English Language Teaching:
Theory, Research and Pedagogy

Naziha Ali Raza
Christine Coombe *Editors*

English Language Teaching in Pakistan

English Language Teaching: Theory, Research and Pedagogy

Series Editor

Christine Coombe, Higher Colleges of Technology, Dubai Men's College, Dubai, United Arab Emirates

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Foreword

English Language Teaching in Pakistan: Theory, Research and Pedagogy is a treasure trove for all who are involved in enhancing the quality of education especially in the sphere of teaching English as a second language in developing countries.

English as the international lingua franca is a valuable asset for all speakers for instrumental reasons, especially for accessing higher education and employment opportunities. Despite the varied views of sociolinguists and language planners on the status and role of English in the official and educational spheres, it is widely recognized that fluency in English is necessary albeit the type and level would vary as per learners' language needs.

The book is an excellent addition to the field as it provides insights into the local and national ELT context of Pakistan. The key to socio-economic development of countries in contemporary times is knowledge exchange and inter-connectivity. This book is thus invaluable in presenting the Pakistani perspective with regard to ELT in the international arena. The editors, Dr. Christine Coombe and Dr. Naziha Ali Raza, equipped with expertise and experience in Applied Linguistics have deftly compiled a book that provides a holistic view of all aspects of ELT in Pakistan. The chapters of the book provide a critical analysis of major areas in teacher education ranging from continuous professional development, to language planning, and curriculum reform. Authored by reputed academics and research scholars, the selected chapters in the book are a valuable resource for all English language teachers.

I strongly recommend this handbook to all stakeholders: language policy planners, heads of educational institutions, English language teachers, research scholars, and curriculum developers to ensure high quality in their ELT courses and the professional development of their faculty.

Lahore, Pakistan

Prof. Dr. Sabiha Mansoor
Professor of English, Lahore School of Economics
Vice Chancellor Lahore College for Women University (Former)

Acknowledgements

Since this book was originally conceptualized in 2018, it has been informed by the help of many English language teaching professionals and academics both from inside and outside of Pakistan. Gratitude is extended to Sabiha Mansoor, Zakia Sarwar, and Liz England for their encouragement and kind words in the foreword and endorsements.

We thank our contributors for demonstrating the highest levels of professionalism from the earliest stages of this publication to its final stages. They have been willing to devote large amounts of time, patience, and cooperation throughout the entire publication process.

To the anonymous reviewers, we thank you for your careful reading of this manuscript and your great attention to detail. Any errors, however, remain our own.

We would like to thank our editors at Springer, Ramesh Kumaran and Satvinder Kaur, for their patience and guidance throughout the process.

An important acknowledgement is extended to Dr. Dina Khan whose invaluable support steered our initial efforts of teacher development in Pakistan and to Hafeez Ur Rehman who strove to launch these efforts as well as drive them forward as our local support in Pakistan. It is these arduous efforts that formed the foundation from which the idea of this publication emerged.

Finally, we would like to express gratitude to Mr. Ali Raza Jafri, who worked tirelessly all his life to give back to his fellow Pakistanis through his charitable foundation, the ARJ Trust, supporting not only teachers but also his compatriots in the city of Wazirabad. It is to Mr. Jafri that this book is dedicated along with the late Mr. Carl Coombe whom we sadly lost during the period that this volume was under review and who would have been incredibly proud of this being Christine's 53rd publication. And, lastly, to our families who put up with our increasingly busy schedules in order to meet the timelines associated with this publication.

Praise for English Language Teaching in Pakistan

'Liz England, Ph.D., Principal, Liz England & Associates, LLC

Having worked closely with teacher researchers in Pakistan both face to face and online since her first visit in 2006, Dr. Liz England offers the following endorsement for this valuable new volume:

In times of extraordinary challenge and in line with a standing commitment to teacher education that includes an emphasis on research (in both pre- and in-service programs), Pakistan's English language teachers continue to conduct research in these challenging times, as they have for decades. Based mostly on their classroom experiences, contributors to this first volume on the topic clearly represent the breadth and depth of that commitment to research. Of value to a wide range of teacher researchers and policy makers, the chapters provide a long overdue and welcomed collection. Contents are useful to those studying related topics in Pakistan and elsewhere worldwide as well—international education policy, the role of English as a social and professional communication tool, teacher education, teacher identity, and multilingualism in Pakistan.

The book includes in-depth analyses and essential detail on these topics that have particular impact on learners of all ages and needs and teachers at all stages of their career paths in Pakistan: continuing professional development, identity construction, language policy, curriculum reform, writing instruction, contextual pedagogy and methodology and innovation.

Analyzing the ways in which teachers can do now and will in the future contributes to evidence-based learning and teaching in Pakistan, a country where education and language learning and teaching have occupied an important part of home, school, and professional life since the country's founding in 1947. The publication of this book is overdue and eagerly anticipated by all of us who have been fortunate to have come to love that country and admire its language teacher researchers.'

—Liz England, Ph. D. (she/her), *Consultant TESOL and ESL Principal, Liz England and Associates, LLC*

Recent Book

'This publication is a welcome addition to the field of applied linguistics, research, and ELT methodology, especially because it solidly focuses on the ground realities, as they exist in Pakistan. Unfortunately, Pakistan is still one of those countries where the literature/language controversy has not been completely resolved and ELT, Applied Linguistics, and its research traditions are yet to gain full legitimacy.

Under this scenario, the quality research articles in this book identify crucial ELT issues and contribute to providing a solid base for future planning and development of English language methodology in the country, which will have relevance across the board. It will also provide a window to the ELT community nationally and internationally, not just in Pakistan, but also in many other countries, which have similar teaching learning environments.

As editors, Dr. Naziha Ali Raza and Dr. Christine Coombe have done a commendable job in putting together articles on a rich variety of important topics. To name just a few, the research-based articles deal with continuous professional development, teacher identities and identity construction, analysis of English as it is used in Pakistani universities, issues in legitimizing localized English, mediated learning in exam-oriented environments, besides chapters which take an analytical look at language policies and curriculum reforms and its impact on teachers. The issues dealt with are extremely relevant for not only policy makers and researchers but also for teacher educators and classroom practitioners.

This book will be a valuable resource to the ELT community as it presents well-researched articles which give fresh insights into the teaching and learning of English especially in developing countries.'

—Zakia Sarwar (Prof.), *Honorary Executive Director & Founder, Society of Pakistan English Language Teachers (SPELT)*

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Naziha Ali Raza (EdD TESOL, University of Exeter) is an English Language Instructor associated with the General Civil Aviation Authority in Dubai, UAE. She has previously worked at the Emirates Aviation College in Dubai for 13 years as a Learning & Development Specialist in the Corporate English Language Skills Department. Naziha has also worked in Pakistan as the Director of Faculty Development at institutions such Lahore University of Management Sciences (School of Education) and The City School Network, Lahore. Her contributions include teacher development in areas such as pedagogy, research, English language skills, academic writing, programme evaluation and training policy development. She actively volunteers in teachers' associations such as TESOL International, IATEFL and TESOL Gulf. Her current areas of interest include teacher professionalism, continuous professional development and evaluation. Naziha is the co-editor of this volume along with Christine Coombe.

Christine Coombe has a Ph.D. in Foreign/Second Language Education from The Ohio State University. She is currently Associate Professor of General Studies at Dubai Men's College, Former Testing and Measurements Supervisor at UAE University, and Assessment Coordinator at Zayed University. She is Co-author of A Practical Guide to Assessing English Language Learners (2007, University of Michigan Press) and Co-editor of Assessment Practices (2003, TESOL Publications); Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness in EF/SL Contexts (2007, UMP); Language Teacher Research in the Middle East (2007, TESOL Publications); Leadership in English Language Teaching and Learning (2008, UMP); Applications of Task-based Learning in TESOL (2010, TESOL Publications); The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Assessment (2012, Cambridge University Press); Reigniting, Retooling and Retiring in English Language Teaching (2012, University of Michigan Press); The Cambridge Guide to Research in Language Teaching and Learning (Cambridge

University Press, 2015); and Volume 8 of the TESOL Encyclopedia of ELT (Wiley-Blackwell, 2018). Her forthcoming books are on innovation in the MENA, international perspectives on language teaching associations and professionalism in education.

