amplify, Laurillard (1979) noted that the students' own orientation towards their task, their perception of teaching and their perception of the task itself were important influences on the students' learning approaches. Thus the teachers' teaching styles and the nature of the tasks affect learning while students' learning orientations and strategies vary considerably from task to task and in different conditions of learning. So far as I know, no serious attempts have been made to understand task demands on students in relation to learning orientation which may have increased or changed because of implementation of a new curriculum and its new teaching strategy in school education. Entwistle (1981) emphasised the need to study the curriculum implications for students' learning approaches related to learning task and orientation. In the literature (see Entwistle 1981),
Researchers have produced evidence that students are highly responsive to different aspects of teaching and assessment in the learning milieu, while Johnson (1989a) warned that if the students were apathetic and unmotivated, even a well-planned curriculum might not achieve its desired goals.

From the analysis of the students' interviews, two major learning orientations emerged which were called 'academic achievement' and 'personal development'. These are related to their learning tasks and are more or less similar to Laurillard's (1978) factors (i.e. academic motivation, vocational motivation and social orientation), describing students' learning orientations in higher education. It is interesting to note that 'academic achievement' is a common syndrome in higher and school education in both developed and developing countries [see Laurillard (1978), Zubir (1983) and Morris (1983)]. Two categories regarding students' learning strategies for accomplishing their task emerged and were labelled 'Teacher Oriented Learning' (TOL) and 'Activity Oriented Learning' (AOL). I also observed that the students who adopted the TOL strategy appeared to apply a 'surface level processing' approach and those who adopted the AOL strategy tended to use forms of 'deep level processing' (Marton and Säljö (1976)) as described in figure 10.7 overleaf.

Out of 60 students, 49 had a preference for AOL and the remaining 11 students applied TOL strategies in performing their task. Those who preferred the AOL strategy would actually use TOL in practice to accomplish their learning tasks in terms of 'digesting the teachers' information; completing the syllabus; solving the model question papers and reproducing the knowledge in the examination hall'. It is worth
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEARNING ORIENTATION</th>
<th>No OF STUDENTS N=60</th>
<th>LEARNING TASK</th>
<th>LEARNING STRATEGY</th>
<th>LEVEL OF PROCESSING</th>
<th>REASONS IN ORDER OF PRIORITY FOR ADOPTING PARTICULAR APPROACH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>- Digest teacher information</td>
<td>Teacher oriented learning (TOL)</td>
<td>Surface level</td>
<td>1. Fear of failure of examination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Rely on teacher directives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Fear of corporal punishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Complete the syllabus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Lack of confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Solve the model question papers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Curriculum is overloaded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Reproduce the knowledge during examination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Content is uninteresting and difficult to learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>- Solve self learning problems</td>
<td>Activity oriented learning (AOL)</td>
<td>Deep level</td>
<td>6. Selective study to secure good marks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT AS A WHOLE</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Learn the use of language through activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7. Teachers teach from examination point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Speak English in the classroom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8. Teachers compel students to conform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Creative writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9. Students don't need to work hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Personal effort to understand the content</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10. Teachers' guidance essential in learning correct pronunciation and language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Integrating thoughts and feelings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

271
noting here that the majority of students tended to adopt TOL approaches
because of the 'fear of examination failure; fear of corporal
punishment; curriculum overloaded; and content which is seen to be
uninteresting and too difficult to learn at their own pace'. This
indicates that the students were not intrinsically motivated to adopt
TOL approach but that the external pressure (what Entwistle (1981)
called 'context of learning') was predominantly in that direction. It
can be argued that as soon as the conditions of learning were changed
students would shift their orientation to an alternative, as many of
them proposed in their interviews. The following quote is
representative:

From primary school education till now our intellectual
abilities are suppressed, I don't know who is responsible
for that... we have been given impression that whatever
teachers teach is important and expected to come in the
examination question papers. To some extent, I agree... I
don't want to criticise the importance of the examination,
but in the way we are prepared is not lesser than
mechanistic process... However, I change my learning
strategy when I'm involved in activity oriented learning.

(Muhammad Ali (ID 60) TOL)

Two further extracts of students' interviews are given below to
illustrate each of the levels of processing of learning:

SURFACE LEVEL OF PROCESSING

Teachers get salary for their job to explain the abstract ideas,
rules of grammar and teach pronunciation. If I learn or study
something I'm not sure that I have understood them properly.
Therefore, I prefer to copy the classroom notes, write and rewrite
and remember them, I don't need to explain or interpret the things
learned from the teacher...

(Muhammad Arif(ID 41) TOL)

DEEP LEVEL OF PROCESSING

I learn the things not only to pass the examination but to think
about what is good and bad. I decide how to tackle the problem
and find the solution. I share my views with the peers and the
teachers. But more time is required. I learn grammar rules not
Those students who tended to adopt the AOL approach thought that it was helpful in developing their confidence, for learning to learn how to use the target language in the specific context, for developing personal communicative competence and for personal enjoyment, although most thought that they were not at liberty to make this choice. The data suggests that an 'open' classroom learning atmosphere is needed in which students have freedom to express their thoughts and choices of strategies and to use the target language in the classroom.

10.2.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' TEACHING STYLES AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

In figure 10.8 (overleaf) the students' views on teaching are summarised. The summary demonstrates that the majority of students tended to show some aversion towards their teachers' teaching. The most common features for them which contributed towards this disfavour appeared to be 'authoritarian teaching behaviour', 'emphasis on completion of the examination syllabus' and 'rote memorisation' which in turn are features of the formalist style of teaching.

Pask (1976a) noted that such extreme teaching styles can be markedly disadvantageous to students with a mismatched learning style. Entwistle (1981) on this point reminded us that the implication of education (curriculum) is presumably that teachers need to provide opportunities for students to learn in a way which suits their preferred style of learning. If teachers adopt too extreme a method of teaching, perhaps reflecting their own learning style, one group of students will find opportunities alien to their way of learning (p.95).
### STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE TEACHING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Teacher</th>
<th>No. of Students (N=60)</th>
<th>FAVOUR</th>
<th>DISFAVOUR</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Miss FARZANA</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr RASHADI</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr SOOMRO</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr SHEIKH</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**COMMON VIEWS ON TEACHING**

- **FAVOUR**: facilitator; organises learning activities based on students' needs and interests; helpful in developing language skills and imparting linguistic knowledge; allows student to ask questions; explains and demonstrates the things at the request of students; sympathetic.

- **DISFAVOUR**: treats students as machines; doesn't provide sufficient feedback, teaches from examination point of view; emphasis on rote memorization.

- **FAVOUR**: uses translation method; checks students' homework; checks fair notes.

- **DISFAVOUR**: relies on the ready-made guide; just pass the time; always cross and furious with students, dominates the class pretending to be good teacher; examination oriented.

- **FAVOUR**: ability to deal with the students in an uncertain situation; facilitator; explains new concepts explicitly; encouraging attitude; sometimes negotiates learning tasks.

- **DISFAVOUR**: examination oriented teaching; emphasis on rote learning; doesn't bother to create learning atmosphere; never uses English in the classroom; teaches language system; vocabulary taught in isolated form.

- **FAVOUR**: maintains classroom discipline; teaches through students' mother tongue; checks daily students' homework.

- **DISFAVOUR**: usurps the students' freedom; forces students to learn content by heart; doesn't encourage students to converse in English in the classroom; authoritarian teaching behaviour and syllabus-bound teaching.
The data suggests that the teachers need to adopt teaching styles more appropriate to the students' learning style to make the teaching and learning process more effective. This will also help the teachers to translate the curriculum innovation into practice successfully in the classroom.

10.3 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The developing countries mostly rely on under-qualified and non-specialist teachers [see Beeby (1960) and MacDonald et al. (1985)] adopting the general orthodoxy that 'every teacher can teach English irrespective of the specialist qualification and experience'. The present study does not confirm this as good practice. There was general consensus among the teachers that the teaching of English should only be assigned to those who have a specialist qualification, knowledge of linguistics, and language pedagogy at certain levels of proficiency in English. The analysis of the data suggests that imported innovations generally, and in particular the audio lingual method, are ineffective. The audio lingual method was originally developed in American culture and then imported into other countries including Pakistan. In Pakistan, curriculum developers imitated it, assuming the universal applicability of western knowledge in developing countries. The international transfer of knowledge is not such an easy task as it is assumed [see Hurst (1981), Crossley (1984)], since conflict is created between two contextual realities. In this case teachers revert to their traditional routines through which they found themselves secure in the classroom.

It is argued that benefit can be derived from the American and Western countries, but innovation is also not free from the danger of being 'blunted on the classroom door' (Goodlad 1969) if it is adopted hastily.
without proper trials and dissemination in the different contextual realities. The teachers in this research encountered three types of major practical problems while translating curriculum into practice at classroom level. These were identified as 'governing', 'frame' and 'social' and were main barriers to curriculum change, having a strong influence on the teachers' thinking and practice. In addition, frequent classroom interruptions occurred owing to external factors (see figure 10.5 (a-d)) which also frustrated the teachers and contributed towards nearly half of the teaching time being 'wasted'. This too may have implications for curriculum change policy.

The analysis of the data further indicates that the teachers' professional autonomy and interest were limited by traditional routines, such as covering the prescribed syllabus and its revision, keeping of the students' fair notebooks, checking spelling and maintaining discipline in the classroom. The central theme of their teaching was to impart factual knowledge to the students and to get this memorised for the achievement of high grades in the examination. It is worth mentioning here that high grades are necessary for entry to higher education and the professions. It is also interesting to note that the number of examination passes was considered as the main criterion for judging the teachers' efficiency. Given this situation, learning was equated with memorising factual content and the teachers concentrated their teaching on examination classes and obviously neglected the other areas of curriculum. This results in an apparent mismatch between teachers' thoughts and their actions. This mismatch is also influenced by three major practical problems or change barriers at the classroom level.
The innovative doctrine promises equal emphasis on teaching students four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) including grammar, pronunciation, stress and intonation and composition using the audio lingual method (Government of Pakistan 1986). Conversely the school practice continued its habitual practice of teaching reading and writing skills along with, to some extent, grammatical knowledge of language in the classroom from the examination point of view. It may be pointed out that as usual the grammar-translation method was overwhelmingly predominant in the class. This indicates the gap between curriculum policy and practice attributable to the centrally developed innovation underlying the centre-periphery approach in curriculum development. Crossley (1984) noted that:

in many developing countries where central government has introduced new syllabus and materials on a nationwide basis, this is... characterised by a considerable hiatus between curriculum policy and practice. Such policy is often based on rational strategy for the achievement of desirable ends but ignores the contextual reality where the innovation is going to be implemented.

(p.79)

Though it is not a new issue in both the developed and developing countries, it has become a 'challenge' to the curriculum developers who so far have only paid lip service to it. It is argued that remedies lie in sound and 'coherent' curriculum change policy involving the users of the curriculum innovation. I believe this process will help in developing a healthy and balanced 'curriculum design' process for bringing about the qualitative improvements in the existing situation.

The students' perceptions show that they considered listening comprehension and speaking skills to be relevant to their academic, professional and international needs, in contrast to the school practice. The data also further suggest that the majority of students
tended to adopt the AOL approach, but in accomplishing their task for the 'academic achievement', they were likely to adopt the TOL strategy. Their given reasons indicate that these students seemed to be extrinsically rather than intrinsically motivated to adopt the TOL approach which contributed towards their surface level of understanding. The second group of students seemed to be intrinsically motivated to adopt the AOL approach to fulfil their task for their 'personal development as a whole'. It is worth pointing out that the secondary school students are always considered to be dependent on their teachers, whereas the majority of the students were inclined to adopt the AOL approach for personal reasons which contributed to their deep level understanding.

It may be argued that when students are confident and free from any sort of anxiety or fear they can learn more effectively than in an authoritarian environment. Thus it can be inferred that the present curriculum in operation and inherent teaching strategies failed to cater for the students' needs, interests and curricular choice. This results in an apparent mismatch between the students' learning styles and the teachers' teaching styles. Above all, the data suggests a persistent need for curriculum renewal to bring about qualitative change in the existing situation.
CHAPTER ELEVEN

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

We cannot understand... [curriculum] change unless we understand what teachers are trying to accomplish by their actions in the classrooms.

(Olson 1982a, p.4)

(my emphasis)

11.0 INTRODUCTION

The findings drawn from the initial survey (see Chapter 7) provided the bases for generating the 'working hypotheses' which guided the research action in the in-depth study, described in Chapters 8, 9 and 10. The analysis of the case studies in these chapters has indicated the conflicting demands made on teachers between the actual demands of examinations and the desired goals of innovative doctrines. [See also Morris (1985)]. Thus the conflicting demands of the examinations contributed to blunting innovation at the classroom door in a developing country [see also Leong (1982), Saunders and Vulliany (1983), and Shah (1986)].

A mismatch between the 'desired goals of innovative doctrine' and the 'actual demands of the examination', caused in turn by inappropriate acknowledgement of the contextual reality of the learning milieu, led to a mismatch between teachers' teaching style and students' learning strategies and needs.

Two main expectations were related to the present study. Perhaps, first, there is a need to understand how the teachers make sense of externally developed innovation in the natural institutional setting, so that investigations of the practical problems inherent in curriculum change and its impact on the teaching-learning process in EACL at secondary school level in Pakistan could be made, and secondly, to
explore the possibility of a viable, feasible and coherent alternative framework which can contribute to improving the present process of curriculum change. No one has yet offered a complete solution to the problems of curriculum change. However, the present study may be treated as a starting point in developing countries, particularly Pakistan. Therefore, although the proposed model (see figure 11.1, p. 296) may not offer a panacea for all the 'curriculum innovation ills', I can say with some confidence that it may help to guide the thinking and actions of personnel who are involved in the task of curriculum change, especially for EACL at secondary school level in Pakistan.

In this chapter, I will review the theoretical framework used in the present study in Section 11.1, integrating the findings from all 6 case studies in Section 11.2 in an attempt to provide answers to the eleven research questions posed in Chapter 2, Section 2.4. I will also present and discuss the feasibility and viability of a coherent model for curriculum and instructional improvement in the light of the data of the present study (see Section 11.3). A general conclusion drawn from the data which has strong implications for curriculum change policy will be given in Section 11.4, followed by a discussion of the implications for further study in Section 11.5.

11.1 REVIEW OF THE THEORETICAL PLATFORM OF THE STUDY

The present study evolved from the general concerns and issues of curriculum change in TEACL viewed by both the groups of curriculum users - teachers and taught - and others who influenced the curriculum (see Chapter 7, Section 7.6). These concerns provided me with deep insights and greater understanding which formed the framework for carrying out my 'intensive study' (see Chapters 8, 9 and 10). Thus these concerns
served as 'working hypotheses' which guided the research action and further contributed to developing my personal view that 'whatever the teachers knew, they brought to bear in their classroom practice' (Olson (1982a)).

My understanding of how the teachers construe innovation developed externally to schools and what problems they face while translating it into classroom practice, has been further guided by the notion that every participant is a 'form of motion' and a 'meaning-maker'. Thus no one is the victim of his/her circumstance or biography - a central tenet of Kelly's (1955) 'Personal Construct Theory'. Kelly's model of people as scientists and his fundamental postulate derives from the philosophical position of 'constructive alternativism'. This embodies the assumption that a person's present interpretations of the universe are tentative, subject to disconformation, revision and replacement with the new ones.

Hence, teachers, being active members in the educational enterprise, construe curriculum innovation in their own unique way. If the construction of their experiences are found to be similar to others, this is only because of the similarity of their psychological processes. This notion gives rise to an alternative paradigm of curriculum development - the 'humanistic curriculum' wherein all the teachers work as 'autonomous agents' making decisions in their daily routines. This view sees curriculum as 'practical' or 'deliberation' (Reid 1979). This "does away with the artificial divorce of ends and means and focuses on decision-making or deliberation" (Schwab 1969).
Following Schwab (1969), Connelly (1972) presented a view of teachers as 'user-developers' rather than 'passive receivers of innovation' or 'neutral transmitters' of curriculum programmes. In this way the autonomous decision-making function of the teachers in adopting or adapting curriculum materials according to the demands of the context of the 'learning milieu' are acknowledged. Olson (1980), working within this notion, empirically found in the context of developed countries that teachers adopted those parts of the innovation which were found to be relevant to their practical situation. Leong (1982), Morris (1985) and Dove (1986) also found similar reactions of teachers towards the adoption of innovation in the context of developing countries. Thus the inference can be drawn from these findings that the teachers are neither 'neutral transmitters of curriculum proposals' nor 'humble servants of the system', a view embedded in a linear approach of curriculum development.

I believe that each teacher, regardless of his/her qualification and experience, holds an 'implicit theory' (Clark and Yinger 1977) or a 'practical theory' of teaching (Handal and Lauvas 1987) which influences his/her daily classroom practice or 'routine' (Olson 1984). According to Handal and Lauvas (1987, p.9), "every teacher possesses a 'practical theory' of teaching which is subjectively the strongest determining factor in [his] her education practice". They further went on to say that the practical theory is a "person's private, integrated but ever-changing system of knowledge, experience and values which is relevant to teaching practice at any particular time".