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Chapter 1
Volume Introduction: English Language Teaching in Pakistan: Theory, Research, and Pedagogy

Naziha Ali Raza and Christine Coombe

Abstract Since the conceptualization of this book some 3 years ago, much research has been conducted and published on various topics within the Pakistani context. There has been a re-examination of the place and role of English and its prominence in the world, in general, and in Pakistan, in particular. This volume is a compilation of chapters related to all aspects of teaching, learning, assessment, and teacher training in Pakistan and in Pakistani institutions around the world. Chapters in the publication feature the latest research in English language teaching, learning and assessment, empirical developments, and major professional development initiatives from all over Pakistan. Considering that contributions are included from all levels of the educational spectrum including primary, secondary, higher education, and adult or vocational education, the work is aimed at English language teachers, assessors, researchers, and academics interested in gaining insight into the practice of ELT in Pakistan.

Introduction

This publication is a unique collection of research carried out by English Language Teaching (ELT) professionals mostly of Pakistani origin who have taught and/or are currently teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) to Pakistani learners or have some professional association with the context. The volume is intended to showcase academic work done by teachers and researchers working both in and outside the Pakistani context and in the field of ELT worldwide. It encompasses an interesting collection of chapters on areas such as continuing professional development, identity construction, language policy, curriculum reform, ESL writing, contextual pedagogy and methodology and, innovative approaches in ELT

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in Pakistan which for the purposes of this volume represent the major trends in ELT research conducted in Pakistan.

Why There is a Need for This Book

The present volume is intended as a contribution to the knowledge base of English language teaching, learning, and assessment as well as teacher training and development in Pakistan. It is based on our view that English language teachers and teacher trainers have a huge number of issues and questions surrounding them in their classrooms and educational contexts and more often than not turn to research to answer these questions, solve these problems, and address these challenges.

The inspiration for this book came about through many years of observing language teachers in training and practicing language teachers in Pakistan who were seeking to learn more about the effectiveness of their teaching practice. In a similar vein, there is a need for multiple publication vehicles to showcase some of the multi and varied research coming out of the ELT context in Pakistan.

Themes Addressed Within the Volume

English Language Teaching in Pakistan: Theory, Research, and Pedagogy consists of seven main sections, each highlighting an aspect of theoretical, empirical, or pedagogical advancement by the authors which represent the major themes coming out of the ELT landscape with both Pakistani teachers and learners. The 20 chapters featured in this volume address the emerging trends of Part I: Continuing Professional Development; Part II: Identity Construction; Part III: Language Policies in ELT in Pakistan; Part IV: Curriculum Reform; Part V: Writing Skills; Part VI: Contextual Pedagogy and Methodology; and Part VII: Innovative Approaches.

Part I: Continuing Professional Development

The three chapters in Part I focus on an emerging trend in Pakistan, namely, the continuing professional development of both pre-service and in-service teachers.

In Chap. 2, 'Teacher Development through Outreach Programs', by volume co-editors, **Naziha Ali Raza, Christine Coombe,** and **Peter Davidson**, the groundwork for the book is laid through examining what is meant by teacher training and development. This chapter documents the journey of professional development undertaken by the authors along with a group of ELT professionals who were at the time resident in the United Arab Emirates. It highlights how effective collaboration can positively impact teacher development beyond geographical borders, the need for mid-career

teachers to step forward and initiate the professional development of teachers in under-resourced contexts which can become a vehicle for their own Continuous Professional Development (CPD) in innovative ways, and the legitimacy of outreach CPD as a service to the profession.

In Chap. 3, 'ELT, Teacher Education, and the EMI context in Pakistan', **Shazia Nawaz Awan** explores ELT and teacher education in both public and privately owned primary and secondary schools in the Pakistani province of Punjab. The author explores existing ELT practices in the English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) context, the professional profiles of both English language and subject-specific teachers, and their pre- and in-service professional development. Strategies and techniques are proposed that can be used in the EMI context of Pakistan with the intention to introduce collaborative training and CPD for both English language and subject-specific teachers in the EMI contexts. The ensuing discussion raises implications for existing English language policies, the curriculum being taught, and the integration of subject-specific content into English language and teacher education in EMI contexts.

In Chap. 4, 'Foreign Professional Development Programs in Pakistan', **Shazia Humayun** explores the perceptions about foreign professional development held by different stakeholders at a private K12 educational institution in Pakistan. In her chapter, Humayan employs situated learning theory to trace the history of foreign professional development that teachers, school heads, and administrators in the context have undergone. The study reveals the need to develop teacher development content in collaboration with stakeholders if it is to bridge the knowledge gap associated with practice within the context. It is an eye-opener with implications for better planning, implementation, and evaluation of foreign professional development programs that are a popular feature in educational organizations in Pakistan.

Part II: Identity Construction

Identity construction is the major focus of the two chapters in Part II.

In Chap. 5, 'Identity Construction among Tertiary Teachers in Pakistan', **Shagufta Moghal** provides insight into how developing countries such as Pakistan cope with the rapidly changing demands of contemporary professional environments which necessitate the construction of fluid and flexible self-identities among teachers. The author reflects on the process of narrative inquiry that enables teachers in such contexts to (actively and reflexively) construct and understand their identities as well as the factors that shape and influence their personal and professional identities. This chapter provides insight into how administrators and policy makers in the Pakistani tertiary education context may facilitate teachers' awareness of the process of identity construction and provide the necessary support for new practitioners in tertiary educational contexts.

In Chap. 6, titled ‘Non-Native Teacher Identity in Saudi Universities’, **Mubina Rauf** discusses a recurrent issue of debate and research in the world of TESOL—the professional identity of Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNEST). She reports on a study that was conducted with the intention of gaining insight into the perspectives of NNESTs about their professional identities in an expanding circle country (Saudi Arabia). The context of this study is the Intensive English Programme in state universities where Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTs) are currently employed in majority. In constructing a narrative of NNESTs’ experiences at their workplace, the author reveals that NNESTs’ perceptions of their professional identities are based on factors such as their personal and educational background, financial discrimination at work, job uncertainty, constant interaction with NESTs, and the resulting influence on their personalities. The study is a step forward in the direction of identifying steps that could reduce the NEST-NNEST dichotomy.

Part III: Language Policy

Chapters in Part III center around language policies related to English language teaching contexts in Pakistan.

In Chap. 7, ‘English in Pakistani Universities: An Analysis of Linguistic Features’, **Humaira Irfan** reveals how English has gradually arisen in uses and forms that diverge from a single standard because there are multiple Englishes within and across cultural discourse practices. She notes how previous studies see the non-native variety of English as passing through three phases where in the first phase, the very existence of the local variety is not recognized; in the second, it is considered sub-standard; and in the third, it is gradually accepted as the norm (Kachru, 1985). Research on Pakistani English (PakE) is likely to indicate that it is in the process of evolution. It is this evolution of the features of PakE that the author examines in the context of universities, particularly in lexis and grammar. Among the notable characteristics she identifies are innovative vocabulary; distinctive use or non-use of articles; interrogative word order in indirect questions; the use of the present continuous tense in contexts where other varieties would use the simple present tense; altered use of phrasal and prepositional verbs; and the use of adjectives as adverbs.

In Chap. 8, **Kashif Raza** believes that despite adopting English as an official language, Pakistan has never had a documented ‘English-in-education’ policy which makes it interesting to observe how the country’s education system has survived over the years. In his chapter titled, ‘Pakistan’s English in Education Policy: A Study of Drawbacks’, Raza discusses the status of Pakistan’s ‘English-in-education’ policy and the challenges faced in its development. More specifically, he discusses the drawbacks of not having such a policy, and presents a critique of the reforms, proposals, and suggestions offered by the government, researchers, policy makers, and public figures. The author also explores the reasons why all attempts to date have failed to satisfy the key stakeholders.

The authors in Chap. 9, **Akhtar Abbas, Tehsin Zahra,** and **Wasima Shehzad,** entitled 'Issues and Challenges in Legitimizing Localized English: A Critical Reappraisal of Native Speakerism in Pakistan', critique the rethinking of nativeness (Aneja, 2016) and *nativizing non(nativeness)* in localized English language contexts revealing that this has resulted in dialogue among language experts on World Englishes in the global linguistic milieu. They claim that there are now new discussions on different dimensions of this *native fallacy* which challenge the standardized models of English language especially in the pedagogical context. While English in Pakistan is used as a second language mostly in formal contexts, there are issues and challenges associated with legitimizing local variants of the language. The authors highlight the status of Pakistani variants of English language at the levels of *use, the user,* and *the mode of use*. They assert that there is a need to explore and classify the contemporary genres in practice in order to determine the scope of Pakistani variants of English language and their usage by Pakistanis both locally and globally. There is a recommendation for experts to focus on the development of written and spoken corpora in academic, legal, political, media, cyber, workplace, and medical discourses that can pave the way for a strong footing towards the establishment of a common Pakistani variant.

Part IV: Curriculum Reform

Chapters in Part IV focus on curriculum reform at the tertiary level from the perspectives of English language teachers and faculty members.

Chapter 10, 'English Language Curriculum Development in Pakistani Universities', reports on a study that investigates the four components essential to effective curriculum design in higher education programs: needs analysis, situational analysis, materials development, and evaluation. Chapter authors, **Humaira Irfan, Bushra Ahmed Khurram,** and **Yasir Hussain,** conducted qualitative interviews of English language teachers employed at a large public university which revealed that the curriculum committees in university settings develop and design their program without formal need analysis, situational analysis, or evaluation of materials. The authors also highlight the view that existing curricula and course content that is implemented in Pakistani universities do not develop academic rationalism, critical thinking, and cultural pluralism, thus failing to cater to the needs of a diverse audience. It is also seen as limiting in terms of social justice needs of English education that should be fundamentally acknowledged by empowering the learners. There is a strong recommendation to incorporate the critical feedback received from various English language courses into the development of university taught course content.

Chapter 11, 'The Reality of Change: Teachers' Perceptions about Curriculum Reform in Pakistan', revolves around the complexity of the multifaceted process of curriculum change. Considering the importance of teachers' contribution in the process of change, this study by **Farwa Hussain Shah** explores the English language curriculum change in undergraduate courses that was introduced by the Pakistani

government in 2010. Data collected through semi-structured interviews with English language lecturers in public sector colleges revealed that, despite the optimism towards change, the lecturers considered curriculum change impractical due to lack of implementation planning. There was skepticism regarding its sustainability due to political and economic instability at the time. In addition, lecturers felt marginalized in the process of decision-making and found themselves unprepared to take up this challenge. The study highlights numerous critical issues such as the importance of the implementation stage of a new curriculum, and the often ignored role of teachers in decision-making about educational reform. It also confirms the significance of teacher education and preparedness for the success of any curriculum change.

Part V: ESL Writing

The four chapters in Part V focus on research on writing skills done in a variety of educational contexts conducted both in and outside of Pakistan.

In Chap. 12, 'ESL Writing Courses: Perspectives of Pakistani Graduates at a University in the United States', **Iftikhar Haider** reports on a study that explores the learning experiences of Pakistani graduates studying in a US university and their perceptions about the effectiveness of ESL writing courses that they are enrolled in. Data collected through an online survey and interviews with participating students and course instructors helped examine how different mediums of instruction influence participants' perceptions about ESL writing courses. The study reveals that the varying educational backgrounds of Pakistani students affect their proficiency in the English language which leads them to develop different perceptions about ESL courses offered in a non-Pakistani context.

Chapter authors, **Ameena Hassan** and **Akhtar Abbas**, in Chap. 13, 'The Impact of Written Corrective Feedback on Second Language Composition in English', reflect on the recent growing interest in investigating the effects of written corrective feedback in the field of English as a Second Language (ESL). Their study analyzes the effects of four types of written feedback on errors made by ESL college students in using 'articles' and 'the simple past tense'. In their 6-week-long study, the authors investigated the effect of: (a) direct feedback, (b) indirect feedback, (c) direct/indirect feedback with written and oral meta-linguistic feedback, and (d) no feedback. Their investigation revealed a considerably positive impact of the combination of direct/indirect and meta-linguistic feedback on ESL students' writing composition, thus supporting earlier research in other contexts.

Chapter 14, entitled 'Prepositional Errors among Undergraduate ESL Learners in Pakistan', by **Haroon Shafique** and **Rashed Mahmood** explores error analysis, an important field of research in countries such as Pakistan where English is taught as a second language. The authors through a mixed methods research study examine the prepositional errors found in English language writing assignments of undergraduate students at the University of Lahore, Gujarat campus. Corder's (1973) model of error analysis is used to identify prepositional errors with a concentration on the

use of prepositions of time, place, direction, and phrasal prepositions among ESL learners. In addition to identifying prepositional errors, the study also looks at the extent and inclination of prepositional errors among learners. Through the analysis of 100 written tests administered to undergraduate students, the study highlights the identification, description, categorization, and explanation of errors emerging from the analyzed data. Findings reveal that L2 learners frequently commit prepositional errors when using the 'preposition of place', while the dominant prepositional errors are interlingual. The study recommends the need for discovering new teaching strategies to teach tricky or challenging areas in ESL such as prepositions.

The action research that appears in Chap. 15, 'Using Portfolios to Formatively Assess the Writing Skills of Undergraduate ESL/EFL Students'**,** traces the development of a portfolio model for formative assessment in a remedial writing skills course. Through a small-scale research study at a private institute of higher education in Karachi, the author attempts to gain insight into the various ways in which portfolios are used along with the associated benefits and challenges. In this chapter, **Rabail Qayyum** reports on the benefits of portfolios which emerged from a thematic analysis of data collected from multiple sources. Findings revealed that portfolios enhanced the writing abilities of students helping them produce better organized paragraphs with clearer sentences, encouraging them to cite evidence for arguments, and enabling them to demonstrate awareness of metacognitive strategies. Portfolios also allowed students to develop a focus on critical thinking skills rather than merely reproducing content knowledge that fostered creativity. The chapter concludes with pedagogical suggestions for improving the portfolio model along with recommendations for stakeholders.

Part VI: Contextual Pedagogy and Methodology

Contextual pedagogy and methodology in ELT are the emerging trends of both of the chapters represented in this section.

Chapter 16, 'English Language Learning Strategies in Higher Secondary Education', outlines the undeniable importance of English in the educational system of Pakistan, both as a medium of instruction and the language of the Internet. The authors, **Asma Shahid Kazi, Hafiz Muhammad Iqbal,** and **Shagufta Moghal**, assert that it is imperative for students to be aware of the various Language Learning Strategies (LLS), both inside the classroom and outside it. While extensive research has been conducted internationally regarding the use and awareness of second language learning strategies, there is little evidence of such research in Pakistan. The chapter thus provides an overview of the use of English LLS in the Pakistani higher secondary school context, followed by an analysis of the metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective LLS for similarities and differences among higher secondary (matriculation) students of commerce, sciences, and humanities. The authors refer to a multitude of learner variables that influence the frequency, choice, and mastery of LLS. These include age, gender, grade, choice of academic majors, public/private

sector schooling, learner mother tongue, years of formal English education at school, learners' medium of instruction at the secondary or matriculation level, and exposure to English outside the classroom. Awareness of these variables is expected to help curriculum designers and teachers to develop an understanding of learners' preferred LLS in order to support and develop informed courses that improve English language learning in higher secondary schools in Pakistan.

In Chap. 17, 'Mediated Learning in an Exam-oriented Environment', **Naziha Ali Raza** investigates the awareness and practice of mediated learning as reported by EFL teachers at a Pakistani high school in the UAE. Her study also reports on the views of high school students on the importance of EFL teachers playing the role of mediators within the classroom as well as the actual practice of facilitated learning experienced by students. Using a mixed methods framework, the views of 4 sections of grade 11 female students (16–18 years) were investigated and compared with those of 9 high school EFL teachers. The study is based on Feuerstein' 12 key aspects of mediation and their presence or absence in the EFL classroom as perceived by participants and with regard to the cultural context of the study. While results show some similarity between the importance given to aspects of mediation, there are differences between actual practice of teachers as reported by students and the way in which teachers view their own practice thereby raising implications for the need to recruit trained teachers and/or provide them with on-the-job continuous professional development.

Part VII: Innovative Approaches

The final section of this volume describes research on innovative approaches in ELT in Pakistan.

In her case study in Chap. 18, 'Improving ELT through Process Enneagram—A Design Research Project', **Rabail Qayyum** reports on a design research model that she implemented at a small private school in Karachi. Design research is a novel way of conducting research that shares some of its characteristics with ethnographic and action research traditions. It employs Process Enneagram, which is an innovative tool that was designed by Richard Knowles in 1992 to understand how organizations operate as living systems (Knowles, 2006). The author implemented Process Enneagram in the context with the intention of improving the teaching and learning of grade nine students in an English class while exploring alternative learning spaces. While the process revealed some weaknesses of the learning system such as poor use of technology and library resources or administering only close-ended tests for language assessment; it also revealed community spirit as a major strength. Using multiple data sources such as interviews, observations, field notes, and photographs, the study reveals how specific interventions introduced even on a small scale can yield positive changes. In this case, these outcomes included increased involvement of students, positive role of the main teacher, and deeper insights of the teacher-researcher into the use of technology. Design research thus implies promise in bridging the research-practice chasm.