Fox (1983) identified two types of teachers' theories of teaching and labelled them 'simple' and 'developed'. He maintained that probationer
teachers are likely to hold 'simple' theories while experienced teachers are likely to hold 'developed' theories. In the present study, out of 3 experienced teachers (2 male and 1 female), 1 male tended to hold simple theories of his teaching. This appears to contrast with Fox (1983) but it is argued that all experienced teachers may not change their theories of teaching until they are provided with a 'supportive climate' (Moses 1985) or 'fixed role treatment' [see Diamond (1985)]

The above theoretical considerations provided a sense of direction to the present study by adapting an 'illuminative methodology' within the paradigm of 'naturalistic inquiry'. As the study proceeded, an 'emergent research design model' (see Chapter 6) developed and was used for gathering relevant information through the various techniques. To further cross-check the information, a 'triangulation' approach 'within' and 'between' the methods was employed (see Chapters 5 and 6). Thus the 'illuminative methodological approach' underlying the paradigm of 'naturalistic inquiry' enabled me to explore and gain insights into the multi-dimensions of the contextual reality.

In the following section, I shall now discuss the findings for each research question.

11.2 DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

11.2.1 TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE OBJECTIVES IN THE EXISTING AND THEIR IDEAL CURRICULUM FOR EAAL

Data from all six teachers reveals that they considered the objectives related to developing students' language learning skills for reading and writing to be important in their existing curriculum, this being an
examinable part of the syllabus. The same were considered to be least important in their ideal curriculum. The objectives associated with developing the students' listening and speaking skills were perceived to be least important in their existing curriculum because they form an unexaminable part of the syllabus. The same were perceived to be most important in their ideal curriculum. The teachers showed their high preferences for developing students' listening and speaking skills in their ideal curriculum. However, they also generally emphasised the benefits of 'equilibrium' in learning the four language skills. This contrasted with their practice manifested in the importance they attached to the public examination.

Thus, as an influence of examinations, the teachers would deviate from the original mandate and adapt only those parts which were found to be relevant to the learning context. This suggests a mismatch between the 'desired goals' of the doctrine and 'actual demands' of the examination. Thus it can be said that the present curriculum not only failed to match the perceptions of the teachers but also failed to be consistent with the contextual demands of the learning milieu. Such weaknesses can be attributed to the 'top-down reforms' promoted by unresearched government directives rather than by the demands of the curriculum users. To circumvent the failure of innovation, Bossert's (1979) views appear to be relevant here that successful implementation may be characterised by the process of sharing common understanding, values, and interests by the teachers, students and others generally and in particular the management of examination boards. Thus such 'joint ventures' and 'cooperative efforts' may lead to improvement in the process of curriculum change.
All the teachers and the majority of the students expressed their dissatisfaction with the content of teaching. The students felt that the content did not match their abilities, needs and interests. They thought that lessons included in the prescribed textbooks were not organised along the lines of graded vocabulary. Most lessons contained large amounts of vocabulary which they found difficult to read or learn. The main concern raised by both the students and teachers was that in each lesson they found a long list of vocabulary which was not frequently used in subsequent lessons. As a result, they could not learn the different uses of the words in the particular social context of the language.

The teachers thought that there were no lessons in the textbook based on the 'functional-notional' or 'communicative approach' to language teaching, which allows students to learn the different functions of the target language. This added to the lack of development of communicative competence of the students in classroom practice. The teachers were also of the opinion that the topics of the lessons were uninteresting, being based on imported ideas. Therefore, the teachers themselves were not clear about many concepts. Both the teachers and the taught thought that the structure of the sentences was too difficult, making understanding difficult.

Since the curriculum material failed to capture the students' interest in the classroom, they would learn the content by rote rather than understanding, building links between existing and new knowledge.

Even well-planned curriculum with appropriate aims
effectively realised and implemented achieves little if students are apathetic and unmotivated.

(Johnson 1989a, p. XVII)

Nunan (1989) also advised us to include the students' 'hidden agenda' in the curriculum to make curriculum implementation more successful.

11.2.3 STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR ENGLISH LEARNING

The data shows that the majority of the students expressed positive attitudes towards learning English. From the analysis of the data, three 'needs' for learning English - academic, professional and international (see Figure 10.3) were identified. The majority of students, while comparing their needs within the four language skills - listening, speaking, reading and writing - perceived listening and speaking skills to be important in relation to the above three perceived needs. In contrast, as mentioned in Section 11.2.1, the teachers attached more importance to developing students' reading and writing skills.

This suggests that the existing curriculum and teachers' pedagogies failed to cater for the students' perceived needs.

11.2.4 STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR LEARNING STRATEGIES IN RELATION TO THEIR TEACHERS' TEACHING STYLES

The students' interview protocols suggest that their teachers' teaching styles appear to be more 'academic' and 'product' oriented and may be related to the 'transmission' style of teaching. However, the majority of the students preferred to adopt an 'AOL' strategy because they thought that it would facilitate them in developing their 'critical' and
'creative' thinking. Thus their learning orientation may fall within the domain of learning - 'personal development as a whole' (see Rogers 1983). This was considered to be an 'ultimate aim' and 'learning to learn' solving their problems and developing their confidence were perceived to be good reasons for adopting an 'AOL' strategy. The data further indicates that those students who adopted an 'AOL' strategy also tended to use 'deep level processing' (Marton and Säljö 1976), being intrinsically motivated to accomplish their tasks.

It is interesting to note that these students [Entwistle (1981) called them 'versatile students'] had the ability to shift from an 'AOL' to a 'TOL' strategy when their learning task was focused on getting the content memorised for the examination. They considered 'academic achievement' to be an 'immediate aim' and 'fear of examination failure' and 'fear of punishment' by the teacher (see photograph at Appendix E 1) were perceived to be the main reasons for adopting 'TOL' strategy.

A few students tended to adopt a 'TOL' strategy for 'academic achievement' as their 'ultimate' and 'immediate' aim. The fear of examination failure was considered the main reason for adopting this strategy. This encouraged them to use 'surface level processing'. This accords with Entwistle (1981) and Zubir (1983). Thus it can be said that the 'context of learning' and the teachers' teaching styles have not only a strong influence on students' learning but also hinders the process of curriculum translation into practice.

Zubir (1983) seemed to be reluctant to acknowledge the problem of mismatch as a 'decisive factor' having influence on the learning process. However, she identified other factors such as 'overloaded
curriculum', shortage of teachers, lack of resources etc, which may be considered as the 'secondary decisive factors' affecting the efficiency of the innovation.

My argument is that extreme mismatch between teaching style and the students' learning strategies may be considered as 'prime decisive factors' impeding the process of curriculum change. I can also say with some confidence that this is a 'common dilemma' in both developed and developing countries, having found similarities in my own study with those reported in the relevant literature.

11.2.5 PROBLEMS AFFECTING THE PROCESS OF CURRICULUM TRANSLATION INTO PRACTICE

From the analysis of the teachers' data, three main sources of the numerous problems faced by the teachers in the process of curriculum change into practice were identified and labelled as governing (teachers' personal theories or belief system), frame (instructional milieu) and social (learning milieu) factors. These served as main 'curriculum change barriers' at the classroom level. This suggests a lack of understanding of the phenomenology of classroom life on the curriculum developers' part. It does show the preponderance of the 'rational model of curriculum development' (Wise 1977) based on 'wishful thinking' or 'arm-chair research' rather than 'classroom reality' or 'practical reasoning' (Reid 1979) or 'deliberation' (Schwab 1969). This model has increased classroom problems rather than offering solutions for them.

In the context of developed countries, Arfwedson (1985) and Handal and Lauvås (1987) found the 'frame' and 'social' factors' influence to be
decisive on the teaching-learning process. In the present study, all these three sources of the practical problems were perceived to be equally determinant factors affecting the curriculum change process. Olson's (1980) findings based in the U.K. context appear to be more or less similar to the findings of the present study. He concluded that the practical problems occurred owing to the lack of interaction between appropriate instructional technology, task group and curriculum theory. Lillis (1985), in the context of the developing countries, found that 'the complex interrelationship' among the actors involved; the processes of adoption and development; the nature of the curriculum content; and the nature of the infrastructure were important determinants of the nature of the change process.

The availability of rich resources for curriculum innovation does not alone guarantee success. Therefore, in developing countries like Pakistan, where only 2% of the Gross National Product is allocated to the education sector and where there is political instability and lack of other resources, there cannot be a greater expectation of the success of curriculum change process than in developed countries. These non-curricular problems form a further constraint to effective curriculum change to the standards of education generally and to TEACL in particular.

In addition, the school ethos has also contributed much towards affecting the classroom processes. Interruptions in the normal classes (see Chapter 8, 9, and 10) resulted in more than half of the teaching time turning into 'waste'. There is a dire need to reformulate school policies and ethos so as to minimise classroom interruptions during normal teaching.
Apart from Mr. Soomro and Mr. Shaikh, the teachers were specialists in teaching English. In spite of their specialisation, they also tended to share their 'meaning system' with the non-specialists in that they found their professional knowledge and craft skills to be 'irrelevant' and 'inadequate' to meet the demands of the innovative curriculum. For example, the audio-lingual method was recommended, but owing to the lack of a certain level of proficiency and accuracy in both spoken and written English, and a low level of conceptual understanding of method, teachers failed to replace their habitual practice with this method.

They also found themselves to be handicapped by lack of knowledge of subject matter and applied linguistic or language pedagogy. As a result, most of them relied on unauthorised 'ready-made guides' and 'solved model question papers' in their well-established habitual routines. However, the latter were considered by them to be more helpful than the former. I strongly agree with Beeby (1966), Stenhouse (1975) and Tanner and Tanner (1980) that without considering the teachers' professional development, curriculum development is 'meaningless' and a 'waste of national resources'. It is argued that for successful implementation of curriculum innovation, the teachers' expertise and professional craft skills should match with the requirements of the new curriculum.

The prevailing orthodoxy suggests that 'every adult is a teacher'. Regardless of his/her specialisation or experience, he/she can teach any subject. This is not supported from the data of the present study. All the teachers thought that the teaching of English as a foreign language should be assigned to only those teachers who are proficient and fluent
in English and have appropriate knowledge of applied linguistics and/or
language pedagogy. The probationer teachers also found their
professional training to be 'impractical' to meet the demands of actual
classroom learning. Wilson's (1988, p.82) argument seems to be valid and
relevant to quote here, in that:

the teachers need to be trained to be sensitive to the
different frameworks of meaning within which different
learners may operate; they also need help to develop the
skills and attitudes which will enable them to explore these
successfully.

Hence there is a dire need to provide practical and context oriented
training for the teachers to meet the demands of the workplace.

11.2.8 TEACHERS' VIEWS OF THEIR TEACHING

All the six teachers' teaching was classified in three phases/functions
- pre-active (planning), inter-active (execution of the planned lesson)
and post-active (evaluation by reflections). However, reflection is not
a separate part of teaching but is built into the process of teaching.
Olson and Eaton (1987) referred to this as 'reflexive teaching'. Out of
the 6 teachers, 2 experienced teachers (1 male and 1 female) perceived
their teaching in terms of 'interpretation pedagogical styles' (see
Barnes 1976) and their teaching theories fell within the theoretical
framework 'simple and developed theories' devised by Fox (1983). The
rest of the 4 teachers (3 probationer teachers including 1 female, and 1
male experienced teacher) perceived their teaching in terms of
'transmission pedagogical style' (see also Barnes 1976). This would
accord with Fox (1983). It is suggested that experience alone may not
make a difference in changing teachers' theories from 'simple' to
developed. If Fox's (1983) argument is valid, then there is also a need
to provide such teachers with 'supportive mechanisms' or 'fixed role
treatment' [see Diamond (1985)]. This would not only help in developing their teaching theories but also facilitate the translation of curriculum innovation into practice.

11.2.8.1 PREACTIVE PHASE OF TEACHING

While analysing teachers' protocols, it seemed to me that the probationer teachers would spend more time on their lesson planning in detail than the experienced teachers. In spite of that there appeared a commonality of views about the purposes of planning teaching activities. According to them, the first purpose was to make sure that their teaching followed the examination syllabus, and secondly, to make the best use of time in the classroom for themselves and the students.

The experienced teachers did not consider systematic lesson planning in the same way as the probationer teachers. Their teaching relied heavily on their repertoire of classroom routines. They thought that 'mental planning' was more flexible than systematic planning because it allowed them to make as many changes as they wished.

Experienced teachers tended to use Tyler's (1949) 'linear approach' while probationer teachers relied on 'Herbartian principles', although these did not work in practice.

11.2.8.2 INTERACTIVE PHASE OF TEACHING

The reported teachers' thoughts on the interactive phase of teaching showed that experienced teachers appeared to be guided by a set of well-established routines. Therefore they relied more on their 'habitual practice' than the alternative new practice. On the other hand, the
probationer teachers relied heavily on 'ready-made guides' and 'solve model test papers', following them so blindly that they could not confirm the spelling and meaning of the words in the dictionary. This suggests teachers' lack of professional knowledge and expertise.

The data also suggests that owing to the lack of 'supportive mechanisms' at the classroom level and the sense of 'restricted professionalism', teachers found difficulty in putting their plans into action. Furthermore, the other factors (governing, frame and social), as discussed earlier, also contributed towards failure of curriculum innovation. The whole process of teachers' teaching practice can be subsumed in 'modelling and rephrasing' answers of the students.

This leaves no room for students' active participation in classroom processes nor does it allow the students to express their views in English in their own preferred way. This curbed the students' 'creative' and 'critical thinking' as well as their practice in producing utterances in English spontaneously. Indeed, the students felt constrained about talking freely to their teachers. This also hindered the process of the effective classroom interaction between teachers and students.

All the teachers fell back on 'survival strategies' of some kind e.g. drilling during difficult periods in the classroom. It is argued that if teachers were fully trained and well aware of the innovation, if their intentions were accommodated in the curriculum proposals, and supportive mechanisms made available at the classroom level, then the teachers might not face the misery of 'survival' teaching.
11.2.8.3 POST-ACTIVE PHASE OF TEACHING

The teachers' reported thoughts on the post-active teaching reveals that the probationer teachers of either sex would spare some time to evaluate their daily teaching activities before leaving the school. According to them, in spite of that, their efforts were in vain perhaps because of their 'too ambitious' lesson plans. The experienced teachers thought that they did not need to evaluate their daily teaching. However, they thought that before their entry to the classroom, they would chalk out their plans conceptually. Above all, all the teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the process of teaching as well as with the ethos of the schools.

11.2.9 TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR METHODS

All the teachers perceived the 'multi-method' approach to be effective in their teaching, yet their practice was heavily dominated by the 'grammar traditional methods'. The students' mother tongue was used as a main medium of classroom discourse. Thus, it can be said that the teachers' action was constrained by their perceptions of the methods and the contextual factors - frame and social [see Keddie (1971), Day (1984)]. The data further suggests that the prescribed audio-lingual method was perceived to be least effective and found to be dysfunctional to meet the needs of the learning milieu.

11.2.10 TEACHERS' VIEWS OF THEIR PARTICIPATION IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The data of the six teachers reveals that the existing process of curriculum development does not allow the teachers to participate actively. This suggests that the existing innovative curriculum is not
grounded in the intentions of the teachers. A considerable amount of literature demonstrated that without teachers' participation, the innovation becomes blunted at the classroom door. The argument put forward by Fullan (1972), McNamara (1972), Sabar and Shafyiri (1980) and Morris (1985) seemed to be valid that curriculum innovation would fail until it was initiated at the user level. Connelly (1972) and Connelly and Ben-Peretz (1980) argued that there is no substitute for teachers' participation in curriculum development.

Out of the 6 teachers, only one male teacher (Mr. Siddiqui) attended some meetings of the curriculum development committees which are dominated by bureaucrats and teachers from tertiary education. He thought that the teacher's voice was not given due consideration. To create a pleasant atmosphere there is need for a 'collaborative' and 'cooperative' approach to curriculum construction.

All the above findings drawn from the six case studies suggest a need for developing an alternative framework subsumed by the 'deliberative' approach wherein the curriculum users and the others who influenced the curriculum change process negotiate and decide their own choice of curriculum.

11.3 A PROPOSED COHERENT MODEL FOR CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT

The research findings led to the development of a coherent model for curriculum and instructional improvement (Figure 11.1) containing five major dimensions, discussed below:

I. Curriculum negotiations

II. Curriculum materials
Figure 11.1 Coherent model of curriculum and instructions
III. Professional development

IV. Reflexive teaching process

V. Supportive mechanisms

These dimensions may be considered as 'rules' for coherent curriculum policy. Each 'rule' is mutually consistent with the others. The main feature of the coherent policy is that each decision is to be grounded in the context of learning where the innovation intends to be implemented. A relevant coherent curriculum policy can then be formulated at the national or regional level as long as the above rules are adhered to. However, 'curriculum negotiation' is the main rule in the formulation of a coherent curriculum. I believe a coherent curriculum policy can only be formulated by understanding each other's perspective and by extending common understanding of the phenomenology of the school or classroom among the members of the curriculum development committee.

The proposed model is based on the teachers' and students' experiences, informal choices, concerns and reflections about the implications of curriculum change policy on TEACL. According to Olson (1982b), curriculum policy is at the heart of curriculum change, providing guiding principles and procedures for that change. This model seeks to provide guidance to those who are involved in the task of curriculum change. At the same time it may help in promoting and enhancing professionalism among the teachers and improve their teaching practice. The feasibility of its application and potential consequences are discussed in the light of relevant literature and the findings of the present study.
This model also offers opportunities to the teachers to share their problems with the 'experts' and extend their 'professionalism' by sharing their daily experiences with their counterparts. This process may help them in 'learning to learn' from each others' experiences and strategies used in coping with the particular situation which might be similar in different schools. The model further emphasises a 'collaborative' approach in the process of curriculum development generally and a 'reflexive'or 'responsive' approach in teaching while translating the curriculum innovation into practice.

Now I shall discuss each 'dimension' or 'rule' of the coherent model of curriculum and instruction.