In Chap. 19, ‘EFL Teaching and CALL in Higher Education in Pakistan’, the author **Abida Ayesha** provides insight into an exclusive project launched by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan in 2004—The English Language Teaching Reforms (ELTR), which was started on the recommendation of the National Committee on English to assess the state of ELT in higher education in the country. The empirical study in this chapter investigates the impact of the ELTR project on the practices and attitudes of the large number of English language teachers in higher education institutions who received CALL training as part of the nation-wide project. The findings of the study suggest an overall positive attitude towards the integration of technology with traditional ELT teaching practices while also highlighting some challenges and guidelines for future practice and research.

Fariha Asif and **Intakhab Alam Khan**, the authors of Chap. 20, ‘The Eclectic Approach in Teaching for Communication’, document a study that investigates the effectiveness of the eclectic approach in teaching English for communication and for social interaction. Through the analysis of findings from a questionnaire administered to graduate students and their teachers, the authors identify effective ways of teaching functional communication using communicative activities that are part of the eclectic approach. Findings reveal that in comparison to other techniques, the eclectic approach is very effective in teaching communicative functions such as presentations, dialogues, and role plays. The approach also proved to motivate students in not only learning the rules but also in using them to communicate with others.

Chapter 21 and last chapter in this volume, entitled ‘Language Pedagogy: An Evaluation of Oral Communication Skills Materials in Secondary School ELT Books in Pakistan’, evaluates the Oral Communication Skills (OCS) materials presented in two prominent English language coursebooks that are used in grade 10 classes of state and private schools in Pakistan, respectively. The author, **Saima Nomaan**, provides both a *first glance* and *in-depth* evaluation (McGrath, 2002) of the two coursebooks used in this study to investigate the presence or absence of a balance among the four language skills materials; the suitability and effectiveness of the coursebooks; and the similarities or differences among the two textbooks. It emerges that the coursebook used in private schools is superior in terms of defining and specifying its aims and objectives, content, and the inclusion and presentation of OCS materials. The author concludes with suggestions aimed at improving the English OCS pedagogy in secondary schools in Pakistan.

Conclusion

Research is and has always been a key consideration in the development of knowledge in our field. What we have tried to do with this volume, replete with 20 chapters on empirically based studies conducted in the Pakistani context on a variety of ELT and teacher training and development, is to provide a snapshot of the current knowledge base in ELT in Pakistan. We hope that in some way the volume contributes towards a

more developed sense of the current state of research in English language teaching, learning, and assessment and the provision of training and development for teachers of English both inside and outside the country. This volume is offered as a record of where research in these areas is right now.

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Part I
Continuing Professional Development

Chapter 2
Teacher Development Through Outreach Programs

Naziha Ali Raza, Christine Coombe, and Peter Davidson

Abstract This chapter reports on a Continuous Professional Development (CPD) trek into the urban and rural terrains of Pakistan (Raza, N. A. (September–October, 2017). Pakistan Diaries. IATEFL Voices, Issue 258, pp 6–7. ISSN 2412–6578). It documents the journey of professional development undertaken by a group of English language teaching professionals who were all at the time resident in the United Arab Emirates. The chapter also highlights how effective collaboration can positively impact teacher development beyond geographical borders, the need for mid-career teachers to step forward and initiate the professional development of teachers in under-resourced contexts which can become a vehicle for their own CPD in innovative ways, and the legitimacy of outreach CPD as a service to the profession.

Keywords Continuous professional development · Outreach professional development · Teacher development

Introduction

Teacher development has remained a key aspect of the professional lives of English language faculty in higher education in the United Arab Emirates considering that higher education institutions and the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MOHESR) in the UAE expect faculty employed to be continually engaged in research and development. An extension of the personal professional development

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of teachers who are experienced in their art is that of facilitating the development of other colleagues and peers who are in need of it.

In the United Arab Emirates, for almost 23 years, the professional development of teachers was made possible through TESOL Arabia, a voluntary teachers' association formed by mid-career teachers employed in higher education institutions in the UAE. This association filled the need for a professional learning network that also formed affiliations with teachers' associations in other Middle Eastern, Asian, and Western regions. Forming such affiliations exposed members of TESOL Arabia (who were English language teachers in a variety of contexts in the UAE) to other ELT contexts, cultures, and teachers' associations.

One benefit of this exposure was the interest among ELT professionals worldwide to collaborate with teachers in other contexts and to learn from them. TESOL Arabia being in an academically, geographically, and culturally strategic location in the UAE and with its inclusion of multicultural expatriates conveniently filled in this gap. Its annual conference attracted ELT professionals from not only the Middle East but also from Europe, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

The outreach project documented in this chapter evolved out of affiliations formed by members of TESOL Arabia who employed concerted voluntary efforts towards supporting teacher development firstly in the UAE, then the Middle East, and finally through formal outreach efforts in countries such as Pakistan. Primary stakeholders in the project include Dr. Naziha Ali Raza (*Past President TESOL Arabia)*, Dr. Christine Coombe (*Past President TESOL International and TESOL Arabia Testing Special Interest Group Co-Chair*), and Hafeez Rehman (*Past TESOL Arabia Executive Council Member*).

Teacher Development, Professional Development, or Continuous Professional Development?

Kampen (2019) views teacher professional development as any type of continuing education effort for or by educators which can improve their skills and, as a result, boost student outcomes, thereby being instrumental in improving classroom instruction and student achievement (Cohen & Hill, 2000 as cited in Yoon et al., 2007). Villegas-Reimers (2003:11) considers professional development as 'the development of a person in his or her professional role'. More specifically, it is 'the professional growth that a teacher achieves as a result of gaining experience and examining his or her own teaching systematically' (Glatthorn, 1995:41 as cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:11).

Maggioli (2004:26 as cited in Maggioli, 2020) refers to continuous professional development (CPD) as, 'a career-long process during which teachers hone their knowledge and skills about teaching and their discipline'. The terms 'teacher development', 'professional development', and 'continuous professional development' are interchangeably used and there is no real consensus over a fixed definition of the

term in the literature (Maggioli, 2020). Regardless of the definitions, it is clear that CPD is a never-ending process that evolves over time in a continuous search for ways of becoming progressively competent at teaching so as to better support learners.

CPD, therefore, refers to 'all the activities in which teachers engage during the course of a career which are designed to enhance their work' (Day & Sachs, 2004:3). These activities are generally innovative and associated with performing better in the context in which the teachers operate (Jafri, 2012). Harwell (2003: v) refers to professional development as, not an event but as, a process that 'can succeed only in settings, or contexts that support it'. Hence, CPD needs to be effective enough to help teachers learn and refine the pedagogies that are required to support students in learning the increasingly complex skills that they need to for further education and work in the twenty-first century (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017).

Why Engage in Continuous Professional Development?

It is no exaggeration to state that CPD is a commitment to learners, one that requires some element of sustainability. Maggioli (2020) perceives CPD as a key characteristic of professionals that not only enhances knowledge, skills, and dispositions, but also helps teachers acquire traits that identify them as members of their profession. It allows them to keep up to date with ongoing developments in the teaching profession, implement innovations in their classrooms to significantly enhance the way students learn, and as a result to also improve their own motivation.

Ingvarson et al. (2004:23, as cited in Doig & Groves, 2011:78), suggest that student outcomes and teachers' development are reciprocal in that 'the more successfully students learn, the more likely it is that the teacher will adopt practices that encourage further successful learning'. Richardson & Maggioli (2018:6), thus, rightly summarize that '…teacher learning through CPD results in deeper and more nuanced understanding of these learners', which allows teachers to adapt their teaching to be more in line with their learners' needs. To this effect, Maggioli (2020) highlights there is also evidence of positive effects of CPD on teachers' identity and agency leading to increased levels of autonomous decision-making.

What Makes Continuous Professional Development Effective?

Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) define effective professional development as structured professional learning that is driven by the need to extend and renew teacher practice, skills, and beliefs, and is seen to result in changed teaching practices that lead to improvements in student learning outcomes. These may stem from the need for

curriculum change, the use of new classroom technology, advancements in pedagogy, or current situations as have arisen from the COVID-19 pandemic.

Needs Based

CPD is most effective when teachers have a say in what learning is organized so that it reflects their needs and empowers them (Higgins et al., 2015 in Maggioli, 2020).

Enhances Knowledge and Practice

Effective CPD advances teachers' understanding of effective instructional strategies based on research that can be evidenced in more focused classroom practices.

Includes Active Learning and Reflection

Active learning allows teachers to design and try out teaching strategies that incorporate the same style of learning that they are designing for their students (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017) whereas reflection helps teachers reframe their views of their own teaching practice and that of their students (Maggioli, 2020).

Content Focused

It is aligned with academic content standards, student achievement standards, and assessments advocated by the state (The No Child Left Behind Act, 2001), so that it helps teachers develop teaching strategies associated with specific curriculum content and supports teacher learning within their classroom contexts (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). Content-focused CPD helps teachers develop subject-matter expertise and helps them actively engage students in developing new understandings (Cohen et al., 2002 in Kedzior & Fifield, 2004).

Sustained

Teacher learning is most impactful when it is beyond the one-shot workshop or event and includes opportunities for teachers to engage with their subject matter, make coherent connections with their daily work (Kedzior & Fifield, 2004), and explore

new techniques through support within their context (Maggioli, 2020). It should also allow teachers a reasonable amount of time to assimilate changes in their practice (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017).

Evaluated for Impact

CPD is most impactful when it is regularly evaluated for how it affects teacher effectiveness and student achievement (Yoon et al., 2007). It teaches teachers to 'become evaluators of their own impact' (Richardson & Maggioli, 2018:8) and equips them to actively seek feedback on the effect of their teaching.

Socially Constructed

Maggioli (2020) also highlights peer collaboration for constructing new understandings as part of effective professional development. A current example of peer collaboration is evidenced in the communities of learning that have emerged as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Teaching is thus a socio-cultural activity that evolves through practice, negotiation, and reification of meanings within communities of practice rather than theorizing in isolation and expecting teachers to apply theories to improve practice.

What Constitutes CPD?

CPD is perceived to encompass both formal structured opportunities, such as INSET that may be an external institutional requirement (where teachers are employed) and are facilitated by others (such as PD providers) (Evans, 2002 in Jafri, 2012), and less formal opportunities which may be self-initiated by individuals or colleagues employed within the same institutions or area.

Within the context of a teacher's entire career, teacher development is a continuum of learning and teachers are located at various places along this continuum (Stuart et al., 2009 in Jafri, 2012). Learning during the early years is generally aimed at developing an understanding of practice, followed by later periods of reflection and discussion which helps teachers gain new insights into their work and improve their skills. This is where a program of CPD takes the various approaches as they appear in Table 2.1 based on the teacher's individual or contextual needs.

Formal CPD is either advocated, expected, or organized by institutions where teachers are employed. Informal CPD activities, on the other hand, could be self-directed, other directed, or collaborative and may be organized within the institution or organized and pursued externally. Such activities can be spontaneous, are not

Table 2.1 Activities for CPD. (Adapted from Richards & Farrell, 2005:14 in Jafri, 2012)

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Self-directed</th><th colspan="2">Other directed</th></tr>
<tr><th>Informal</th><th>Formal</th><th>Formal</th><th>Informal</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Peer observation</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Peer coaching</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Mentoring</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Team teaching</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Case study analysis</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Critical incident analysis</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Action/Exploratory research</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Learning a new language</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="2">Presenting at workshops/Conferences</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="2">Membership of professional learning communities</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="2">Writing for ELT publications</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="2">Teaching portfolios</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="2">Studying for a formal degree</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Critical friendships</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Informal conversations</td><td></td><td></td><td>Informal conversations</td></tr>
<tr><td>Teaching journal writing</td><td></td><td>Job shadowing</td><td>Teaching journal writing</td></tr>
<tr><td>Self-monitoring</td><td></td><td>Job rotation</td><td>Blogging</td></tr>
<tr><td>Reading</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Distance-learning</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
</table>

necessarily formally organized, and often are frequently unacknowledged by the institutions where teachers are employed as part of formal CPD (Jafri, 2012). This is a significant point of discussion among TESOL professionals for whom informal CPD forms a major part of their career development.

In recent years, there has been increasing interest among teachers to engage in less formal and more collaborative forms of learning activities both within and outside their work contexts (Campbell & Jacques, 2004; Flores, 2005). One example is that of secondary school teachers' interest in electronic networking as reported by Karagiorgi and Symeou (2006).

The outreach teacher development program in this chapter forms part of the authors' informal CPD and has been a source of formal CPD for teachers in the outreach context.

Rationale for the Outreach Program

Having spent over two decades supporting teacher development in the United Arab Emirates, it occurred to us around 2012 to take the mission of TESOL Arabia forward by engaging with the wider community of teachers through a systematic 'outreach' program. One of the strategic goals of TESOL Arabia included reaching out to English language teachers as much as possible with the intention of supporting their development. In theory, this meant that we would travel to another country and support the CPD of teachers in rural communities where local teaching associations were not quite able to reach. In practice, this entailed traveling and training at our own expense and giving up many of our valuable weekends. The idea of initiating this program in Pakistan was an easy one since two of the founding members of this project, Naziha and Hafeez, were both from Pakistan and did not require visas to travel to the country.

Between 2012 and now, the program has evolved in five distinct phases together with the engagement of three entities (TESOL Arabia, VistaBrainz & the ARJ Trust) that are represented in Fig. 2.1.

Phase 1: Invitations from Local Affiliates

SPELT Pakistan (The Society of Pakistan English Language Teachers), which was a TESOL affiliate along with TESOL Arabia, had since the year 2008 regularly invited TESOL Arabia executive board members to their annual conference in the cities of Karachi, Lahore, and Islamabad in Pakistan. Given that we had attended and presented at this event several times, we had a clear perspective of the context and teachers' needs which were dependent on the level of the teachers as well as on the context in which they were based.

Phase 2: Invitations from Accredited Universities

Around 2010, when invitations poured in from numerous universities recognized by the Higher Education Commission in Pakistan inviting either of us to train faculty, we embarked on the exciting second phase. It became apparent that most privileged institutions relied on senior teachers as mentors, and when they approached us in the UAE, they requested topics like assessment, leadership, and language-focused teacher development for their teachers. This gave us the opportunity to rein in the support of TESOL Arabia Special Interest Groups (SIGs) such as the Testing, Assessment and Evaluation SIG, Leadership and Management SIG, and the TESOL Arabia Toastmasters Club.

Fig. 2.1 The five phases of our CPD trek in Pakistan

It did not surprise us that assessment was one of the key areas of training that was requested by the mentors. Research highlights that many language teachers lack even basic assessment literacy skills (Boraie, 2015; Tsagari & Vogt, 2017). O'Loughlin (2013:363) defines assessment literacy as 'a range of skills related to test production, test score interpretation and use, and test evaluation in conjunction with the development of a critical understanding about the roles and functions of assessment within society'. Much of the CPD that has taken place in Pakistan as a result of this outreach initiative has focused on developing the assessment literacy of teachers and test-writers in the region, based on the book by Coombe et al. (2009).

In addition to assessment, there were requests to organize training workshops focusing on areas of program evaluation and teacher evaluation for self-development, extensive reading, and most significantly on communication skills in English as well

as leadership skills for teachers. During the summer visits, we also facilitated workshops on self-development plans that teachers could work on during their summer vacation time so that they would be ready to start the upcoming new academic year.

Phase 3: Field Visits to Rural Institutions

The following year, in 2011, with the initiation of phase 3, our work became simultaneously challenging and exciting as teachers from rural areas who had participated in our training events hosted by universities now approached us to visit their institutions. This led us to visit remote schools and colleges in smaller towns such as Rawalpindi, Kharian, Bahawalpur, Wazirabad, Mandi Bahauddin, and Multan. It also brought to light the need for securing funding for future visits since paying for an airline ticket from UAE to Pakistan, and food, boarding, and traveling by road to remote areas were not financially viable initiatives in the volunteer roles that we had taken on. Some amount of support was required in the form of either accommodation or airfare.

Phase 4: Sourcing Funding

As our rural network in Pakistan grew, so did interest among colleagues in the UAE who now wanted to join us in our CPD trek. This made it even more imperative to start looking for financial support as our personal resources were insufficient to sustain long-term travel and teacher professional development in Pakistan. Around this time, in 2012, we were fortunate enough to find local support in the form of the ARJ Trust (Wazirabad) and VistaBrainz Professional Development Centre (Lahore), both of which are run by a retired businessman who has been engaged in community development in Pakistan for the past several years. The partnership proved fruitful as they were looking for teacher development support for the community and we were seeking local support to alleviate our salary depletion.