I. CURRICULUM NEGOTIATIONS

Curriculum development is a 'practical' and 'deliberative' activity. A considerable amount of the literature on curriculum change demonstrated that the majority of the curriculum reforms underpinned by the conventional paradigm of curriculum development failed to achieve their intended outcomes. This paradigm carries the assumption that the teachers are neutral transmitters of doctrine, which is not supported from the data of the present study. Thus it can be said that the curriculum developers' 'wishful thoughts' and 'unrealistic ideas' appear to be based on their 'underestimation' rather than their understanding of the complexity of the contextual reality. Consequently such innovations have had only about 20 per cent success rate in education (Rodgers 1989).
Talking to teachers and understanding what happens in the classroom enables us to understand how the teachers make sense of innovation. It also helps us to understand the 'curricular' and 'non-curricular' problems they face in the classroom. I believe it is only possible to understand the real life of the learning milieu by standing in teachers' shoes.

The findings of the study suggested the alternative framework aimed at allowing and extending teachers' and students' participation in the curriculum development process. Kelly (1986, p.89) remarked that "we should accept the notion of curriculum negotiation and acknowledge the right of the recipients to exercise some way in the planning of his or her educational experiences". Thus curriculum negotiation will facilitate the teachers, curriculum developers and others who take a combined responsibility to shape the curriculum.

Johnson (1989b, p.12) suggested that the successful implementation of innovation depends on "the engagement and co-operation of all participants throughout the life of a curriculum" (p.12). To offer curriculum opportunities to teachers and students, it is pertinent to negotiate their choices and experiences and values. Freire (1972) emphasised that curriculum users should be encouraged to see their own problems in a reflexive perspective and to act on them and decide for themselves which is appropriate to them. While designing a TEACL curriculum, a main concern must be how to promote learning in terms of language skills and competence and the individual development of a student as a whole. In this respect a 'humanistic' and 'collaborative' approach alone can meet these needs.
II. CURRICULUM MATERIALS

The results of the study suggest that the current curriculum materials do not match with the learners' needs nor their interests. There is a perceived need to prepare curriculum materials according to the principles and procedures of the functional-notional or communicative approach to curriculum design. The curriculum materials should also reflect the intention and feelings of the teaching activities in accordance with the students' interests and learning strategies.

III. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The third important dimension of the model is to suggest an intensive, reflexive and practically oriented training to improve the quality of teaching. The Holmes Group's report (1986) revealed that teaching, and teachers, are the central variables in improving the quality of public education, and suggested that

we cannot improve the quality of education in our schools without improving the quality of teaching in them.

(p.23)

All the teachers thought that they had been treated like teaching machines. Reiff (1971) proposed that theoretical knowledge limited teachers' professional practice. Therefore, within limits, they taught in the interest of their own status. Hence, the training provided to the teachers must be practicable and acceptable to them to meet the demands of their role and enable them to produce meaningful learning. Training must bridge the gap between 'knowing that' and 'knowing how' which is a major dilemma for teachers. Hoyel (1983, p.52) remarked "that a practice-centred professionalism is pursued with intellectual rigour and eventuates in an improved level of professional practice".
Perkin (1983) maintained that practical knowledge is more important than theoretical knowledge of how to behave towards clients, employees and colleagues, and how to apply skills and perform certain complex operations, which define the service and the profession. Hence practical relevant knowledge can improve teaching and its clients will benefit greatly.

Ben-Peretz et al. (1986) identified practical problems in their study which were also found in the present study:

Theories once learnt during teacher education seemed to evaporate from the teachers' knowledge... experienced teachers claimed that it was necessary for them to forget all theories from university and to learn the real 'practice' in the classroom instead.

(p.1)

This study suggests that training should be relevant to practice and based on classroom reality. In this respect, it needs to be ascertained what new skills and knowledge need to be learned but also about why they are needed, how they will be applied and what is expected to result from them within the school.

III.1 PROFESSIONAL ORGANISATION

It is argued that like other professions, the teaching profession must have a professional organisation which can contribute to enhance professionalism as well as raising the standard of teaching. It should also deal with the appointment of teachers and check and maintain the standard of teacher qualification, salary and status. The present study reveals that male teachers especially are unhappy with the existing status of teaching. The beginners were more sensitive to this than the experienced teachers.
Perkin (1983, p.19) maintained that "[teachers'] low original status arises from the common but erroneous belief that anyone can teach, indeed that teaching is a refuge for those who are already failures in the game of life".

In order to oversee a standard of good practice, and explore the ways and possibilities of enhancing status and salaries and strategies, a means of defending competence, autonomy, and individualism from outside interference is required. Lortie (1975) suggested that the support expert system and professional body of teachers should have close collaboration to identify ways and means to improve the quality of teacher, teaching, learner and learning.

IV. REFLECTIVE TEACHING PROCESSES

The data of the present study reveals that the teachers found difficulties in putting their plans into practice. Gordon (1983) suggested that teaching has always been subject to constraints in one form or another. Against these constraints the teachers always consider themselves helpless. The present study suggests that reflective teaching will enable the teacher to be aware of the problems and think about their solution. In such situations, teachers must have patience and professional autonomy so that they may learn to compromise with the conditions. Kohl (1986) considered teaching to be a craft and one of his central ideas was that the craft of teaching requires what he called 'teaching sensibility' which teachers develop over a career of teaching and has to do with knowing how to help students focus their energy on learning and growth.
It is argued that teachers must be encouraged and motivated through self-evaluation and reflective processes. Wilson (1988, p.12) suggested that "the factors which most motivate teachers to develop their practice include their own knowledge of, and interest in, what they are teaching, their skills as teachers and sense of professionalism, and their desire to provide their pupils with stimulating learning experiences." It is necessary that teachers not only use knowledge-in-action but also use their ability to reflect-in-action to identify and analyse the situation.

V. SUPPORTIVE MECHANISMS

One outcome of the study shows that the teachers strongly emphasised the need for establishing 'supportive mechanisms' to help them in solving their problems: the teachers expressed the opinion that there was a lack of cooperation between teachers and school management. The heads are not capable of guiding the teachers or spending time to discuss the teachers' problems. They complained that the supervisory staff paid routine visits to collect information about teachers' weaknesses which were used against them in moments of conflict rather than to suggest improvements in teaching. All the teachers reported that they were victims of such supervisory reports which affected their careers.

There is a dire need to form a 'supportive system' to gain the teachers' sympathies and confidence which can work in close collaboration with the teachers and 'professional organisation' of teachers. The staff in the supportive expert system may work as consultants or counsellors. These may be located in the school or in other schools with special expertise in curriculum development and skills appropriate to subject or discipline. This might also come from colleges of education,
universities or foreign agencies in a country (like the British Council) or other independent agencies.

Wilson (1988, p.86) maintained that "'unfreezing' attitudes and opening up possibilities to change, the consultant can have a powerful catalytic effect if he [she] has the requisite skills, has the confidence of those he [she] is working with, and does not raise unreal expectations." In this connection work carried out by Nixon (1981) can be helpful in guiding consultants or counsellors. This system plays a significant part in changing teachers' beliefs and attitudes.

Day (1987) suggested that teachers needed support in achieving changes - partly because old routines dominate and new routines need to develop while teachers reflect on their teaching practice. The teachers gave me the impression that when they were used to a particular style, it was quite difficult to give it up until continuous supportive inspiration and encouragement is offered. This is particularly helpful if based on the constructivist approach in which each teacher has equal opportunities to decide alternatives suited to their needs. A good example of such work can be found in Thomaz's (1986) work.

The main characteristics of the system are that the counsellors will negotiate entry and establish a climate of trust and openness. They will provide a service and offer feedback on the emerging picture and engage in dialogue on the strengths and weaknesses in the organisation, identify short and long term goals, help to formulate a plan of action, and help put the plan into effect. This system could also help in forming links with other schools in the process of change, contributing to the evaluation of developments.
11.4 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions and implications for further research may be drawn from the study:

11.4.1 LACK OF COLLABORATIVE PARTICIPATION AND THE INFLUENCE OF FIDELITY PERSPECTIVE TOWARDS CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

The present study reveals that the existing practical problems faced by the teachers are originally associated with the lack of a 'collaborative participatory approach' and the influence of the 'fidelity' perspective towards implementation. According to this view, the teachers are 'merely followers' and 'agents' of the system and act as they are told without clear guidance and communication. As a result, dissonance arises between curriculum developers' intentions and the teaching processes actually employed. This is consistent with Eggleston (1980) and Hacker (1984).

It is my conviction that improvement can only come about through a true partnership and dialogue between teachers and students and outside developers. Teachers must be considered as active agents in the practical affairs of curriculum while outsiders must respect and acknowledge the complexity of the contextual reality. It is argued that the improvements cannot come about by way of externally imposed prescriptions and suggestions which make no real allowance for the experience of the teachers and for the teachers' needs to find ways of giving meaning to generalised suggestions in particular instances.

Considering curriculum as an enterprise and joint venture, the study recommends setting up teams staffed by the teachers whose responsibility is joint planning, implementation and evaluation. I believe this could
help break down the possible impediments to implementation and would gain teacher commitment and enhance professionalism.

11.4.2 INFLUENCE OF EXAMINATIONS
Evidence appeared from the data that examinations are influential factors in determining the direction of education. Academic performance, as measured by examinations, is also the most important ingredient which determines eligibility for well-paid employment and the opportunity to pursue further education. Bearing in mind the importance of the examination, the teachers perceived the officially recommended method to be wholly dysfunctional because it necessitated them ignoring the expectations of the students and head of schools. It would be pertinent to quote Morris (1985, p.15) that the "examination must be used to promote curriculum reforms". Otherwise the status of innovation will remain 'innovation without change'. Examinations which truly test competence as opposed to rote learning are required.

11.4.3 LACK OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT, AUTONOMY AND COMMITMENT
(a) The study suggests that there appears to be a shortage of specialist teachers. The teachers who were involved were either non-specialists who lacked the 'declarative' and 'procedural' knowledge of the methods, or specialists who knew about methods but did not know how to put them into practice. This is a dilemma of teacher education wherein theory and practice are considered to be separate entities. The study suggests that there is a need for integrating theory and practice into one form of practical training.

(b) The study also confirms that the teachers' professional autonomy is affected by a bureaucratic and hierarchic organisation-
structure (Shah 1986). In order to enhance the teachers' status, there is need to form a 'professional body' like other professional groups to pursue their financial, academic and professional matters with higher authorities.

(c) The study shows that all the teachers except female teachers joined the profession when they could not obtain other jobs. The reason given was its low social and economical status. This is a common problem in the Asia continent [see Shah (1986)]. If we are to improve and enhance the teachers' social and economical status, a detailed study may be conducted to assess the feasibility of a teachers' professional body.

11.4.4 INTERRUPTIONS IN THE NORMAL CLASSROOM PRACTICE

Throughout the six case studies, the analysis shows that more than half of the teaching time was wasted. There is a perceived need before implementing any innovation that the supervisory staff should be made aware of the aims of the innovation. All these agencies should work as a full team to make curriculum innovation successful. Further, the management should ensure that unnecessary parents' visits, guests' visits, head's visit for non-academic purpose, etc do not take place normal classes. Appointments could be made and telephone messages taken by clerks. Only in unavoidable circumstances should teachers be called from the classroom for a few moments. Thus the interruption can be minimised with a little forethought and organisation.

11.4.5 THE EFFECTS OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING AND SUPPORTIVE MECHANISMS ON THE CLASSROOM PROCESSES

The teachers thought that reflective teaching enabled them to identify
and seek a solution to their problems. However, as teachers are not always aware of their problems, there is a need to establish an expert system at school level to guide the teachers in their daily problems. I believe that with the presence of an 'experts system' the teachers would save time and energies. This system may not help them in identifying the mismatch between their 'espoused theories of action' and 'theories-in-use' but it will help them to rethink the implications of new theories on their own particular practice and in their institutional setting.

11.4.6 IMPACT OF TEACHERS' TEACHING STYLE ON STUDENTS' LEARNING STRATEGIES

There is strong evidence that there appears to be a mismatch between teachers' teaching style and learning strategies. The majority of students perceived the 'AOL'strategy to be helpful in developing their 'cognitive' and 'affective' abilities which contrasted with the teachers' 'academic oriented' teaching style. This compelled them to 'cram' the content for examination purposes. Thus the processes involved in students' learning were badly ignored. Similarly, the teachers' academic oriented teaching led them to adopt surface level processing. Therefore, there is a need to use a 'multi-method' or a 'versatile' style of teaching to match with the students' range of learning strategies and to develop versatile approaches in the learners, appropriate to materials.

11.4.7 STUDENTS' PERCEIVED NEEDS AND THEIR RELEVANCE TO LANGUAGE LEARNING SKILLS

The students perceived their needs in terms of academic, professional and international dimensions. Generally, they favoured an equal
emphasis on learning the four skills. The teachers also agreed that equal emphasis should be given to all the language learning skills. This view was confirmed by NATÉ (1976) and by Nash (1988). Again, changes in the examination system would be needed to help with the implementation of this practice.

11.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH
Some implications of the research findings and the model are identified below:
1. This study has attempted to identify the practical problems faced by teachers while translating curriculum innovation into practice. The proposed model can be applied to the curriculum and instructions of other subjects, but there is a need to investigate their specific pedagogical problems to incorporate these into the model before it is applied.
2. The feasibility of the model has already been tested by the data of the present study and relevant literature. However, it needs implementation at a micro level in different phases. A parallel follow-up study may be conducted to monitor and evaluate the efficiency of the model.
3. This study is restricted to only secondary school level, hence there is a need to conduct an illuminative study using the 'emergent research design model' (see Chapter 6) to investigate the practical problems the teachers encounter at primary and tertiary levels.
4. This study initially investigated teachers' perceptions of the relevance of their professional knowledge to the instructional and learning milieu. They found their knowledge to be inadequate to meet the increased demands of the innovation. There is a need to conduct a
study to explore the possibility of bringing about improvements in pre- and in-service teacher training.

5. A longitudinal study is suggested to investigate the specific and general concerns associated with low enthusiasm and lack of commitment especially among male teachers.

6. It would be pertinent to study the feasibility of enhancing the socio-economic status of the teaching profession and its academic and economic implications.

7. It would be pertinent to investigate the effects on professionalism by the formation of a professional organisation, if this could be instituted.

8. The support expert system is a novel unit in the model, hence a study and evaluation of its efficiency and effects on classroom processes would be required.

A final word: efforts need to be made at the general social level to remind parents and those in authority of the importance of teachers.

The following quotations might be a good starting point:

If you entrust the education of your children to people who call themselves teachers, then certainly these people should have a say in what should be taught in the classroom.

(Teacher's voice quoted in Young 1985, p.410)

(Bode 1927, p.237)

The purpose of education is not to fit the individual for a place in society, but to enable him [her] to make his [her] own place... we put shoes on a child to protect his health and not to bind his feet.

(Bode 1927, p.237)


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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POLICIES / PLANS</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>SALIENT FEATURES OF THE VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL REFORMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All Pakistan Educational Conference</td>
<td>1947</td>
<td>*Harmonisation of education with the concept of Islam and ideology of Pakistan.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Introduction of free and compulsory primary education.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Emphasis on the science and technical education.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Introducing teaching of English as a compulsory subject.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Six Year Development Programme</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>*Emphasis on the improvement of the teachers' socio-economic status.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Establishment of the new educational institutions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Educational Conference</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>*Emphasis on the improvement of both the quality and quantity of education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Five Year Plan</td>
<td>1955</td>
<td>*Replacement of the four years primary education cycle with the five years.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Emphasis on the improvement of the teachers' teaching craft skills and knowledge.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Promotion of the technical, vocational and commercial education.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Improvement of the physical facilities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Commission on National Education</td>
<td>1959</td>
<td>*Emphasis on the improvement of the quality rather than quantity of the education.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Replacement of the classic concept of education with an activity oriented edu.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Diversification of the subjects in the school curriculum.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Emphasis on imparting science and technical education,</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Emphasis on the use of an instructional technology.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>*Emphasising English teaching as a functional language.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Second Five Year Plan</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>*Detaching intermediate classes from the university management.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Introduction of the scholarship scheme for the talented students.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Emphasis on the adult literacy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commission on the students' problems and welfare</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>*Need for overcoming the socio-academic unrest among the students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Five Year Plan</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>*Emphasis on the science and technology.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Improving the standards of the education.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>*Teachers' professional development.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Need for formulation of research oriented policies.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Need for the establishment of a guidance and counselling system in the schools.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Expansion of the elementary education.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Promotion of the adult literacy.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Suggestions of the introduction of double shift in the same school building.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fourth Five Year Plan</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>*Emphasis on the students' cognitive and affective development.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Expansion of the primary education.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Need for the improvement of science education.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Education Policy 1972</td>
<td></td>
<td>*Nationalization of the educational institutions.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Free education upto matric class.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Improving the standards of education.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Promotion of the science and technology.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Enhancing teachers' professionalism and professionalism.</td>
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<td>*Revision of the school curriculum using bureaucratic model of curriculum development.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*More use of the instructional technology in the classroom.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Emphasis on the improvement of the examination system.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fifth Five year Plan</td>
<td>1978</td>
<td>*Emphasis on the improvement of the quality of education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Education Policy</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>*Improving the literacy rate.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Establishment of the separate female educational institutions.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Introducing Arabic as a compulsory subject.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sixth Five Year Plan 1983</td>
<td></td>
<td>*Improvement of the physical facilities.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Developing teachers' teaching craft skills.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


*Figure 1.3* The quantitative expansion in the school education in Pakistan (Figures in millions of teachers and enrollments)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year (1947-1948 to 1984-1985)</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Enrollment</td>
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</table>
Corollaries Governing Kelly's Constructive Alternativism.

(Kelly, 1955)

1 Construction corollary. A person anticipates events by construing their replications.
2 Individuality corollary. Persons differ from each other in their construction of events.
3 Organization corollary. Each person characteristically evolves, for his convenience in anticipating events, a construction system embracing ordinal relationships between constructs.
4 Dichotomy corollary. A person's construction system is composed of a finite number of dichotomous constructs.
5 Choice corollary. A person chooses for himself that alternative in a dichotomized construct through which he anticipates the greater possibility for the elaboration of his system.
6 Range corollary. A construct is convenient for the anticipation of a finite range of events only.
7 Experience corollary. A person's construction system varies as he successively construes the replications of events.
8 Modulation corollary. The variation in a person's construction system is limited by the permeability of the constructs within whose ranges of convenience the variants lie.
9 Fragmentation corollary. A person may successively employ a variety of construction subsystems which are inferentially incompatible with each other.
10 Commonality corollary. To the extent that one person employs a construction of experience which is similar to that employed by another, his psychological processes are similar to those of the other person.
11 Sociality corollary. To the extent that one person construes the construction processes of another, he may play a role in a social process involving the other person [Kelly, 1955].
Dear Colleague

I would like to express my thanks to you for cooperating and helping me in my current on-going research concerned with the issues related to curriculum change and their impact on the teaching-learning process for English In Pakistan. I am now writing to ask you for your further help in collecting more and an additional data for the second stage of my study which focuses on the major issues as mentioned in the attached "check list".

As I am aware of your heavy teaching schedule, I would like to ask you in order to save your precious time to use the enclosed "blank cassette tape" to record your views. In order to indicate the sort of information which I hope you will give, I am including a "check list" which contains five sections(A-E). Each section consists of different range of questions which you can answer on the tape in whatever language (English/Urdu/Sindhi) it is easiest for you to express your thoughts explicitly.

Your response will, of course, be totally confidential- no names being mentioned in the evaluation and only I have access to your information.

Would you please return the "taped cassette" in the self addressed envelope to me as soon as possible. It will help me enormously, if you could manage to do this within four weeks of receiving this letter. If you have any queries or problems, please feel free to contact Mr. Shabbir Ahmed Qureshi, Senior Teacher of the Sind Madressah-Tul-Islam national Pilot Secondary School, Karachi on telephone-232798 or see him personally. He will be pleased to help you in solving your problems.

Please may I remind you to continue maintaining your "daily diary" as per previous instructions.

May I thank you once again in advance for your cooperation and enthusiasm.

Yours sincerely

Muhammad Memon
NOTE: 1. Please read each question carefully and keep as closely to it as you can when recording your views. If you have any other points which you feel may be relevant, please include them.

NOTE: 2. "Curriculum development" the term used here is for planning, design, implementation, evaluation, and decision making about change or improvement for English as a second language especially, and generally for use with other subjects.

SECTION: "A" : CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS IN PAKISTAN

1. Tell me about who has been assigned responsibility for curriculum development at the moment at secondary school level in Pakistan?

2. What is your role in the existing process of curriculum development?

3. Who in your view and why should be responsible for the whole process of curriculum development at the secondary school level in Pakistan?

4. What is your opinion about the replacement of the existing process of curriculum development with an alternative process based on "participatory approach"?

5. What is your opinion about teachers', students', and parents' participation in effective development of curriculum?

6. In addition to teachers, students, and parents, who do you consider should participate in the alternative process of curriculum development and why?

7. In your opinion, what are the main factors which affect the curriculum development process in Pakistan?

Cont'd........
8. What difficulties did you encounter when the new curriculum was implemented and how could these have been eased?

9. In your opinion, what criteria should be used for measuring the effectiveness of curriculum development in Pakistan?

10. What suggestions would you put forward to make curriculum process more effective and implementable in Pakistan?

SECTION "B": IN-SERVICE EDUCATION TRAINING (INSET)

1. What do you see as the major problems in connection with INSET of English language teachers in Pakistan?

2. What is your perception of the performance of the resource persons responsible for providing training teachers?

3. What changes would you recommend for the improvement of INSET in Pakistan?

SECTION "C": EXAMINATION SYSTEM

1. What is your opinion about the efficiency of the existing internal and external examination system at the secondary school level in Pakistan?

2. What changes would you recommend for the improvement of the examination system (internal and external) at secondary school level in Pakistan?

SECTION "D": TEACHING PROFESSION

1. How do you think the job of a teacher is perceived by others in Pakistan?

2. What are the major problems which have frustrated you in your work as a teacher?
3. What changes would you recommend in improving the nature of the teaching profession in Pakistan?

SECTION "E": TEACHING OF ENGLISH

1. What is your opinion about the number of periods currently allocated to English at secondary school level in Pakistan?

2. What suggestions would you put forward for improving the standard of English teaching in Pakistan?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

I SHALL LOOK FORWARD TO RECEIVING YOUR RESPONSES.

Muhammad Memon

Department of Educational Studies

University of Surrey, Guildford

GU2 5XH, England
May 1986

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a Pakistani research student in this university, involved in researching into the issues related to the curriculum change process and its impact on the teaching-learning process for English at secondary school level in Pakistan. I believe it would be most useful for me to visit your school in the second week of October 1986 and request for observing the teaching-learning process for English in your school.

I would be grateful if we could arrange a meeting in your school during the second week of October 1986 and to fix a date for an interview with you as well.

I look forward to hearing from you very soon.

Thank you

Yours faithfully

Muhammad Memon
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION KARACHI REGION KARACHI

Te,

All the District Education Officer's,
East/West/South Male/Female,
Karachi Region Karachi.

SUBJECT: PERMISSION FOR CARRYING OUT RESEARCH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

With reference to Letter No. even dated:- 16-10-86.
of Mohammad Memon a research Scholar of Deptt. of Education studies, University of Surrey, Guildford on the above subject, I am directed to send you a copy of the letter.

Please extend full Co-Operation to him in evaluation.

(S. IFTIKHAR ALI) 
REGISTRAR,
DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATION for DIRECTOR OF SCHOOL EDUCATION KARACHI REGION KARACHI.

Copy forwarded to:-

Mr. Mohammad Memon,
Departmental of Educational Studies,
University of Surrey, Guildford,
Guildford, GU2 5XH, ENGLAND.

(S. IFTIKHAR ALI) 
REGISTRAR,
DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATION for DIRECTOR OF SCHOOL EDUCATION KARACHI REGION KARACHI.
Department of Educational Studies

May 1986

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a Pakistani postgraduate research student in the department of Educational Studies of this University, engaged in the curriculum research: an illuminative study of the curriculum change problems. I am at present in the first phase of my study and intend to gather first hand information with regard to curriculum issues which affect the process of curriculum translation into practice. I have chosen the questionnaire as one of the tools of data collection for a large sample.

Before administering the questionnaire, I would like to test this instrument in the field, so that its feasibility and effectiveness could be determined. For this reason, I am sending the enclosed questionnaire to Mr. Shabbir Ahmaed Qureshi, Senior English Teacher of the Sind madressah-tul-Islam, national pilot secondary school, Karachi, and Mrs Farida Memon, to pilot it on my behalf in the schools. I would be grateful if you would extend your full cooperation in this respect. Please read every question carefully and have it filled in as per the instructions. Your response will be kept secret and confidential. Please feel free to make comments on the questionnaire design and its language in the space on the right-hand side.

An evaluation sheet is also enclosed along with the questionnaire. may I thank you in advance for your cooperation and support. I look forward to hearing from you very soon.

Yours faithfully

Muhammad Memon
Please tick (✓) an appropriate answer.

1. Language of questionnaire  Difficult  Easy


2. If difficult, please indicate the serial number of question(s)
   a. Serial number of question(s) ..................
      ..................................................
      ..................................................
      ..................................................

3. Questions for questionnaire  ambiguous  unambiguous


4. If ambiguous, please indicate the serial number of question(s).
   a. Serial number of question(s) ..................
      ..................................................
      ..................................................

5. Content of questions  uninteresting  interesting


6. If uninteresting, please indicate the serial number of question(s)
   a. Serial number of question(s) ..................
      ..................................................
      ..................................................

7. Time took in filling it  0-1hr [ ], 1-2hrs [ ], more than 2hrs [ ]

8. If you wish to make any comment, please write below.
   a) ..................................................
   b) ..................................................
   c) ..................................................
   d) ..................................................

Many thanks for your cooperation

MUHAMMAD MEMON
Postgraduate Research Student
Department of Educational Studies
UNIVERSITY OF SURREY, Guildford, GU2 5XH, England
Department of Educational Studies

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a lecturer in Education in the Government College of Education, Federal B, area, Karachi, Pakistan. My field of interest is "Curriculum and instruction". Presently, I am a postgraduate research student in the Department of Educational Studies, University of Surrey, Guildford and engaged in researching into the potential problems which affect the process of curriculum implementation and instruction for English at secondary school level in Pakistan.

The aim of designing and administering the questionnaire is to gather the relevant information from the English Language Teachers. Let me first say thank you to all the teachers who extended their full cooperation and enthusiasm during the piloting this instrument. I hope you will be willing to continue your cooperation by completing the attached questionnaire which has been modified in the light of your comments and suggestions.

I believe that this time you will enjoy giving your response more than previously. Some questions are now open ended, so please give your opinion in as much detail as you can. Your response will be kept secret and confidential. Please make sure that every question is answered.

Please keep this questionnaire up to 7 days and after filling it in, return to your head of the school. If there is any query regarding the questionnaire, please consult your head who will be pleased to help you.

May I say once again how much I appreciate your cooperation in this matter.

Yours faithfully

Muhammad Memon
This questionnaire consists of parts 'A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', and 'F'. Each part is important, so please complete fully. If any space is too small please feel free to use an extra sheet of paper.

PART 'A':- BACKGROUND OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS

NAME: SEX: Male / Female.


1. Please indicate how long you have been teaching English in secondary schools in Pakistan? Tick[ ] the appropriate answer.
   1. 0-5 years [ ], 2. 6-10 years [ ] and over 10 years [ ].

2. Please indicate whether you studied English as an elective subject up to B.A.? Tick[ ] the appropriate answer.
   Yes [ ], No [ ].

3. If yes, for which academic qualification? Please tick [ ] the appropriate answer.
   Matric [ ], Intermediate [ ], B.A. [ ].

4. Please indicate whether you think that English language teachers should possess a Masters degree in the teaching of English? Tick [ ] the appropriate answer.
   Yes [ ], No [ ].

5. If no, please give reasons in space below.
6. Please indicate whether you studied the teaching of English as an elective subject in your pre-service or in-service training?

Yes [ ] , No [ ] .

7. If yes, for which professional qualification? Please tick [ / ] the appropriate answer.


8. What incentives do you think motivated you to join the teaching profession? For example, "Noble profession". Please write them in the space given below.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

9. Please indicate whether you intend to carry on with your teaching career in the future? Tick [ / ] the appropriate column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Not certain</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. If a different job with the same salary were assigned to you, would you prefer to stop teaching? Tick [ / ] the appropriate column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Not certain</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11. Please indicate whether you have attended any refresher course(s) in teaching English INSIDE and OUTSIDE Pakistan? If so, please give details.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE(S) OF REFRESHER COURSE(S)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INSIDE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Name of city)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OUTSIDE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Name of country)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of course</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. Please indicate whether the above refresher course(s) proved to be helpful to you in your teaching. Give your comments in the space below.

(a) INSIDE COUNTRY

..........................................................

..........................................................

..........................................................

..........................................................

(b) OUTSIDE COUNTRY

..........................................................

..........................................................

..........................................................

..........................................................
### Part 'B': Importance of English in Pakistan

1. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with the following statements. Circle the appropriate number on the rating scale for each statement. Use the scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

#### Importance of English

1. English is a means of official correspondence in Pakistan.  
   - 1 2 3 4 5

2. English facilitates contacts with the world at large in diverse fields like commerce, industry, diplomacy, foreign employment etc.  
   - 1 2 3 4 5

3. English is the medium in which most of the present and past knowledge is stored both in the original and in translated form.  
   - 1 2 3 4 5

4. Most of the world's mass media (newspapers, radio, television, and film) use English.  
   - 1 2 3 4 5

5. The study of English will improve our understanding of the contemporary world.  
   - 1 2 3 4 5

6. English is usually the medium of instruction in tertiary education viz;  
   (a) Professional  
   - 1 2 3 4 5

   (b) Vocational  
   - 1 2 3 4 5

   (c) Technical  
   - 1 2 3 4 5

7. English is a means of communicating ideas in interaction e.g; seminars, symposia, etc. for Pakistani scholars and scientists.  
   - 1 2 3 4 5

8. English is spoken, written, read and understood by the majority of the world population.  
   - 1 2 3 4 5
9. English is required for administrative jobs in Pakistan.  

10. English is required for studying abroad.  

11. English is a medium of communication in the interviews for different jobs from grade 8 to 16.  

12. English is a medium of communication in the interviews for different jobs from grade 17 onwards.  

13. Proficiency in English is required in getting senior posts in:  
   (a) Banks  
   (b) Army  
   (c) Navy  
   (d) Airforce  
   (e) Private firms  

14. English is required for both written and oral examinations for superior civil services in Pakistan.  

15. English is required to keep Pakistani scientists / educationalists etc abreast of new knowledge.  

16. Innovation in different disciplines is mostly reported in English.  

17. Other (please state)
PART 'C':- TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN PAKISTAN

14. Please indicate the amount of time you spend on lesson planning for English at home each day? Tick [ / ] only one.
   (a) Less than 1 hour [ ], (b) 1-2 hours [ ]
   (c) more than 2 hours [ ].

15. Please indicate whether you have experience of teaching other languages in Pakistan?
   Yes [ ], No [ ].

16. If yes, how difficult do you find teaching them? Please circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LANGUAGES</th>
<th>Very difficult</th>
<th>Very easy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sindhi</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Urdu</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Other (please state)</td>
<td>2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. Please indicate whether you have a copy of the English syllabus?
   Yes [ ], No [ ].

18. If no, have you ever seen a copy of the syllabus?
   Yes [ ], No [ ].

19. If yes, where did you see it first? Please tick [ / ] only one.
   (a) In the headmaster's office. (a)
   (b) From another colleague. (b)
   (c) In the office of the Examination Board. (c)
   (d) In the school library. (d)
   (e) Somewhere else (please state)......(e)
20. Please list the problems in the space given below in descending order of importance i.e. give first the major problem(s) which face the English Language teacher in the classroom? For example: "Lack of manuals for teachers

(a) -----------------------------------------------

(b) -----------------------------------------------

(c) -----------------------------------------------

(d) -----------------------------------------------

(e) -----------------------------------------------

(f) -----------------------------------------------

(g) -----------------------------------------------

(h) -----------------------------------------------

(i) -----------------------------------------------

(j) -----------------------------------------------

(k) -----------------------------------------------

(l) -----------------------------------------------

(m) -----------------------------------------------

(n) -----------------------------------------------

(o) -----------------------------------------------

(p) -----------------------------------------------

(q) -----------------------------------------------

(r) -----------------------------------------------

(s) -----------------------------------------------

(t) -----------------------------------------------

(u) -----------------------------------------------

(v) -----------------------------------------------

(w) -----------------------------------------------

(x) -----------------------------------------------

(y) -----------------------------------------------
21. Please indicate particular lesson(s) which you have found disappointing when teaching your class(es)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TITLE OF LESSON</th>
<th>TITLE OF TEXTBOOK</th>
<th>PAGE NO</th>
<th>REASON WHY THE LESSON WAS DISAPPOINTING (e.g., too difficult linguistically, uninteresting theme etc.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(c)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(d)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(e)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>(f)</td>
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<td>(m)</td>
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<td>(n)</td>
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<td>(o)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
22. Some teaching methods/approaches are given below. In just few words, please say what YOU understand by each. Do not consult any reference works. Simply give your OWN interpretation of the various approaches/methods.

1. GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD:

2. DIRECT METHOD:

3. STRUCTURAL APPROACH:

4. AUDIO-VISUAL METHOD:

5. AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD:

6. COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH:

7. TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE:

8. SILENT WAY METHOD:

9. COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING:

10. NATURAL APPROACH:

11. OTHER (PLEASE STATE):

1. ........................................

2. ........................................

3. ........................................

4. ........................................

5. ........................................

6. ........................................

7. ........................................

8. ........................................

24. Please indicate how much English you use in your English classes? Tick [ / ] the appropriate column.

Only | Mostly | A balance of English | A little | None | English | English and mother tongue | English |

25. Please comment on your students' command of English in terms of the following skills:

(a) LISTENING ........................................

(b) READING ............................................

(c) SPEAKING ...........................................

(d) WRITING ............................................
26. What suggestions would you recommend for improving the students' standards of English? Please write in the space given below.