Phase 5: Development and Implementation of Support Plans

With renewed enthusiasm we found ourselves entering Phase 5 of our outreach project during which we launched numerous initiatives. These included the following:

- Sponsoring a ‘slum’ school in Rawalpindi to make it self-reliant through training and funds.

- Furnishing and inaugurating two Learning Resource Centers (one in a slum school in Islamabad and the second at the beautiful ARJ Trust building in the town of Wazirabad).
- The administration of a book drive in the UAE with the intention of collecting books (both teachers' books and student textbooks) and the funds to ship them to Pakistan with a view to donating these books to a number of English language teaching resource centers including a large one in the town of Wazirabad.
- Launching a speaking club focused on language skills development (in Lahore & Wazirabad). This free-to-join club is based on the curriculum of the Toastmasters Clubs where public speaking skills and leadership activities are practiced.
- Blue-Collar Language Skills Development Scheme (for house help, laborers, and their school-age children).
- Summer storybook club to encourage reading among primary and secondary school children.
- A Mobile Learning Unit (MLU), which is a learning resource center set up in a minibus that reaches out to rural schools on an agreed-upon monthly schedule.
- Vocational skills development for unemployed women.

During this period, we were fortunate enough to receive a generous grant from the International Language Testing Association (ILTA) that enabled seven members of our team to travel to Pakistan and deliver assessment-focused training. These included Dr. Christine Coombe (Dubai Men's College), Dr. Naziha Ali Raza (Emirates Aviation College), Beth Wiens (Zayed University), Maria Brown (Dubai Women's College), Julie Riddlebarger (Khalifa University), Dr. Mick King (Middlesex University), and Peter Davidson (Zayed University).

Phase 6: Future Directions

During the fall of 2017, as we entered Phase 6, additional projects were initiated.

Reading Circles

We formed clusters of teachers participating regularly in our sessions, encouraging them to form groups that convened to read and discuss assessment matters, classroom management, and innovative techniques in English language teaching.

Extensive Reading Foundation Pakistan

One of the biggest achievements after setting up the learning resource centers was the founding of the Extensive Reading Foundation Pakistan virtual community (https://www.facebook.com/ExtensiveReadingFoundationPakistan) on the same

pattern as Thomas Robb's Extensive Reading Foundation (https://erfoundation.org/wordpress/). The aim of this group is to collaborate with extensive reading affiliates around the world and to support and promote extensive reading in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Pakistan. It is now in its fifth year and has helped Pakistani teachers of English network with affiliates around the world as well as benefit from the resources shared by teachers around the world.

Publication

By 2018, our colleagues involved in outreach work in Pakistan agreed that it was time to document some of the work in the form of a publication, especially since by now we had immense exposure to the nature of teacher learning, research, and development in Pakistan. This took shape in the form of the publication within which this chapter appears.

The publication project was initiated with the intention to document theory, research, and pedagogy related to all aspects of teaching, learning, assessment, and teacher training in Pakistan and in Pakistani institutions/contexts around the world from all levels of the educational spectrum including primary, secondary, higher education, and adult or vocational education. It is to form part of an edited series featuring English language teaching in other geographical areas such as The Gulf, Iran, The Middle East, Southeast Asia, Asia, Australia/New Zealand, Europe, South America, Central America, and Africa. It is especially significant since there is no known recent publication in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) that features perspectives of recent research in the field specifically in Pakistan. Such a collection will enable ELT professionals in other geographical regions to get a view of what is happening in ELT in Pakistan.

The Response to COVID-19

With the recent onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, the education sector as with all other sectors has experienced a severe impact. Since March 2019, when schools, colleges, and universities closed down creating uncertainty, the priority for teachers and staff has been to retain their jobs. This has placed CPD on the last wrung of the career ladder.

While the situation has been similar worldwide, in this chapter, we will refer to circumstances in Pakistan considering the subject of discussion is outreach teacher development in the country. The majority of teachers in Pakistan (from primary education to university) are females. Khan (2014) highlights findings of the Federal Bureau of Statistics report (2010) which indicate that the ratio of female teachers to males has increased dramatically in Pakistan since 2001 to about 50% and since then it has been increasing each year. Teaching jobs for females in Pakistan are generally a source of secondary income provision to the family, the implication being that with

school closures due to COVID-19, drastic salary cuts, and loss of job associated benefits, this secondary income became greatly reduced.

Hence, during most of 2020, the rural segments where our outreach CPD initiatives were implemented became dormant primarily because traveling to Pakistan was impossible, there was a complete closure of schools, and Internet resources in these areas were sparse. We took this time to first help ourselves recover since we as teachers were in the same situation as any other educator in the world, coping with job uncertainties, complete isolation, in some cases the illness itself, and, most importantly, concern for the health and safety of our families.

The Way Forward

One of the biggest realizations from the challenges experienced during the past year 2020 is that self-development and self-care for teachers is a significant element that gets overlooked in times of change and during periods of uncertainty.

Maggioli (2020) rightly indicates (as mentioned in Sect. 4 of this chapter) that effective CPD is reflective and socially constructed. This is something that we remained aware of as the COVID-19 pandemic evolved during 2020. Hence, in order to sustain the impact of our 9-year-long outreach CPD efforts, once the initial shock wore off, we gradually linked our audience in rural Pakistan with the professional networking groups that we were beginning to find professional comfort in. These included conversation groups, professional learning networks (PLNs), and social media platforms as follows:

- VistaBrainz Professional Development Centre that hosts a Facebook page, a LinkedIn page, and is also on Instagram.
- The Extensive Reading Foundation Pakistan Facebook page and Instagram page that are connected with the Extensive Reading Foundation founded by Thomas Robb.
- The TESOL Career Path Development PLN led by Liz England which meets each month over Zoom.
- A TESOL research group that meets weekly and is the initiative of the members of the outreach team (initiated by Dr. Christine Coombe). This is at the moment a closed group based on specific research projects and meets over Zoom.
- The Ali Raza Jafri Trust which has been providing us with a venue and a learning resource center for the last 6 years has their own Facebook page that broadcasts updates of community work.

As we look into the future with the understanding that living with COVID-19 will be the norm for an unspecified period of time, there are discussions and plans to revive learning and teacher development online for smaller groups through similar conversation groups and online communities based on different themes. We also have plans to launch an educational leadership program online to support rural teachers with skills development in areas such as leading, managing, and resilience in times of

uncertainty. One of the main aims of the initiatives launched/to be launched through the outreach program is to engage as many colleagues as possible from regions outside Pakistan to support Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in the country, especially because there is a visible lack of infrastructure and relevant policies on teacher development here. Readers who are interested in participating in such initiatives for their own CPD and the experience are encouraged to connect with the authors of this chapter.

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Chapter 3
ELT, Teacher Education, and the EMI Context in Pakistan

Shazia Nawaz Awan

Abstract This chapter explores English language teaching and teacher education in both public and privately owned primary and secondary schools in the Pakistani province of Punjab. More specifically, it explores current ELT practices in the context, the professional profiles of both English language and subject-specific teachers, and their pre- and in-service professional development. Strategies and techniques are proposed that can be used in the English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) context of Pakistan where the schools explored are recognized as English-medium schools. The intention is to introduce collaborative training and Continuous Professional Development (CPD) for English language and subject-specific teachers to enhance pedagogical effectiveness in the primary and secondary contexts where English is taught as a language along with other subjects such as Mathematics, Science, Physics, Chemistry, and Biology using the same medium. The ensuing discussion raises implications for existing English language policies, the curriculum being taught, the integration of subject-specific content into English language, and teacher education in EMI contexts.

Keywords ELT (English Language Teaching) · ELTs (English Language Teachers) · EMI (English as a Medium of Instruction) · CPD (Continuous Professional Development)

Introduction

The purpose of English Language Teaching (ELT) in the primary and secondary school contexts in Pakistan varies from contexts where English is generally taught as a Second Language (ESL) or as an Additional Language (EAL). It is more often taught as subject or a course that helps students acquire basic reading and writing skills, as opposed to language teaching aimed at developing listening and speaking skills with the ability to use it for communication in environments where English

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is spoken as the first language. Subject-specific teaching in schools, theoretically speaking, is done using English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI). The reality, however, is quite the opposite as despite having textbooks written in English, most of the classroom instruction is carried out in Urdu which is the national language of Pakistan.