27. Please indicate [ ] whether you give tests to your students in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Weekly</th>
<th>Monthly</th>
<th>Bimonthly</th>
<th>Quarterly</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Listening comprehension</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Oral proficiency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reading comprehension</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Writing ability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Other (Please state)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28. Please indicate [ ] whether you communicate the results to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Weekly</th>
<th>Monthly</th>
<th>Bimonthly</th>
<th>Quarterly</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Head of school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
29. Please indicate your students' ability after passing matriculation examination. Tick [ ] the appropriate answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Fair</th>
<th>Weak</th>
<th>Extremely weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Understand English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Speak English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Read English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Write English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30. Which of these do you consider important for your students? Please circle the appropriate number on the rating scale. Use the scale from 1 (not important) to 5 (most important).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOT IMPORTANT</th>
<th>MOST IMPORTANT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) To speak English fluently</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) To write English correctly</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) To read English with reasonable comprehension and speed</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) To understand spoken English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

31. Please indicate your satisfaction with the present system of assessing the students' English in SSC Examination? Tick [ ] the appropriate column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very satisfied</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Very dissatisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

32. If you are dissatisfied/very dissatisfied with the present system of assessing the students of English in SSC Examination, what suggestions would you put forward for the improvement? Please write them in the space given below.
33. Please indicate factors which may contribute to improving the teaching of English in Pakistan? (e.g., up to date teacher training)

(a) ___________________________________________

(b) ___________________________________________

(c) ___________________________________________

(d) ___________________________________________

(e) ___________________________________________

(f) ___________________________________________

(g) ___________________________________________

(h) ___________________________________________

(i) ___________________________________________

(j) ___________________________________________

(k) ___________________________________________

(l) ___________________________________________

(m) ___________________________________________

(n) ___________________________________________

(o) ___________________________________________

(p) ___________________________________________

(q) ___________________________________________

(r) ___________________________________________

(s) ___________________________________________

34. Please indicate whether you agree that the curriculum development agencies should provide a teachers' Manual for all teachers? Tick [✓] the appropriate column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| ...... | ...... | ...... | ...... | ...... |
PART 'D': TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THE TEACHING OBJECTIVES IN EXISTING CURRICULUM AND TEACHERS' PREFERENCES REGARDING POSSIBLE CHANGE

35. The following is a list of the objectives for teaching English determined by the Board of Secondary Education Karachi. Please read each one carefully and then rate on the scale the extent to which you personally think that the objective is important in the EXISTING CURRICULUM FOR ESL. Then read and think over again to rate on the scale the same objectives IN YOUR IDEAL CURRICULUM FOR ESL. Use the scale from 1 (Not important) to 5 (Very important objective). PLEASE CIRCLE ONLY ONE NUMBER IN EACH SCALE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>EXISTING CURRICULUM FOR ESL</th>
<th>YOUR IDEAL CURRICULUM FOR ESL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LISTENING COMPREHENSION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. To recognize the role of listening in the total language arts programme.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To recognize the nature of listening as a two-way process of receiving and interpreting.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To develop the ability to attend listening tasks of increasing complexity.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. To develop critical and creative habits of listening.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To develop the awareness of pleasure to be gained from listening.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPEAKING ABILITY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. To foster and develop in each pupil the desire to express orally his thoughts and feelings.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. To develop in each pupil the ability to:
   a. verbalize experiences and ideas with confidence,
   b. articulate words clearly and pronounce them correctly.
   c. speak fluently, naturally and easily
   d. control his/her voice so that it is pleasant and effective.

3. To help each pupil:
   a. extend and enrich his/her vocabulary, and,
   b. establish acceptable patterns of language usage.

4. To help each pupil to develop the power to select, organize and express his/her thoughts so that his/her contribution are worthwhile.

5. To encourage in each pupil the habit of speaking and responding clearly in any group situation.

3. READING COMPREHENSION

1. To develop the desire and habit to read with interest.

2. To develop the ability to use the reading skills for a variety of purposes.
3. To understand simple English usage.

4. To develop the ability to read orally and silently a written passage.

5. To develop the ability to interpret the meaning intended by the writer.

6. To enable pupils to read prose and poetry for appreciation and pleasure.

4. WRITING ABILITY

1. To develop the skills needed in effective written expression, spelling, handwriting, vocabulary, sentence pattern, etc.

2. To develop the skills needed for organization of ideas, selection of appropriate topics, sequence of events necessary to the writing of good composition.

3. To use written comprehension for communication of ideas and feelings.
36. Please write the objectives in the space given below other than the mentioned above which you could think more effective IN YOUR IDEAL CURRICULUM for the development of students' communicative skills in English?

(a) -----------------------------------------------
(b) -----------------------------------------------
(c) -----------------------------------------------
(d) -----------------------------------------------
(e) -----------------------------------------------
(f) -----------------------------------------------
(g) -----------------------------------------------
(h) -----------------------------------------------
(i) -----------------------------------------------

PART E': ACHIEVEMENT OF THE OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING ENGLISH CURRICULUM

37. Please indicate the extent to which each objective is ASSESSED in the end of year Examinations. Tick [✓] only one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All objectives are assessed equally</th>
<th>Apart from a few objectives are assessed</th>
<th>There are many omissions in the objectives</th>
<th>Many objectives are not assessed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

38. Please indicate the extent to which each objective is ACHIEVED in the end of year Examinations. Tick [✓] only one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All objectives are achieved equally</th>
<th>Apart from a few objectives are achieved</th>
<th>There are many omissions in the objectives</th>
<th>Many objectives are not achieved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
39. Please indicate whether you agree that the THEMATIC CONTENT of textbooks (class vi-x) is based on the following factors. Circle the appropriate number on the rating scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. INTEREST</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b. AGE</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. ABILITY</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. PREVIOUS KNOWLEDGE</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. NEEDS</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PART 'F': - TEACHERS' ROLE IN CURRICULUM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

40. Please indicate whether you agree that school teacher should participate actively in the curriculum process in Pakistan? Tick(✓) the appropriate column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. CURRICULUM PLANNING</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. DESIGN</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. IMPLEMENTATION</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. EVALUATION</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. DECISION ABOUT IMPROVEMENT/CHANGE</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

41. Please indicate whether you agree that the school teachers are allowed sufficient participation in the curriculum process in Pakistan? Tick(✓) the appropriate column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. CURRICULUM PLANNING</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. DESIGN</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. IMPLEMENTATION</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. EVALUATION</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. DECISION ABOUT IMPROVEMENT/CHANGE</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Participation refers to an association with the others in relationship used on a formal basis with specific rights and obligations.
42. Please give your views that you are / have been actively involved at any stage as mentioned above of curriculum development?

43. Please indicate whether you have any training in curriculum planning and development. If so, what sort of training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF TRAINING</th>
<th>PLACE</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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</table>

44. Please indicate how often your curriculum is revised and by whom. Tick[/\] the appropriate column.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Each term</th>
<th>Each year</th>
<th>Every 2years</th>
<th>Every 5years</th>
<th>More than every 5years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Teachers' recommendations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(b) Head of schools' recommendations</td>
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<tr>
<td>(c) Pupils' recommendations</td>
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<tr>
<td>(d) Parents' recommendations</td>
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<tr>
<td>(e) Government decision</td>
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<tr>
<td>(f) Other (Please state)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

45. Please indicate whether you agree that the existing English language curriculum should be changed? Tick[/\] the appropriate column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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</table>

46. If you agree or strongly agree with Q.45, please indicate what changes you would suggest.
NOTE: PLEASE USE 5 POINT SCALE (1.....5) FOR RATING EACH ELEMENT

NAME: MISS EIJAZ (FUT) / DESIGNATION: ........SCHOOL: ...............
CLASS: ................... SECTION: ............ DATE:  .  .

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONSTRUCTS</th>
<th>Grammar translation</th>
<th>Direct method</th>
<th>Audio Visual</th>
<th>Audio-lingual</th>
<th>Situational</th>
<th>Communicative</th>
<th>Natural</th>
<th>Structural</th>
<th>Silent way</th>
<th>CONSTRUCTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EMERGENT POLE</td>
<td>E1</td>
<td>E2</td>
<td>E3</td>
<td>E4</td>
<td>E5</td>
<td>E6</td>
<td>E7</td>
<td>E8</td>
<td>E9</td>
<td>E10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful in students reading skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not helpful ---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful in students writing skills</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Not helpful ---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful in students listening skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not helpful ---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful in students speaking skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not helpful ---</td>
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<tr>
<td>Helpful in correcting students pronunciation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Not helpful ---</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Helpful in translating from English to mother tongue</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not helpful ---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful for teaching tenses</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not helpful ---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONSTRUCT: "In its minimum context is a way in which two elements are similar and contrast with the third". (Kelly, 1955, p.61)
Ref: Kelly, G.A. (1955) "The Psychology Of Personal Constructs"
Vol.1&2 W.W
Dear Colleague...........

I enclose herewith a "FOCUSed Grid" of your perceptions of the effectiveness of English teaching methods containing two main trees: (a) Elements (Teaching methods) and (b) Constructs (Views) as requested by you, together with the "FEEDBACK SHEET" and "BLANK REPERTORY GRID FORM". The primary purpose of sending you the analysis of the grid is to provide feedback on your perceptions of the effectiveness of the teaching methods. (Please see my observations attached herewith). Please may I ask you to focus on the pattern of both trees (a) and (b) and note the close relationship between pairs of elements which have already been rated by you on a five-point scale on your constructs. In order to help you in writing your comments on the "feedback sheet", the following "GUIDE LINES" may be borne in mind.

GUIDE LINES

NOTE: Two abbreviations E = Elements (Teaching methods) and C = Constructs (Views) are frequently used in the analysis.

1. Do you think the grid contains the same analysis which you had in mind while involved in the exercise?

2. If you think that there is divergence between your analysis and the analysis of the grid, then would you please draw an alternative tree diagram for me?

3. If you wish to add any other new construct(s). Please write it/them on the attached grid form. However before filling it in, read the instructions carefully.

Cont'd............
I should like to add that Mr. Shabbir Ahmed Qureshi, Senior Teacher of Sind Madressah-tul-Islam National Pilot Secondary School, Karachi, will be pleased to help you if you find any difficulty in understanding the grid. So please don't hesitate to see or contact him on telephone No. 232798 (Karachi) from 8 a.m. to 2 p.m.

**INSTRUCTIONS ON HOW TO WRITE AND RATE YOUR NEW CONSTRUCTS**

Please write your bi-polar construct(s) on the emergent pole (left hand side) which is positive and on the implicit pole (right hand side) which is negative. Then choose three elements marked "x" and decide in what way two elements are similar to and contrast with the third. The similar elements may be rated 1 or 2 and contrasting elements 3 or 4 or 5 on a five-point scale. Thus rate all the elements on your additional construct one.

For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C.1</th>
<th>Helpful in developing communicative skills</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</table>

| C.2 | |
|-----| | x | x | x |

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>E1</th>
<th>E2</th>
<th>E3</th>
<th>E4</th>
<th>E5</th>
<th>E6</th>
<th>E7</th>
<th>E8</th>
<th>E9</th>
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| C.2 | |
|-----| | x | x | x |