Historically, English language, ELT, and EMI in subject-specific education in Pakistan have roots in the colonial era of British rule. The use of English language itself was long regarded as a threat to the national culture, indigenous languages, and above all religion because it was associated with the growing influx of the Western culture. Within specific segments of the Pakistani society, English language faces social and political resistance even today although not as aggressively as in the past. As Naseer (2012:2) reveals, both the societal context of Pakistan and the educational and academic contexts are seen through the binary lenses of tradition being 'backward and uncivilized', and modernism being Western and devoid of tradition. This perception is putting society, ELT, and the presumed Westernization that comes with EMI at odds with each other. It is primarily for these reasons, as Shamim (2008) explains, that since its independence in 1947, the language educational policies in Pakistan have been socially and religiously driven, politically motivated and have always been imposed from top down. As a result, the policy pendulum has always oscillated between English (the language of power); Urdu (the national language); and other regional languages such as Sindhi, Pushto, Punjabi and Balochi. In contrast, during the pre-independence era, scholars and educationists in British India strived to convince people to engage in knowledge acquisition through the English language. For example, Sir Syed Ahmed Khan, a social reformer, politician, teacher, and leading educational reformer in the late nineteenth century, saw that Muslims living in pre-partition India had to view ELT positively if they were to compete and succeed politically, economically, and socially. He proposed educational reforms incorporating EMI, an approach which has now fully evolved in the twenty-first-century Pakistan after going through phases and stages of acceptance, rejection, denial, and inclusion of policies that were mainly politically motivated (Abbas, 1993; Rahman, 2001).

While we accept that there is hegemony of English language all over the world, more particularly in societies that were once colonized, it is noticeable that ELT has offered a reconceptualization of content and language education in the educational system of Pakistan. In this chapter, the focus remains on current ELT practices and teacher education in Pakistan with a view to understanding the power and place of English language in the Pakistani education system. Hence, I will not go into the paradox of taking pride in learning the English language yet rejecting its social and cultural impact.

Current Language and Content Teaching Practices

This section presents an overview of ELT practices in Pakistan from two points of view: analytical and holistic. At the micro- or analytical level, ELT practices will be discussed from a pedagogical standpoint while at the macro- or holistic level, general perspectives about ELT in Pakistan will be discussed.

ELT in the Pakistani classroom context cannot be seen in isolation from subject-specific teaching. Proficiency in English language starting at the primary level is mostly aimed at subject-specific education using EMI. Hence, while there is significant emphasis on early development of reading and writing skills through EMI, the introduction of listening and speaking skills into the curriculum from the perspective of developing integrated language skills appears much later in the school years. The only content that young students are exposed to, in terms of listening and speaking skills, is through the media, i.e., the television, the Internet, and Western movies most of which are either dubbed in Urdu or have Urdu subtitles. Researchers such as Shamim (2008) have criticized teaching techniques adopted to develop reading and writing skills in English to be ineffective for various reasons. For the scope of this chapter, I will consider the teaching context in Pakistan as more of English as a Medium of Content (EMoC) rather than EMI.

From a more holistic generalized perspective, using EMI has been seen from different viewpoints. For example, Khattak (2014) perceives EMI from a social segregation perspective; Mahboob (2017) and Shamim (2008) look at the implementation of ELT policies and issues associated with these in the higher education context; and Manan et al. (2016) explore the position of English language within the backdrop of linguistic diversity in the Pakistani context. Other researchers such as Rahman (2001), Shamim (2008), and Manan et al. (2016:7) take the socio-linguistic stance echoing that English language 'stands as the most powerful language' on the linguistic hierarchy with Urdu right behind it.

Hence, aside from the blurred boundaries between ELT practice, its role in subject-specific teaching, and its place in the Pakistani educational system, there also exist gaps between how EMI is defined and how it is practised. In her report (2014:2), Julie Dearden, Senior Research and Development Fellow in EMI at Oxford University, Department of Education, defines EMI as 'the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English'. While subject-specific content in Pakistani school contexts is published in English, there is a gap in understanding the implementation of EMI policies. For instance, most implementation is top down from a policy perspective where government officials are included in decision-making and 'key stakeholders' (Dearden, 2014:2) are mostly excluded. Fifty-five countries participated in the research for this report, and it was acknowledged that Pakistan is one of the 15 countries where some policy exists on guidelines to teach in an EMI context although the level at which instructions are given is not clear. A second gap that exists is in the education of teachers who are assigned to work in EMI contexts. Dearden's report (2014) indicates that 44% of the teachers teaching in EMI contexts

in Pakistan demonstrate lower to pre-intermediate levels of English. This data is based on the APTIS test that was administered by the British Council research team. A third gap that can be identified is that the intended and unintended consequences and outcomes of EMI are mostly overlooked.

This argument is built on the understanding that cannot be ignored that trained teachers can play a vital role both inside and outside the classrooms. The following section presents the professional profile of teachers in the Pakistani EMI context.

English Language and Subject-Specific Teachers in the Pakistani Context

It is apparent that there is extensive research available on the social, economical, socio-political, and academic level of language education in Pakistan (Mahboob & Talaat, 2008; Shamim, 2008). However, there is little to refer to when it comes to English language or subject-specific teacher education. This gap in existing empirical work has been pointed out in some of the literature on this topic. For example, Mahboob and Talaat's (2008) research indicates that the minimum required qualification for primary and middle school teachers in public schools is alarmingly low, i.e., completion of grade 10 with 1 year of teacher education. Interestingly, in the last few years, there has been improved focus on hiring school teachers with appropriate subject-specific academic qualifications (usually a Bachelor's or Master's degree). Teacher training and development through pre- and in-service professional qualifications or Continuous Professional Development (CPD) has yet to become significant criteria in the teacher's trajectory although a few institutions are now beginning to recruit new teachers with a B.Ed. or M.Ed. degree. These qualifications are offered in Pakistan by various colleges of education. According to a 2005 report compiled by the Pakistan Teacher Education and Professional Development Program (PTEPDP), there are 82 teacher education or training institutions in the province of Punjab, all of which offer pre-service training except for three that offer in-service training as well. The quality of these institutions, however, is under heavy criticism and a reform of pre- and in-service teacher training and education is emphasized (Ali, 2011).

Given that this chapter proposes to explore and discuss teacher education from the perspective of teacher identity and practical pedagogy, a delineation is presented of what is meant by identifying teachers by way of specialty and practical pedagogical needs in EMI classrooms.

Subject-Specific Teachers

A working definition of a subject-specific teacher as I propose for the purpose of this chapter is as follows:

> 'A teacher who primarily teaches academic subjects other than English language as s/he has specialized in these subject areas based on her/his formal education and teacher training.'

This, however, does not imply that subject-specific teachers in schools that use EMI necessarily possess the essential English language and classroom pedagogy training background. EMI itself is equally non-prevalent in both private and public schools in Pakistan. Dearden's (2014) research reveals that EMI is primarily used and encouraged to be used more in private sector education than in the public sector.

While in EMI contexts there is emphasis on hiring qualified subject-specific teachers, these prospective teachers are not necessarily required to have any teaching qualification or certification. However, private sector schools administer an IELTS-style English language proficiency test at the time of hiring them. A review of over 30 online job advertisements revealed that not many employers required applicants to have a teaching qualification. A mere 2 of the 30 advertisements asked for a B.Ed. while the rest asked only for academic qualifications in the field and experience at a recognized institution. Mahboob and Talaat (2008) highlight that teacher education institutes offering B.Ed. or M.Ed. programs do not offer any ELT specialization. Hence, the profile of a subject-specific teacher in the Pakistani context features the following:

- They are mostly hired based on academic qualifications in a specific subject area;
- They may be expected to have graduated from a recognized institution; and
- They do not necessarily possess the required level of subject-specific English language or formal teacher training certification.

English Language Teachers

English language teachers in the Pakistani context are not primarily language teachers. Their usual academic qualification is either a Master's degree in English literature with an undergraduate degree in any discipline from a recognized institution, or they are graduates with a general qualification in any discipline and possess the ability to converse in English. In terms of linguistic pedagogy of English language teaching, Mahboob and Jain (2017:234) point towards tripartite 'language-in-education' practices in both Pakistan and India where English is taught as a language in addition to national and/or regional languages. However, the language of medium of instruction could very well be quite varied with teachers code-switching as and where needed. Furthermore, ELT practices feature heavy reliance on textbooks as a result of which English language skills development is quite detached from content, relies heavily on explicit teaching of grammar, and does not feature listening and speaking skills. Rote memorization is at the center of speaking activities in whatsoever way they become part of the curriculum. In addition, there is a lack of specialization in teaching English as a second language (Mahboob & Talaat, 2008).