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>E1</th>
<th>E2</th>
<th>E3</th>
<th>E4</th>
<th>E5</th>
<th>E6</th>
<th>E7</th>
<th>E8</th>
<th>E9</th>
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</tbody>
</table>
```
In the procedure adopted in the example, first of all, I chose three methods marked "x", then decided in what way two elements were similar to and contrasted with the third. Then I rated $E_2$ and $E_3$ 1 and 2 respectively and $E_1$ was rated 5. Then I chose $E_6$ and $E_5$ as similar were rated 1 and 2 and $E_4$ was rated 3. Again I chose $E_7$ and $E_9$ as similar and these were rated 1 and 2 respectively and $E_8$ was rated 5. Thus NINE elements were rated on a five-point scale. If you have more than one construct, carry on the same procedure and rate three teaching methods (marked "x") on construct two and vice versa.

I would be most grateful if you could write your comments on the "FEEDBACK SHEET" and complete the "GRID FORM"(In case you have any additional constructs) and return them in the self addressed envelope as soon as possible. It will help me enormously, if you could manage to do this within FOUR WEEKS of receiving this letter.

Your time and effort is greatly appreciated.

Thanks again for your help and cooperation.

Yours sincerely

Muhammad Memon

Department of Educational Studies
University of Surrey, Guildford

GU2 5XH. England
Dear Colleague...........

I enclose herewith a "FOCUSed Grid" of your perceptions of your role as an English language teacher containing two main trees: (a) Elements (Role as teacher) and (b) Constructs (Views) as requested by you, together with the "FEEDBACK SHEET" and "BLANK REPERTORY GRID FORM". The primary purpose of sending you the analysis of the grid is to provide feedback on your perceptions of your role as an English language teacher. (Please see my observations attached herewith). Please may I ask you to focus on the pattern of both trees (a) and (b) and note the close relationship between pairs of elements which have already been rated by you on a five-point scale on your constructs. In order to help you in writing your comments on the "feedback sheet", the following "GUIDE LINES" may be borne in mind.

GUIDE LINES

NOTE: Two abbreviations E = Elements (Role as teacher) and C = Constructs (Views) are frequently used in the analysis.

1. Do you think the grid contains the same analysis which you had in mind while involved in the exercise?

2. If you think that there is divergence between your analysis and the analysis of the grid, then would you please draw an alternative tree diagram for me?

3. If you wish to add any other new construct(s). Please write it/them on the attached grid form. However before filling it in, read

Cont'd........
the instructions carefully.

I should like to add that Mr. Shabbir Ahmed Qureshi, Senior Teacher of Sind Madressah-tul-Islam National Pilot Secondary School, Karachi, will be pleased to help you if you find any difficulty in understanding the grid. So please don't hesitate to see or contact him on telephone No. 232798 (Karachi) from 8 a.m. to 2 p.m.

INSTRUCTIONS ON HOW TO WRITE AND RATE YOUR NEW CONSTRUCTS

Please write your bi-polar construct(s) on the emergent pole (left hand side) which is positive and on the implicit pole (right hand side) which is negative. Then choose three elements marked "x" and decide in what way two elements are similar to and contrast with the third. The similar elements may be rated 1 or 2 and contrasting elements 3 or 4 or 5 on a five-point scale. Thus rate all the elements on your additional construct one.

For example:

| C.1 Classroom interaction in English. | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | 5 |
| C.2 No classroom interaction in English | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | 1 |
In the procedure adopted in the example, first of all, I chose three elements (marked "x"), then decided in what way two elements were similar to and contrasted with the third. Then I rated E2 and E3 1 and 2 respectively and E1 was rated 5. Then I chose E6 and E5 as similar were rated 1 and 2 and E4 was rated 3. Again I chose E7 and E9 as similar and these were rated 1 and 2 respectively and E8 was rated 5. Thus nine elements were rated on a five-point scale. If you have more than one construct, carry on the same procedure and rate three elements (marked "x") on construct two and vice versa.

I would be most grateful if you could write your comments on the "FEEDBACK SHEET" and complete the "GRID FORM" (in case you have any additional constructs) and return them in the self addressed envelope as soon as possible. It will help me enormously, if you could manage to do this within four weeks of receiving this letter.

Your time and effort is greatly appreciated.

Thanks again for your help and cooperation.

Yours sincerely

Muhammad Memon
Department of Educational Studies
University of Surrey, Guildford
GU2 5XH. England
NOTE: You can use an extra sheet if necessary. But please be as precise as you can while writing your comments.

1. Please write your comments on my (i.e. the researchers') observations made on your grid. (i) Your observations are correct. (ii) Unhappiness shown about my role as an English teacher by the grid is totally correct. (iii) Reasons of unhappiness: - School administration not suitable (b) Teachers irresponsible and uncooperative (c) Headmasters not interested in schools and academic work (d) Parents have no confidence in schools and teaching staff (e) Students have no confidence in teachers (f) Non-availability of syllabus, curriculum, teachers' guides and necessary books in schools (g) School atmosphere suitable for teaching (h) Elementary classes are neglected (i) Students of IX and X have no knowledge of previous classes (j) System of exams unsuitable and ineffective (k) Chances of copying at exams (l) Aim of schooling only to get mark without any ability (m) Effective teaching not possible due to in academic atmosphere. A teacher compelled to work in such conditions will naturally become appy with his role as a teacher if he is sincere and tries honestly to bridge and his efforts become unsuccessful to overcome these difficulties.

2. Please give your views on the grid. (e.g. the pattern, and the procedure involved in eliciting your constructs)

The grid is very useful to find out the views of the teachers. Their role as an English teacher is analysed very efficiently. The pattern of the grid is suitable.

The procedure of the grid is effective and interesting. The procedure is most helpful in eliciting the constructs and providing views. The teacher is helped to know more about his role as an English teacher.
3. Please draw the alternative tree diagrams if you wish.

There is no need of an alternate diagram to be drawn as the diagram drawn by you (the researcher) is correct.

4. Any other comment(s). If a copy of the constructs filled in by me in your presence while you were in Pakistan was sent to me, it would have helped me.

Muhammad Memon
Department of Educational Studies
University of Surrey, Guildford
GU2 5XH, England
RESEARCHER'S OBSERVATIONS ON THE GRID-1 FOR MISS EIJAZ

1. The tree of elements of your grid indicates that E6 (communicative method) and E8 (structural method) are highly matching pair and form a cluster at node 10. E1 (grammar translation method) forms a sub cluster and links with main cluster of E6 and E8. This indicates that you have perceived these methods useful in your teaching in terms of your constructs 1 to 8. On the other hand, the concept of both the methods are different from each other.

2. Please mention the specific reason(s) why you may see a similarity between these methods?.

3. It is further pointed out that during my classroom observation I got impression that you had attached more importance to the structural rather than communicative method. I wonder whether you could tell me about this mismatch between your espoused theory and theory -in-use.

4. The E2 (direct method) and E7 (natural method) are also appear a matching pair and form cluster two at node 13. Further E3 (audio visual method) links at node 15. It shows that this grouping of three methods does not appear to be useful in your teaching and the same receive 4 and 5 ratings on the majority of the constructs.

4. Please mention the reason(s) why you may not perceive these methods to be useful in your teaching?. The classroom observation of your teaching practice showed that you seemed to be more inclined towards using the direct method only. Please would you like to say a few words in this context.

5. It is pointed out that you have neither percived the audio lingual (officially prescribed method) to be useful nor used in it your teaching practice. It would be helpful, if you could throw more light on this issue.
**CONTEXT:** Content of the lesson is about a saint of Sind, Pakistan. The purpose of its teaching was to give the students information about the life and the achievements of the saintly personalities so that the students could learn from their lives. This lesson is one of the attempts in this respect. Before the teacher (Mr. Siddiqui) started his lesson, he tried to elicit the prior knowledge of the students. The majority knew mostly about the topic. The teacher initiated and described a biography of the saint in the students' mother tongue.

**TEACHER:** Mr. Siddiqui  
**CLASS:** Pre-matric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EVENTS IMMEDIATELY PRECEEDING TEACHER' REFLECTIONS</th>
<th>TEACHER'S REFLECTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher asks, 'who will tell me name of the lesson?'. After a brief silence, 2 students hesitantly put their hands up. Teacher calls, one of them by name who mis-pronounces the title of the lesson. Teacher corrects with the help of other students. The teacher gives drill practice of correct pronunciation to five students. Teacher poses another question- 'can you tell me spelling of Shah Abdul Latif?'. No response. Teacher encourages the students, one of them recall his memory and spells correctly. Teacher praises this student and advises others to work hard like this student. Teacher writes spelling in the capital letters. One of the students point out 'Sir,'B' is missing in ABDUL'. Teacher again appreciates his intellectual abilities and enthusiasm for learning.</td>
<td>You know, it is my routine to ask some questions to make them alert in the classroom. The second reason is that I want to make sure that the students have gone through the new lesson at their home. My students' pronunciation is very poor. Even simple words, they can't pronounce. It is terrible! isn't it?. This was an additional step in my teaching. I mean I didn't plan it before my teaching. However, learning correct spelling can't be avoided. I wish my students must learn all the vocabulary in the text and spell it correctly. But it is disappointing. They don't learn by heart at their home. Therefore, I give them dialy practice to remember spelling in the classroom. I deliberately made that mistake just to see either the students' presence of mind. But none of them pointed out except one student you see. Some times it is embarrassing situation that except few students, the majority</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teacher asks 'who was Shah Abdul Latif?'. As usual the same student raises his hand and answers. But suddenly teacher stops him, 'let's ask the other students'. Since there was no response from others, the same student completes his answer. Four students practice repeating the answer, but not successfully. Teacher asks the same student, from did you have this information?. Student answers Sir, I can't remember, perhaps from my history lesson and your previous talk'. The other student seeks permission to express views in the mother tongue. The student provides new information which was not in the text. Teacher asks, 'why didn't you tell me before?'. Student replies, Sir I was afraid that I might not express in English.

Actually, in this class, the majority of the students are passive listeners, it is not my fault. The content of the text book is not activity oriented or dialogue based written so that every student can take part. I always ask questions before I start my teaching to see their level of understanding of the content. My expectations were that the majority of the students might know about the Shah Abdul Latif. I knew they had learnt in their history lesson in their previous classes. But you know, how they quickly forgot it. I don't know the reasons...I appreciate two students who always contribute in their learning. Otherwise, I may not teach this class. They are very active...I want to get other students involved in their learning processes, but I'm failed to do so. However, I can't blame the students, I think there is wrong with the content and the teaching methods which I can't change nor allowed to change...The students haven't practice of speaking English. The use of the mother tongue of the students can't be avoided, any way emphasis should be given to encourage the students to converse in English. I think at the threshold level, if the teachers use English in their classroom and pay attention to developing all learning skills equally, then I may not face such misery in the classroom. The proposed new method nor the content doesn't
Teacher describes the central theme of the lesson. One of the students interrupts, Sir, 'could you write it on the black board?'. No sorry, I can't. I'm giving you handout so you can copy it and give me back...That's your homework as well.

You know, the text books contain inadequate information. In this lesson, many interesting things were missed out. I decided to provide more information about Shah Abdul Latif...During this lesson, I used grammar translation and structural methods which I considered to be suitable for teaching this lesson. However, unofficially, I used a communicative approach as well to teach the use of the language. Obviously, this is not an examination requirement. But I must say that our students should learn equally and develop their language skills which is felt need of the society...It can only be possible by replacing the curriculum and its instructional strategy. Teachers also need brain washing and intensive courses in the applied linguistics, so that they must know the bases of the language curriculum, instructions and learning theories....
LESSON TRANSCRIPTION

TRANSCRIPT OF THE TAPE
RECORDED LESSON

T-Have you heard about any poets of Pakistan?
S1-Yes Sir, Faiz...

T-I need more names

T-I wanted to elicit Allama Iqbal's name.
S1-Sir, Allama is an international poet.

T-You can say...

T-If you want to emphasise, then you must say that I believe that Allama...

T-Who will tell me about Allama Iqbal?.
S6-Sir, he started from an advocate to politician.

T-Follow me, Allama Iqbal started his career from an advocate...

T-When did he start poetry?
S6-Sir, in 1940.
T-No, you are absolutely wrong. He started his poetry in the early of the 20th century.

T-O.K. Open your textbooks.

PEDOGOGICAL FUNCTIONS (PF)

♦ Teachers recalls students' memory [PF1]
♦ Teacher moves quickly on [PF10]
♦ Teacher avoids students led discussion [PF5]
&
♦ Teacher is reluctant to provide further information [PF4]
♦ Teacher moves quickly on [PF10]
♦ Teacher teaches the use of the target language [PF11]
&
♦ Teacher introduces new information [PF2]
♦ Teacher recalls students' memory [PF1]

♦ Teacher moves quickly on [PF10]
♦ Teacher rephrases the students' response [PF8]
&
♦ Introduces a new information [PF2]
♦ Teacher moves quickly [PF10]
♦ Teacher recalls the students' memory [PF1]

♦ Teacher provides feedback [PF9]
&
♦ Introduces a new information [PF2]
♦ Rephrases the students' response [PF8]
♦ Teacher moves quickly... [PF10]
T-Starts his model reading.
[Allama Iqbal...as Dr. Mohammad Iqbal.]

[Teacher asks the students:]
S3- Reads lesson aloud.
[Teacher interrupts and poses question].

T-Who was Allama Iqbal?

S3-Sir, he was [a] poet.

T-Allama Iqbal was a poet of east.

S1-Sir, what is the meaning of east?
T-I'll let you know later

S19- Reads lesson aloud.
[Teacher interrupts and asks question]
T-Where was he born?

S19-He [was] born in Punjab.
T-Say, he was born in Sialkot.

S1-[Interrupts], Sir, in a Sialkot town...
T-Yes, you can say...

[Teacher asks the another student to read lesson aloud]
S2- Reads lesson aloud.
[Teacher interrupts and asks question].

*Teacher's model reading &
*introduces new information
*Silent reading
*Student's model reading
*Teacher moves quickly on
*Teacher evaluates the students' understanding
*Teacher rephrases the students' response
*introduces new information
*Teacher postpones explanation.
*Teacher moves quickly on
*Student's reading
*Teacher evaluates the students' understanding
*Teacher rephrases the students' response
*introduces a new information
*Teacher avoids the students' led discussion
*reluctant to give further information
*Teacher moves quickly on
*Student's reading
T- When was he appointed as a professor at the Oriental College?
S2- In 1899.
T- You should complete the sentence. He was appointed as a professor at the Oriental College in 1899.

S2- What is Oriental?
T- Be patient, I'll let you know tomorrow.

S1- What is Ph.D.?
T- I can't go in detail. Any way, it is an abbreviation of the doctor of philosophy.

S1- Do all the MBBS doctors have degrees of doctor of philosophy?
T- I think, such questions waste my time.

S3- What is an early education?
T- Primary.
S3- Sir, can you explain more to us?
T- I think it is sufficient.

S3- Sir, what do you mean by home town?
T- It is used for a native town.
S3- What do you mean by this?

T- Just remember, don't go in detail...
S1-Where is Munich University?
T-It is in Germany.

S1, Sir, East or west.
T-Do your business. Don't ask such questions.

S2-What is a Law degree?
T-It is an LL.B.

S2-What is that?
T-Sorry, I can't explain now.

T-Where did Allama receive his law degree from?
S1-From London.
T-Say, he received his law degree from England.

T-Don't waste my time. That's enough.

T-Asks students to open their textbooks.
T-Reads lesson aloud:
"Allama Iqbal is generally... with great courage."

S1-Reads lesson aloud.
[Teacher interrupts and asks question].

♦Teacher provides feedback [PF9]
& *introduces new information [PF2]
*Teacher is reluctant to provide further information. [PF4]
& *avoids students led discussion [PF5]

*Teacher provides feedback [PF9]
& *introduces new information [PF2]
*Teacher is reluctant to provide further information. [PF4]
& *avoids students led discussion [PF5]
*Teacher evaluates students' understanding [PF7]
*Teacher rephrases the students' response [PF8]
& *introduces new information [PF2]
*Teacher is reluctant to provide further information. [PF4]
& *avoids students led discussion [PF5]
*Teacher moves quickly on [PF10]
*Teacher's model reading [PF3]
*Students' silent reading [PF13]
*Student's reading [PF12]
T-Why Allama Iqbal is known as a great poet?

Si-Perhaps, due to his poetry.
T-Why perhaps, you can't use word "perhaps" here. You must say I believe. It is a fact....

T-Indeed, he was a great scholar.

T-Where did Allama spend a great part of his life?

Si-Sir, on the study of Islam. [Teacher interrupts]
Allama spent a great part of his life on the study of Islam.

Teacher suggests the students that they can also phrase the [above] sentence in the following way:
He devoted a great part of his life to Islam.

STUDENTS' HOMEWORK
The traditional Murghaa-Ban-Jao mode of corporal punishment in rural schools, is still on in federal schools of Islamabad.

The ordeal of tomorrow's man

In every school system there are creative and hard working teachers who can stimulate even the most "hard-to-reach" students. But, on the contrary, there are also sullen, lethargic and psychopath teacher also. So you ever ask any parents of school going kids, they will promptly say: "Don't listen to school officials who claim all teachers are the same. They often say so because they must have to fill each teacher's class."

The teacher in photograph with an arrogant face, has chosen very primitive and insulting way to punish his two pupils at a school located in the thickly populated Raja Bazar. [Kanalpindi, Pakistan]ness for hostility. The fault of these two students in the photograph, their teacher says, was that they sat sullenly in English class looking as though they hated him (teacher). It see the teacher had mistaken their shy

SOURCE: "DAILY JANG" BILINGUAL NEWSPAPER, LONDON: 26th April 1989, p.6
Lack of understanding of exactly what method means can lead to unfortunate results.

(Mackey 1965, p.156)

C.0 INTRODUCTION

Like other developing countries, the teachers in Pakistan face the major problem of a lack of resources and instructional materials which would help to guide their actions in the classroom generally and in particular the teaching of English as an additional compulsory language (TEACL). Bearing in mind the importance of the resources on language pedagogy, this codicil is an attempt to present an account of the different applied linguistic approaches associated with both the philosophical and psychological theories in education which are discussed in detail in Sections C.1, C.2 and C.3. Sections C.4, C.5 and C.6 give historical and critical accounts of the teaching methods related to the linguistic theories which emerged as an influence of the 'paradigm shift' (Kuhn 1970) (see figure C.1 overleaf).

C.1 EMPIRICIST APPROACH IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

C.1.1 PHILOSOPHICAL BASIS

This approach under the influence of an educational ideology - 'classical humanism' (Skilbeck 1982) - was initiated with the purpose of bringing about a reform in language teaching in the United States in the 1940s and 1950s; similar developments also took place in Europe. Stern (1983, p.160) said "the linguistic influences ... bring about a reorientation and updating of American language teaching theory which to a certain extent, had already taken place in Europe at the turn of the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATIONAL IDEOLOGY</th>
<th>Classical Humanism</th>
<th>Reconstructionism</th>
<th>Progressivism</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHILOSOPHICAL POSITION</td>
<td>Empiricist</td>
<td>Rationalist</td>
<td>Holistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOL OF LINGUISTICS</td>
<td>Structural (Bloomfield)</td>
<td>Generative (Chomsky)</td>
<td>Functional-Communicative (Hymes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY</td>
<td>Behaviouristic (Skinner)</td>
<td>Cognitive (Ausubel)</td>
<td>Humanistic (Rogers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEARNER</td>
<td>Passive listener, fill up empty vessel</td>
<td>Active ability to think</td>
<td>Interactive, active inquirer, development as a whole person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER</td>
<td>Transmitter of knowledge, error corrector, instructor</td>
<td>Sympathetic and helpful, action and demonstration, organiser and manager of learning experience</td>
<td>Facilitator, negotiator, responder to learning needs, encourager of learner responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEARNING ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>Study of grammatical rules, learning of vocabulary, habit-forming drills</td>
<td>Correct pronunciation and accent, internalise the rules of grammar, produce new sentences, meaningful learning</td>
<td>Activities for communicative competence: grammatical sociolinguistics, discourse strategic, perform different kinds of function: instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative, representational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRAMMAR</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Generative</td>
<td>Communicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CURRICULUM ORIENTATION</td>
<td>Audiolingual</td>
<td>Cognitive code</td>
<td>Humanistic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
century through the influence of Sweet (1899), Palmer (1922) and Jespersen (1904), whom Bell (1981) called 'the founder of modern language teaching methods'.

The British applied linguist Strevens (1963) differentiated the American and British concepts of language teaching. He remarked that the American goal for language teachers was to 'make them good structural linguists and the problems would be solved' while the British view was to 'make them good teachers and the problems would be solved'. As discussed earlier Sweet and Jespersen, the reformists, provided new insights into language teaching. These reformers took issue with many issues in linguistic and language teaching. They held a general view which Richards and Rodgers (1986, p.8) described as follows.

The reformers believed that:

1. the spoken language is primary and that this should be reflected in an oral-based methodology;
2. the findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching and to teacher training.
3. learners should hear the language first, before seeing it in written form:
4. words should be presented in sentences, and sentences should be practised in meaningful context, and not be taught as isolated, disconnected elements;
5. the rules of grammar should be taught only after the students have practised the grammar points in context - that is, grammar should be taught inductively;
6. translation should be avoided, although the mother tongue could be used in order to explain new words or to check comprehension.

The above views appear to have provided sufficient bases for 'structural linguistics', in which the empiricists believed that 'language acquisition is a kind of habit formation through conditioning and drill'. They thought that the normal use of language was either mimicry or analogy; grammatical rules were merely descriptions of habits, and in normal fast speech, nobody had time to apply rules as norms for sentence formation. The empiricist position may be described as stating that human beings undergo basically the same learning processes as other animals - a 'stimulus-response model of conditioning'. They considered that the mind was a blank slate or 'tabula rasa', in Locke's terms, upon which the outside world imposes various sorts of knowledge and people learn as they go along.

Human beings were considered to be essentially like a machine with a collection of habits which would be moulded by the outside world. Hence the learning process was considered to be a mechanical process. Pope and Keen (1981) noted that "the Lockean tradition is central to psychological theories of development which stress the passivity of man's mind" (p.4). Skinner (1968) described teachers as architects and builders of students' behaviour. Man is nothing but his behaviour which is controlled by his environment or stimulus. These views are shared by inter alia O'Connor and Twaddell (1960), Lado (1964), Rivers (1964), and Allen (1965).

Moulton (1961) described the five slogans on which the 'structural linguists' based their language teaching as:
1. 'Language was speech, not writing'.
2. 'Language was a set of habits'.
3. 'Teach the language, not about the language'.
4. 'A language was what its native speakers said, not what someone thought they ought to say'.
5. 'Languages were different'.

The growth of structural linguistics in America played a crucial role in breaking with the tradition of conventional language teaching. Bloomfield (1942), one of the leading structural linguists, argued that a language can only be learned from a native speaker who acted as an informant, and who must be closely observed and imitated. Language learning involved conscientious recording, imitating, practising and memorising. Fries (1949) argued that descriptive analysis was the basis upon which to build the teaching material, which indicates that it was also a content-orientated approach. Lado (1957), a successor of Fries, whose approach was known as 'contrastive analysis' within 'structural linguistics', commented on the difficulty which students faced while transferring the features of their native languages to the foreign language in the sound system, structures, and lexical items.

Stern (1983, p.160) said

By about 1960, the influence of structural linguists upon language teaching had reached a peak, at any rate in the United States. In association with a behaviourist theory of language learning it provided the principal theoretical basis of the audio lingual theory and in this way influenced language teaching materials, teaching and testing techniques, and teacher education.

Another structural linguist Stack (1964) remarked that

Today's foreign language teaching is achieving success unknown under the traditional methods. This has been accomplished by the application of structural linguistics to teaching, particularly in the realms of proper sequence,
oral grammar, inductive grammar, and the use of pattern drills to give intensive practice.

(pp. 80-81)

C.1.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS

The empiricist approach to language learning is associated with the behaviourist approach in psychology. Skinner was called a leading behaviourist psychologist when he published his 'Behaviour of Organism' in 1938. He followed the pattern of Watson (1913) who coined the term 'behaviourism'. Anderson and Ausubel (1965) called Skinner 'neobehaviourist' because he added a new dimension to behaviouristic psychology - 'operant conditioning'. Skinner was very much concerned about the consequences of the behaviour which appeared in response to stimulus. Skinner's views on verbal behaviour (1957) demonstrated language as a system of verbal operants, and his understanding of the role of conditioning led to a whole new era in language teaching around the middle of this century.

A Skinnerian view of both language theory (structuralism) and language learning (audiolinguism) dominated TEACL methodology until early 1970. For its success in the classroom it relied on the controlled practice of verbal operants under carefully described schedules of reinforcement. Its claim was that 'human behaviour' can be predicted and controlled - which ignored that the nature of humans was free and not bound by any sort of compulsion and force. As human behaviour is rather voluntary, one can seldom get the desired results as predicted. That is why this approach has been strongly criticised as inappropriate for human learning.
C.2 RATIONALIST APPROACH IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

C.2.1 PHILOSOPHICAL BASIS

While the structural linguists were busy applying their principles in the classroom, a new approach, 'transformational generative grammar', emerged which strenuously criticised the 'structural approach'. Noam Chomsky in 1957 presented his view as a reaction to the 'structural approach'. According to Chomsky, language cannot be scrutinised simply in terms of observable stimuli and response or the volumes of raw data gathered by field linguists. Generative linguists are interested not only in describing language as achieving a level of descriptive adequacy but also in arriving at an explanatory level of adequacy in the study of language. They sought a 'principled basis', independent of any particular language, for the selection of the descriptively adequate grammar of each language (Chomsky 1964).

The generative grammarians believed that to know a language was to be able to create new sentences in the language. Chomsky (1966, p.46) said "normal linguistic behaviour... is stimulus-free and innovative", being grammatically bounded. The rationalists would argue that linguistic information came from our own knowledge of our native tongue. They believed that language was a mental phenomenon. The rationalist position revealed that man was born with the ability to think and to learn a specialised cognitive code called human language. Man was equipped with a highly organised brain that permitted certain kinds of mental activity which were impossible for other animals.

One of the strongest arguments which the rationalists put forward was that on an abstract level, all languages worked in the same way, they
all had words and sentences, sound systems and grammatical relations, and they attributed these universals of language to the structure of the brain. Children were considered to be active participants in language acquisition and not bound by any external environment or stimuli to learn language. Children used language freely in their environment, hence their language-in-use became almost automatic not imitative; whatever children learned was more than a set of conditioned habits.

The rationalist believed that a knowledge of language allowed a person to understand infinitely more new sentences, and to create grammatical sentences which no one else had ever pronounced but which would be understood immediately by others who knew the language. Diller (1978, p.23) described the following main characteristics of the rationalist approach.

1. A living language is characterised by rule-governed activity.
2. The rules of grammar are psychologically real.
3. Man is specially equipped to learn languages.
4. A living language is a language in which we can think, which is different from the empiricist view of language.

This approach is not without criticism - see Section C.2.2.1.

C.2.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS

Like generative linguists, cognitive psychologists took a contrasting theoretical stance about learning to the behaviourists. To them, meaning, understanding, and knowing are significant data for psychological study. Ausubel (1965, p.4) stated that "From the standpoint of cognitive theorists, the attempt to ignore conscious states or to reduce cognition to mediational processes reflective of
implicit behaviour not only removes from the field of psychology what is most worth studying but also dangerously oversimplifies highly complex psychological phenomena". He argued that learning took place in the human organism through a meaningful process of relating new events or items to already existing cognitive concepts or propositions by hanging new items on existing cognitive pegs.

Ausubel (1968) further went on to differentiate between two types of learning - 'rote' and 'meaningful' learning. According to him rote learning is the process of acquiring material as "discrete and relatively isolated entities that are relatable to cognitive structure only in an arbitrary and verbatim fashion, not permitting the establishment of relationship" (p. 108). On the other hand, meaningful learning is a process of relating new material to relevant established entities in cognitive structure which is like a system of building blocks. Brown (1987, p.66) described meaningful learning as "the process whereby blocks become an integral part of already established categories or systematic clusters of blocks". He went on to classify the concepts of rote and meaningful learning in figures C.2 and C.3.

James (1890, p.662) described meaningful learning thus:

In mental terms, the more other facts a fact is associated with in the mind, the better possession of it our memory retains. Each of its associates becomes a hook to which it hangs, a means to fish it up by when sunk beneath the surface. Together, they form a network of attachments by which it is woven into the entire tissue of our thought. The 'secret of good memory' is thus the secret of forming diverse and multiple associations with every fact we care to retain... Briefly, then, of two men with the same outward experiences and the same amount of mere tenacity, the one who thinks over his experiences most, and weaves them into systematic relation with each other, will be the one with the best memory.
Figure C.2 Schematic representation of rote learning and retention
(Brown 1987, p.66)

Acquisition and storage of items (triangles) as arbitrary entities ➔ Inefficient retention because of interfering contiguous items ➔ Loss of retention without repeated conditioning

Figure C.3 Schematic representation of meaningful learning and retention (subsumption) (Brown 1987, p.66)

Acquisition and storage of items anchored to an established conceptual hierarchy by subsumption ➔ Subsumption process continues in retention ➔ Systematic "forgetting"; subsumed items are "pruned" in favor of a larger, more global conception, which is, in turn, related to other items (ABC) in cognitive structure.
Ausubel's theory of learning has important implications for TEACL, while Chomsky's 'generative transformational grammar' approach is much more associated with the cognitive theory of learning.

In the early 1970s, the fierce rift between these two rival approaches in language acquisition was lessened when another, new, approach called the 'humanistic approach' appeared on the scene with the hope that it would bridge the gap which had been created by the controversy between 'empiricists' and 'rationalists'. Dubin and Olshtain (1986) maintained that "the humanistic orientation has been closely associated with the communicative view of language" (p.35).

C.2.2.1 CRITICISM OF RATIONALIST APPROACH

As mentioned above, the rationalist approach is not free from criticism. For example, Strevens (1964) suggested that the transformational generative grammar was merely one of several possible approaches to the description of syntactical patterns. Hockett (1967) called it an 'anti scientific approach'.

A strong criticism came from Carroll (1971), Rivers (1972) and Stern (1974). They argued that there was neither conceptually nor practically a distinction between the empiricist and rationalist theories and another linguist, Chastain (1976) treated them as complementary theories. To some, the rationalist theory is a naive approach as compared with the structural approach. Diller (1978), one of its advocates, noted that the "generative grammarians themselves have not yet established themselves in the language teaching profession to the extent that the structuralists have..." (p.23).
Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) said:

The resulting development of transformational generative grammar did not have a direct impact on language teaching on any large scale, but an alternative learning theory, cognitive-code, was developed that placed emphasis more on the conscious understanding of the rules which lead to the production of linguistic patterns than on unconscious learning of the patterns themselves. Once again, as earlier with grammar-translation, rules would be learned and then applied to the elements of the language, and the use of the intellect again become respectable.

(p.9)

C.3 HUMANISTIC APPROACH IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Carl Rogers (1951), a humanist psychologist, is called the 'founder of this school of thought. Rogers' humanistic psychology has more of an affective focus than a cognitive one. He studied human behaviour from a 'phenomenological' perspective which is different from Skinner's and Ausubel's theory of learning. To him, a concept of the development of the 'whole person' is more meaningful than any other aspect. Learners can learn only when they are in a non-threatening environment, which is free from any sort of compulsion, fear, punishment or anxiety. This will be helpful in developing their own experience rather than having others' views imposed upon them which in turn may contribute to 'defensive learning'. Brown (1987, p.72) described defensive learning as that in which "learners try to protect themselves from failure, from criticism, from competition with fellow students, and possibly from punishment".

C.3.1 PHILOSOPHICAL BASIS

The humanists believed that language was a medium of communication through which human beings could maintain interpersonal relations. Thus language is seen as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations and the expression of functional meaning which can be used in
the social context. The sociolinguists also shared this sort of view that any language was inseparable from its socio-cultural context. This view is not new: it may be as old as the history of language itself.

A central concern of the sociolinguists is to study language in its social context in the phenomenon of variation at all structural levels. A corollary to the phenomenon of variation is the occurrence of styles of speaking. Each person is unique, therefore his style of speaking is unique. As one of the sociolinguists stated: 'there were no single-style speakers' (Labov 1971). Every speaker also adopts a style of speaking which is appropriate to the particular social context.

C.3.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS

In the late 1950s and in the early 1960s the behaviourist approach led to emphasis on linguistic form at the expense of meaning and communication. No doubt many learners were capable of producing perfect sentences in a practice session but this ability would be in danger when they were faced with a situation in which real communication was necessary. The behaviourists believed that in language learning a succession of similar activities through pattern drill, mimicry and memorisation would lead to communicative competence. Obviously, it curbed creativity and self-expression, ignored cognitive processes and overlooked the personality traits of the specific learners. A holistic approach to learning, on the other hand, would incorporate all these aspects (Titone 1981).

Dubin and Olshtain (1986) maintained that now "language learning theory has been reshaped to incorporate a mentalistic-cognitive view which is compatible with a holistic approach to learning in general. At the same
time, language learning theory has also shifted its emphasis from linguistic competence to socio-cultural appropriateness and communicative competence, influenced by developments in socio-linguistics" (p.74). They further went on to maintain that "It is the integrative (holistic) view, emphasising the totality of language learning, which works best with a communicative approach..." (p.74).

The emphasis on communicative language teaching has incorporated educational philosophies based on humanistic psychology or a view which in the context of goals for other subject areas has been 'the humanistic curriculum' (McNeil 1977). Such a curriculum fosters sharing of control, negotiation, and joint responsibility by co-participants; it stresses thinking, feelings, and action; it attempts to relate subject matter to learner's basic needs and lives; and it advances the self as a legitimate object of learning. The main concern of this curriculum is to develop the whole person within a human society. The humanistic curriculum puts a high value on people accepting responsibility for their own learning, making decisions for themselves, choosing and initiating activities, expressing feelings and opinions about needs, abilities and preferences. In such cases, the "learning becomes to a large extent the learner's responsibility" (Morrow 1981, p.63).

The prevailing approaches described above have influenced the teaching methodology in the history of TEACL. The methods which are discussed below developed as a result of the three major revolutions in language teaching - empiricist, rationalist and holistic. A brief account of each method will be given and discussed in the following section in the context of particular theoretical foundations in philosophy, linguistics and psychology.

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C.4 METHODS RELATED TO EMPIRICIST APPROACH

The six methods discussed below are based on the behaviourist principles of patterns, drills, memorisation and imitation.

C.4.1 DR. WEST'S METHOD

West's method was quite popular in its heyday when the aim of TEACL was limited to the acquisition of a reading knowledge of the language, known as the 'New method'. He developed this method in the particular context of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent. His experiments were conducted in the former East Pakistan, now Bangladesh. West (1926a) noted that "the bilingual child does not so much need to speak his second language as to read it" (p.3). To him, developing reading ability is more important than speaking and writing ability. According to him "learning to read a language is by far the shortest and the safest road to learning to speak and write it" (1926b, p.122). There is no doubt that at the time when West presented his views on language learning the functional aspect of language learning was not considered to be important.

C.4.1.1 CRITICISM OF DR. WEST'S METHOD

Since language learning travelled from 'behavioural objectives' to 'expressive objectives' to 'communicative objectives', many changes have taken place in this context, and therefore, this method may not be as appropriate as it was earlier. In contrast Fries (1945, p.6) argued that:

The early practice must be oral practice. No matter if the final result desired is only to read the foreign language, the mastery of the fundamentals of the language - the structure and the sound system must be through speech. The speech is the language. The written record is but a secondary representation of the language. To master a language it is not necessary to read it, but it is extremely doubtful whether we can really read the language without first mastering it orally.
The advocates of West's method maintained that West had done well to press the case for more attention for passive work in the teaching of English in India. Obviously this cannot be appreciated when communicative aspects of the teaching of a live language are given high priority.

Apart from Fries's (1945) critique, other criticism levelled by linguists and educationists on West's approach to language teaching are summarised below:

1. The foundation skill is speaking rather than reading. Dr. West puts the cart before the horse when he says that reading should precede speaking.

2. Feeling for an idiomatic and beautiful sentence is imbibed through speaking rather than through reading. It is through constant use that the student gains an insight into the beauty of the language.

3. It is improper to give up a psychologically sound procedure on the grounds of anxiety that teachers with good pronunciation may not be available. Moreover, there can be no reading at the early stage without some sort of articulation which involves the teaching of pronunciation.

4. It is hard to demarcate the boundaries of reading and speaking lessons. At the initial stages it is not possible to distinguish one from the other.

5. The value of reading is over-estimated as an aid to speaking.

6. Learning to speak is easier than learning to read because the learning-reproducing process is simpler and shorter than the process involved in reading.

7. Active command of English is still a valuable quality even when
foreign rulers have left us. It is demanded in social circles and administrative contexts requiring speaking, writing, reading and listening skills equally.

8. English is a living language. It should be taught as a living language to be actively used in the social context.

C.4.2 THE LOOK-AND-SAY METHOD

The term - 'look-and-say method' - is used to describe a group of methods which contain alphabet, word, sentence and phrase methods etc. This method is preferred for teaching reading. Ahmad (1982) termed the above group of methods as 'synthetic' and 'analytic' methods of teaching reading. The look-and-say method is based on an audiolingual approach. Its main aim is to teach reading but it is rather different from Dr. West's method: it associates the sound of a word directly with the form of the word as a whole. The strongest argument in its favour is that the child learns the spoken language by a similar process.

Haq (1975, p.203) said: "In acquiring speech his [child's] ear catches the sound of words as wholes, and associates the sense with them without any analysis (imitation); so in reading, the sound and the sense of words should be associated with their forms as wholes, without analysis for that purpose. The eye does in the latter with the forms what the ear does in the former with the sounds". This method is nearly related to the audio visual method (see Section C.4.6). Haq (1975, p.206) further went on to say that "it [look-and-say] captures the interest of the pupils because of its use of pictures and presentation of living situations".

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Many of its opponents would argue that many words cannot be pictorially presented, for example, 'who', 'what' etc. In this respect, its advocates suggest that such words can be taught in sentences through oral drill and memorisation.

C.4.3 THE STRUCTURAL METHOD

This method is a direct outcome of the extensive research conducted in the field of TEACL in Britain and America during the past few decades.

One of the important factors which contributed to its emergence was the rise of structural linguistics at the beginning of the present century. In this method the greatest emphasis is laid on the 'mastery' of the structure of the foreign language. With the aim of achieving mastery in the foreign language, the structural method prescribes that the grammatical and lexical material should be graded in order of increasing difficulty of presentation. The structural method followed the 'empiricists' belief that in learning foreign languages what one really does is to form a set of habits through repetition and drill. It recommended the inclusion of various language items in the body of the instructional material a number of times. The advocates of this method believed that it enabled the pupils to learn the foreign language more effectively than would be the case if the instructional material contained no provision for revision and repetition of the items that have already been taught.

This method does not allow the use of translation as a foreign language teaching device, although it does allow translation from and into the foreign language as a skill that one can aim at in its own right after one has been through the necessary stages of instruction.
C.4.4. THE SITUATIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING METHOD

The term 'situational language teaching', 'structural-situation' and 'oral methods' are interchangeably used when referring to a language teaching approach developed by the British applied linguists from the 1930s to the 1960s. Herald Palmer (1917) was one of the leading figures who developed the principles for TEACL on the basis of scientific foundations. Emphasis was given to selecting and organising the content of language teaching by using principles and procedures based on a systematic study. Vocabulary was the main concern for TEACL. In this connection, Feucett et al. (1936) produced an 'Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection' based on frequency counts. This was revised by West (1953) as 'A General Service List of English Words' and became a standard norm while developing teaching materials. A parallel interest was developed in teaching grammar. In short, the main focus was to select lexical and grammatical content of a language course for teaching and learning. The methodology of this approach involved the systematic principles of selection, gradation, and presentation. Frisby (1957, p.134) said: "word order, structural words, the few inflexions of English, and content words, will form the material of our teaching". Another advocate, Pittman (1963, p.179) mentioned that

our principal classroom activity in the teaching of English structure will be the oral practice of structures. This oral practice of controlled sentence patterns should be given in situations designed to give the greatest amount of practice in English speech to the pupil.

During this period in the U.S.A. attention was shifted to a reading based approach - the teaching of comprehension of texts. Richards and Rodgers (1986, p.34) described the following main characteristics of situational language teaching:
1. Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.

2. The target language is the language of the classroom.

3. New language points are introduced and practised situationally.

4. Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered.

5. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.

6. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.

C.4.5 THE AUDIO LINGUAL METHOD

Prevailing foreign language teaching methods failed to meet the needs of the American military authorities during the second world war. They needed personnel who could understand and interpret a foreign language, and speak it with a native speaker's accent. Charles Fries (1945), an American structural linguist, developed a method which applied the principles of structural linguistics to language teaching. Pattern practice was a basic classroom technique. The oral approach, aural-oral approach, and the structural approach were developed aimed at aural training first, then pronunciation training, followed by speaking, reading, and writing. Language was identified with speech, and speech was approached through structure. These approaches later came to be known as 'Audio-linguism'.

According to Brooks (1964) language teaching transferred from art to science, which would enable learners to achieve mastery of a foreign language effectively and efficiently. The audio-lingual method derived theoretical support from the behaviourist theories of Pavlov and Skinner.
in terms of stimulus-response chaining in which the learner is stimulated through external devices to speak and respond. These techniques for learning the language structures involve repetitive drilling and practice of sentence patterns until the learner reaches the level of automatic formation of the language, similar in level to the mother tongue speaker.

The value of the audio-lingual method lies in its capability to enable language learners to grasp a limited range of the most required structures of the new language by means of sentence patterns and drills. In this the learners are usually active participants using such patterns and drills with the help of tape recorders to make, for example, variations on language patterns which meet their needs in particular situations.

However, this method, too, can be criticised for the imbalance it creates between the spoken and written text. Furthermore, learners can practise systematically even unclear patterns without consideration as to meaning. Such parrot-like drilling exercises increase the teachers' burden and direct them to attempt to predict the learners' difficulties. Moreover, repetitive sentences can foster boredom and indifference in learners, as well as in teachers. This situation demands once again a competent teacher with mastery of the language pronunciation, which is also difficult to achieve.

The use of such learning tools in learning has also given rise to many questions as to their effectiveness. Some have doubts as to their value in terms of the money spent on them; and as to whether they are indeed useful aids at all levels for both teachers and learners.
Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979) described the characteristics of audio-lingual methods (summarised by Brown (1987, p.96) below):

1. New material is presented in dialogue form.
2. There is dependence on mimicry, memorisation of set phrases, and overlearning.
3. Structures are sequenced by means of contrastive analysis and taught one at a time.
4. Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills.
5. There is little or no grammatical explanation: grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than deductive explanation.
6. Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context.
7. There is much use of tapes, language labs, and visual aids.
8. Great importance is attached to pronunciation.
9. Very little use of the mother tongue by the teacher is permitted.
10. Successful responses are immediately reinforced.
11. There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances.
12. There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content.

This method lost its popularity in the 1950s when Noam Chomsky launched his first main attack in 1957 by rejecting the structural approach to language description and the behaviourist theory of language learning. He proposed that (1966, p.153) "language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy". Chomsky argued that human language use was not imitated behaviour but it created anew from underlying knowledge of abstract rules through 'competence'.

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Richards and Rodgers (1986, p.59) noted that:

On the one hand, the theoretical foundations of audio-lingualism were attacked as being unsound both in terms of language theory and learning theory. On the other hand, practitioners found that the practical results fell short of expectations. Students were often found to be unable to transfer skills acquired through audio-lingualism to real communication outside the classroom, and many found the experience of studying through audio-lingual procedures to be boring and unsatisfying.

C.4.6 THE AUDIO-VISUAL METHOD

The audio-visual method was introduced to present students with a clear picture which involves the students in meaningful utterances and contexts. This method was developed in the 1950s. It is a product of the development in technology which produced tape recorders, film strips, flannel boards, pocket charts, vocabulary wheels and flannel-backed pictures to teach the students effectively through graded structures in specific linguistic contexts and social situations.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) said:

While it is true that the spoken language was given precedence and that the film strips and/or films gave students insights into both linguistic features and paralinguistic features of communication, too much emphasis was often placed on mechanical repetition of the tape and the objective was generally mastery of sentence pattern rather than creative or real communicative use of language. Often the teacher followed the tape and film strip slavishly and permitted no deviation from the structural progression of the text. Relevant interests of the learners were generally ignored.

Stern (1983, p.468) said that

The audio-visual method is open to two major criticisms. Like the direct method, from which much of its pedagogy derives, it has difficulties in conveying meaning; the visual filmstrip image is no guarantee that the meaning of the utterance is not misinterpreted by the learner. The equivalences between utterances and visual images is often theoretically questionable, and presents practical difficulties. The other criticism that can be made is that
the rigid teaching sequences imposed by this method are based on an entirely unproved assumption about learning sequences.

To summarise: the emphasis in TEACL through methods related to an empiricist approach to language learning is on giving students sufficient practice and forming habits to memorise the syntactical structure of the language. The learner is a passive listener and the teacher is considered to be the implanter of knowledge to be memorised by rote learning. Though these methods have been severely criticised by linguists, educationalists and students, they are still in practice generally, and particularly in Pakistan.

C.5 METHODS RELATED TO THE RATIONALIST APPROACH

As mentioned earlier, the rationalist approach was associated with cognitive psychology. The rationalists believed that to know a language was to be able to create new sentences in the language. To repeat Chomsky's words, "normal linguistic behaviour is stimulus free and innovative" (1966, p.46). If language use is basically innovative, it is only within the bounds of grammaticality (Diller 1978, p.24).

It appeared that if students had considerable knowledge of grammar, they could produce their own sentences through the thinking process. Students not only learn grammatical knowledge but they are sufficiently competent to use it in the context. Therefore learning grammar is an intellectual task which develops creativity among students. Many educationalists including Carroll (1966), Diller (1978), Kamaluddin (1973), and Stern (1983) considered that the grammar-translation method was based on the principles of 'cognitive theory'.
Stern (1983, p.471) said

It [cognitive theory] has also re-discovered valuable features in grammar-translation and in the direct method.

Another linguist, Kamaluddin (1973, p.160) maintained:

The Grammar-Translation Method and the Direct Method have as their philosophical basis the 'rationalist' approach to language and language teaching...

C.5.1 THE GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD

Five hundred years ago, Latin was the most widely studied foreign language, like English is today. In the sixteenth century, French, Italian and English gained importance due to political changes in Europe and gradually these languages superseded Latin which was taught to promote intellectuality through 'mental gymnastics'. Speaking the foreign language was not considered a goal. Students would only read aloud and translate into the mother tongue.

Thus in the nineteenth century the use of mother tongue in TEACL became essential for the translation and explanation of grammatical rules. This was later known as 'the Grammar-Translation method'. Palmer (1921) referred to it as the 'classic method', Dodson (1967) and Diller (1978) called it an 'indirect method'. Bell (1981) referred to it as the 'semi-direct' method. Broughton and his associates (1978) maintained that the grammar-translation method had always neglected the development of the students' listening and speaking skills in the target language.

There is no doubt that this method has not been helpful in developing students' speaking skills to a great extent, but it can be said that it is an effective method in teaching grammatical knowledge of the language.
not through drill but by involving students' thinking process in learning.

C.5.1.1 CRITICISM OF THE GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD

The grammar-translation method has been criticised on the grounds that it laid great emphasis on the acquisition of the rules of grammar by memorisation, whereas grammar should not be a substitute for the teaching of 'receptive' and 'productive' skills. Translation is another activity which dominates the learning process. Lado (1964, p.4) noted that

Translation can be defended as a valuable skill in itself, but not as a substitute for practising the language without recourse to translation, and the description of the grammar of a language has its value to the linguist and to the students, but not as a substitute for language use.

He further went on to note that the

students who devoted years to the study of a foreign language were in most cases unable to use it. They developed a distaste for the language and an inferiority complex about language learning in general. (p.4)

Webb (1974, p.19) asserted that "Its failure is due mainly to the dead vocabulary and dull sentences that remained in the mind of the learners".

Sawwan (1984, p.27) remarked that the

practical application showed that the translation of separate sentences has proven to lack suitable linguistic or situational contexts, other than the artificial situation of the translation exercise...translation as a technique was found to be a difficult task since learners were required to select a single appropriate equivalent from various possibilities especially in the beginning stages.
The advocates of this method claimed that careful translation of complete sentences could help the learner to recall the situation in which that sentence was used. It may not be true that this method was evolved unthinkingly: its history can be traced in teaching Greek to develop the students' mental and intellectual ability which can be associated with the rationalist view of language teaching.

C.5.2 THE GOUIN'S SERIES METHOD

As a reaction to the grammar-translation method, new methods of language teaching were developed by some of the specialists. F. Gouin (1831-1896) was one of the active members of the reform movement which emphasised children's use of language through action to make their meaning clear in describing particular events. This was known as the 'Gouin Series method'. Gouin thinks that language learning is primarily a matter of transforming perception into conception. To him, language acquisition is not a conditioning process in which a person acquires the habit of saying certain things in certain situations, rather, it is a process in which the learner actively goes about trying to organise his perceptions of the world in terms of linguistic concepts.

No doubt, Gouin's Series method provided good insights into students learning a foreign language. Gouin's arguments were similar to Ausubel's (1968) and Novak's (1977) concept of learning. Miller (1962) suggested that words are perceived and remembered more easily when presented in the context of grammatical sentences, rather than when learned in isolation. Gouin (1880, p.16) expressed his views on isolated words: "The word was always as a dead body stretched upon the paper. Its meaning shone not forth under my gaze; I could draw forth neither the idea nor the life." Gouin shared the view of the generative
grammarians that language was rule governed behaviour. But he was reluctant to teach grammar in terms of 'abstract rules'. To him conjugation must be embedded in a child's conceptions rather than on paper. However, Gouin's Series method is not free from criticism. Jespersen (1904, p.137) said "I scarcely think that Gouin's ideas ought to be used for more than such occasional series". Nevertheless, Gouin provided a framework for teaching language in terms of psycholinguistics.

C.5.3 THE DIRECT METHOD

As discussed earlier, the attention of linguists was directed from learning grammatical rules and translation skills towards showing greater interest in developing the oral skills of students and the use of language in a meaningful situation. This interest emerged as a movement. Lado (1964) maintains that "This movement resulted in various individual methods with various names, such as new method, reform method, natural method, and even oral method, but they can all be referred to as direct methods or the direct method" (p.4). In this respect Berlitz's view was more dominant than anyone else's.

The method starts with simple events or objects which may be common to all learners. The learners think and conceptualise the meanings of the events in the target language. Grammar rules do not have to be memorised, but the students learn them in the context. Therefore many linguists [e.g. Hester (1970), Diller (1975), and Kamaluddin (1973)] consider the method to be associated with the rationalist approach. Its advocates believed that students must be taught the functional use of language in order to make them able to communicate in a natural way other than with the help of their mother tongue. Nida (1957) aptly
proposed that it is "...ultimately the best way to acquire a foreign language, for it is the natural way - the way children learn..." (p.27). As far as the mother tongue is concerned, this can be used at the last stage when the teacher considers it to be useful. The method requires competent teachers who have a good command of English. This is not always possible, for example in Pakistan, where teachers are not specialised in a particular way to teach English.

The methods as discussed above aim to teach foreign languages in a natural way based on the principle that language learning is not a matter of habit and conditioning, but a creative process, a rationalistic, cognitive activity rather than a response to a stimulus.

C.6 METHODS RELATED TO HUMANISTIC APPROACH
As the concept of learning has been broadened, psychologists focused their attention on the learner as a whole rather than any one aspect of the learner's entity. The linguists started speaking of the importance of meaning in language study and of a theory of language as a means of communication among human beings as the main function of language learning and language use.

C.6.1 COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING
Since the failure of the audio-lingual approach in the U.S.A. and of situational language teaching or oral approach in the U.K., a new idea developed in the U.K.: the communicative or functional view of language teaching based on a cognitive view of language learning, a humanistic view of education, and a sociocultural view of language. This is a contrast to structural linguistics associated with behaviouristic psychology.
The communicative approach aims to focus on development of communicative proficiency rather than merely on mastery of structures. These views have been presented by its many advocates with some minor differences [Hymes (1972), Halliday (1973), Shaw (1975), Brumfit and Johnson (1979), Littlewood (1981)]. However, those with most influence on communicative language teaching are Canale and Swain (1980) and Van Ek (1986).

The communicative view of language teaching received considerable support in the U.K. and has spread to Europe and the U.S.A.. It is referred to as 'Communicative language teaching' a term which is used more or less simultaneously with the 'rational-functional' approach to language teaching. The approach aims to develop the communicative competence of the learners in the target language along with four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. This method caught the attention of every teacher and linguist anxious to develop classroom practice. However, to date "there is no single text or authority on it, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative" (Richards and Rodgers 1986, p.66)

The advocates of the communicative theory claimed that it enables the learner to realise that since every speech act takes place in a specified social situation, he must be aware of the different components of such a situation (people, place, time and topic) in order to decide the appropriate and acceptable kind of speech he should use in such a situation. Larsen-Freeman (1986) remarked "Since communication is a process, it is insufficient for students simply to have knowledge of target language forms, meanings and functions. Students must be able to apply this knowledge in negotiating meaning" (p.123).
Littlewood (1981, p.1) described "One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language." The theory underlying this approach stresses 'communicative competence'. According to Hymes (1972) a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge of and ability in language. Canale and Swain (1980) described four dimensions of 'communicative competence' - the grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competences. Van Ek (1986) described six dimensions of communicative competence (ability) as the objectives of foreign language teaching: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic, sociocultural and social competence.

C.6.2 THE TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE METHOD

James Asher (1977), a psychologist, developed a method called 'Total Physical Response' [TPR] showing coordination between speech and action. The aim of developing this method was to make students feel free in order to reduce their stress and anxiety. Winitz (1981) referred to this method as 'comprehension approach'. Asher (1977) stated that "most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned through the skilful use of the imperative by the instructor" (p.4). He further maintained that

Abstractions should be delayed until students have internalised a detailed cognitive map of the target language. Abstractions are not necessary for people to decode the grammatical structure of a language. Once students have internalised the code, abstractions can be introduced and explained in the target language.

(pp. 11-12)
One of the characteristics of Asher's method is to teach language through commands in different ways which do not contain any authoritarian behaviour. Asher (1977) maintained that "The commands are given firmly but with gentleness and pleasantness. The kindness, compassion, and consideration of the instructor will be signalled in the tone of voice, posture, and facial expression" (p.56).

The principles involved in Asher's method have much similarity with Gouin's series method. The difference is only that TPR emphasises listening skills before speaking while Gouin considers both skills of equal importance.

Brown (1987, p.164) remarked that "It [TPR] seems to be especially effective in the beginning levels of language proficiency, but then it loses its distinctiveness as learners advance in competence".

C.6.3 COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING

The psychologist, Charles A. Curran, developed a method for language learning which is called 'Community Language Learning' (CLL). This method is strongly influenced by the theory of humanistic psychology of Carl Rogers (1951). The teacher's and learners' traditional role is replaced with 'counsellor' and 'clients' in which teachers encourage students to describe their worlds as they see them. This then helps the teachers to understand the internal frames of reference of the students. Being based on a humanistic approach to language teaching, these techniques can be referred to as 'humanistic techniques' (Moskowitz 1978).
Moskowitz defined humanistic techniques as those that:

blend what the student feels, thinks and knows with what he is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable way of life, self-actualisation and self-esteem are the ideals the exercises pursue. (The techniques) help to build rapport, cohesiveness, and caring that far transcend what is already there... help students to be themselves, to accept themselves, and be proud of themselves... help foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language class.

(Moskowitz 1978, p.2)

One of the advocates of the CLL method, La Forge (1983), maintained that language was a social process. To him "language is people; language is person in contact; language is persons in response" (p.9). One of the characteristic features of this method is that it represents the holistic view of language learning, containing both cognitive and affective domains. Richards and Rodgers (1986) termed this 'whole-person learning'. For Curran (1972), such a situation can be created where teachers and learners are involved in "an interaction - in which both experience a sense of their wholeness". Curran later developed this thought:

As a whole person, we seem to learn best in an atmosphere of personal security. Feeling secure, we are freed to approach the learning situation with the attitude of willingness and openness. Both the learner's and knower's level of security determine the psychological tone of the entire learning experience.

(Curran 1976, p.6)

C.6.4 THE NATURAL METHOD

Tracy Terrell outlined 'a proposal for a 'new' approach to language teaching called the 'Natural approach' (Terrell, 1982). Later Krashen and Terrell (1983) collectively presented the principles and practices of this approach in the form of a book. The approach developed as a result of Krashen and Terrell's work based on the use of language in
communicative situations without recourse to the native language. The Natural approach, according to Krashen and Terrell (1983) "is similar to other communicative approaches being developed today" (p.17). They emphasised the importance of vocabulary and primacy of meaning rather than the production of grammatically perfect utterances and sentences. Larsen-Freeman (1986) noted that in many ways the Natural approach was similar to the Direct method.

C.6.5 THE SILENT WAY METHOD
Caleb Gattegno (1976) invented a new method called 'Silent way' which views learning as a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity, in which the learner is a principal actor rather than a bench-bound listener. Vocabulary is considered to be the central element of language. This method facilitated the student's language learning which is chained in awareness, attention, production, self-correction, and absorption. In the 'silent way' students are expected to become 'independent, autonomous and responsible' (Gattegno 1976). Two of its characteristics are that the students are responsible for their learning and that they learn at their own pace.

C.6.6 THE PLAY WAY METHOD
The play way method has been referred to as an old method but it can be related to humanistic psychology. This method aims to reduce the students' tension through play and participating in activities. Haq (1975,p.86) said

In a formal kind of instruction the child has to apply himself hard; he has to memorise alone or do drill-work. But when he is engaged in a playway activity, he is in the midst of a hilarious atmosphere where work is play and play is work.
Among other devices, drama, group activities, debates, declamation contests, mock assemblies, projects etc are considered to be important in the method through which the students can learn affectively.

C.6.7 THE SUGGESTOPEDIA

The suggestopedia is a new method developed by Georgi Lozanov. This method makes use of dialogues, situations, and translation to present and practise language, and in particular, it makes use of music, visual images, and relaxation exercises to make learning more comfortable and effective. The pedagogical applications are derived from suggestology. One of the characteristics of this method is the centrality of music and musical rhythm in learning.

Its originator claimed that "There is no sector of public life where suggestology would not be useful" (Lozanov 1978, p.2). The teachers must be specialised to teach through this method by acting according to the principles of suggestology. Stevick (1976) remarked that "The precise ways of using voice quality, intonation, and timing are apparently both important and intricate" (p.157). Though this method emphasises the memorisation of the vocabulary, this learning by memorisation is different from conventional methods.
The methods discussed above with reference to humanistic psychology and the communicative view of language learning reveal that the learner has to play a central role in learning. He is responsible for his learning. He learns what he likes. Communicative competence in general is considered as a language learning goal.

In summary, I have tried to describe and evaluate the variety of methods for TEACL in an objective way, although the reader may be able to perceive my own personal preference, based on experience and research, for the humanist methods. However, as the research in my main thesis illuminates, any method cannot be expected to be successful unless it is supported by appropriate teacher training [pre- and in-service], and by relating conducive environmental conditions. Suggestions about how these could be attained are discussed in Chapter 4 of the main thesis.
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