An English language teacher in this context can thus be identified as some one who:

- has an undergraduate degree in any discipline or graduate degree with a specialization in English language and literature;
- may be expected to have graduated from a recognized institution preferably in an EMI context; and
- can speak English and can carry on a conversation in English and Rahman (2001:246) notes that this criterion is usually an expectation from teachers employed in 'private elitist schools'.

An English language teacher is usually not required to have English language teachers' training or certification from a specialized institution, although more recently some teachers are beginning to take an interest in certifications such as the Cambridge English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) or other local versions of ELT certifications from recognized teacher training institutions within Pakistan.

ELT: Teacher Education

Mahboob and Talaat (2008:22) criticize the prevalent teacher training model in Pakistan that equates on-the-job experience with teacher education, arguing that 'professional and academic expertise in education, as well as an academic subject plus relevant classroom teaching experience, needs to be made prerequisite for all individuals who serve or wish to serve as teacher educators'. They highlight that in addition to the state-run teacher training colleges and institutions, some privately run associations provide CPD as well. For instance, until 2020 Cambridge English Language Assessment offered the In-service Certificate in English Language Teaching (ICELT) through two associations in the cities of Lahore and Karachi, respectively. The 150 h of theoretical input and practical sessions in the course cost approximately Rs. 75,000/, which was a huge amount for teachers to afford unless they were sponsored by the government or their institutions. At the time of writing this chapter, the ICELT is no longer being offered by Cambridge. However, another private association in the city of Lahore is gradually emerging as one of the first centers to offer the CELTA (another very expensive certification at GBP 1,500/- for the Pakistani teacher).

Pakistan's education policy document (2013), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), National Plan of Action, Punjab for 2013–2016 indicates problems and highlights solutions within primary public-school education in the province of Punjab. The document highlights that teachers are 'mostly without professional degrees and a lack of on-job subject training' and proposes introducing 'competitiveness… for hiring competent teachers with focus on softer skills' (p. 145). It also proposes that the problem of 'teachers attitude/behavior/conduct' can be countered through 'implementation of teacher standards through training and accountability mechanism'.

It is interesting to note that throughout the 211 pages of the policy document, the term 'language' is used only twice, once to describe 'foreign' language and once

for Urdu. The phrase 'teachers' training' or training has been mentioned almost 36 times in the document, in terms of a required strategy or intervention to enhance the poor quality of educational standards found across the province. Ali (2011) from the Aga Khan University, Institute for Educational Development, in his paper, criticizes the unsatisfactory situation of teachers' training within the public sector in Pakistan and commercialization of the same in the private sector. This situation undoubtedly highlights the need for English language and subject-specific teachers' training, more importantly CPD for the EMI context on a broader scale.

Recommendations

Keeping in mind that the current situation of education in EMI contexts is far from satisfactory despite scattered efforts only in the private sector to meet the challenges of twenty-first-century education, a few recommendations are proposed. These are based on my professional experience as an English language teacher and my recent research experience in ELT and teacher education.

There is a need for reconstructing teaching as a profession in Pakistan, thereby highlighting the importance of reforming the hiring policy so that teachers are committed to the teaching profession and do not consider it as an interim position for the time being. Institutions, both public and private, should comply with contextualized CPD that targets students' academic and intellectual objectives and their language and subject-specific needs. Furthermore, on-the-job training should be funded or subsidized, either by the government or by the institutions where teachers are employed.

Finally, keeping in mind that Pakistan's ELT scenario is dominated by private sector schools and institutions, it is proposed that an equal distribution of focus is shifted to both public and private sectors to bridge the gap of quality ELT. Simultaneously, there is a need for both subject-specific and language teachers to work collaboratively to enhance the integrated learning experience. This, as a result, will help create spaces where English language teaching (ELT) is carried out in a wholesome manner, with integrated language skills being taught, practiced, and assessed.

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Chapter 4
Foreign Professional Development Programs in Pakistan

Shazia Humayun

Abstract This chapter explores the perceptions about foreign professional development held by different stakeholders at a private K12 educational institution that has multiple branches in the four provinces of Pakistan. More specifically, it traces the history of foreign professional development that has been available to teachers in the context and in the Pakistani education system in general. Using the framework of situated learning theory, interviews were conducted with teachers, school heads, foreign trainers, and the system administrators. Stakeholders who were physically inaccessible for interviews were emailed the interview questions. The study reveals that when content taught in foreign professional development courses is developed in isolation and taught without work-based implementation structures, it does not help in bridging the knowledge gap. Findings highlight weaknesses in the implementation of foreign professional development programs in the context along with suggestions for the system administration to reflect on, evaluate, and to better implement external professional development programs within Pakistani educational organizations based in Pakistan.

Keywords Foreign professional development · Professional development in Pakistan · Situated learning theory

Introduction

Since Pakistan came into existence in 1971, excessive planning has been part of education policies which instead of progress have resulted in neither implementation nor follow-ups. There is scarce literature or research specifically on foreign professional development courses offered in Pakistan. This study in its aim to fill the gap discovered that while the emotional, cognitive, and financial investment on these courses is promising for a developing country like Pakistan, the elite private

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education institutions offering such foreign professional development have a 'closed-door policy' where no questions are asked about the planning, implementation, and evaluation of these programs.

Among the reasons for exploring foreign professional development programs in the context of a K12 private school network in Pakistan are the following:

- to understand why the context is missing from the planning, implementation, and evaluation of these programs;
- to identify issues associated with the entire process;
- to inform the design process of these foreign professional development courses;
- to ensure optimal transfer of knowledge from academically developed countries; and
- to identify factors that impede these professional development courses from providing the maximum amount of knowledge to teachers and the subsequent lack of knowledge transfer to the schools where the trained teachers teach.

This study looked into two foreign professional development courses offered in the context under study with the intention of understanding the perspectives of teachers, administrators, and trainers about the process.

Teacher Education in Pakistan

Behlol et al. (2014) elaborate on a historic decision by the Pakistani government in 1947 that declared it mandatory for provincial governments to develop short training courses at the provincial level to train teachers and to add research departments in training institutions for the study of special problems relating to teachers. Since then, however, nothing substantial has happened as with a budget of less than 2% allocated to education and teacher development (in comparison to a budget of 3.6% towards the military), the situation continues to remain bleak even at the close of 2020 as is elaborated on in the following sections.

Existing Research on Teacher Education

Reba (2014) investigated the perceptions of trainees, teachers, principals, and directors of ten Regional Institutes of Teacher Education (RITEs) and five Institutes of Education and Research (IERs) in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK), a province in the north of Pakistan. 50 trainees and 15 teachers were surveyed while 15 principals and directors were interviewed. Findings revealed that there was a need for change in the teaching paradigm to shift the focus from teacher-centered to student-centered classrooms with the objective of incorporating activity-based teaching, group discussions, and projects for effective delivery of subject knowledge and to develop student

teachers' skills. There was a clear need to provide teachers with professional development in using modern techniques in teaching, lesson planning, assessment, and classroom management. Reba's (2014) recommendations included the following:

- to improve the infrastructure of teacher education institutes to include technological resources other than books (computers and Internet connections);
- to focus on seminars, workshops, and educational conferences where teachers' work can be showcased to motivate other teachers;
- to regularly update teacher education curricula to keep up with international research findings;
- to introduce modern approaches to teaching; and
- to fill up all vacant posts in teacher training institutes for the timely implementation of recommendations made.

Ali (2011: 10) in a holistic view of Pakistani teacher education identifies the lack of 'political will, insufficient resources, poor governance, and dysfunctional management system of the successive governments', in addition to the absence of relevant literature in the form of peer-reviewed research articles as impeding progress in teacher education. There is heavy dependence on support provided by foreign donor professional development plans which when withdrawn results in the collapse of an already ill-managed structure of teacher education. Additionally, since the professional development support is not situated in its context, content, and process, it does not result in sustained capacity building or empowerment of the local teacher education resources.

Teacher education in Pakistan, as Ali (2011) elaborates, is heavily influenced by the theories and assumptions that underpin teaching as an individual activity that is culturally and socially neutral. There is greater focus on structural and organizational issues rather than the conceptual and pedagogical issues of teacher education practices, whereas the international literature focuses on social, moral, and personal dimensions. Hence, according to Ali (2011), there is a need to recognize the links between political, socio-economic contexts, and teacher education as these are the factors that shape the nation's teacher education. Research methods such as ethnographies, biographies, and in-depth case studies which generate a healthy research environment are currently not used to identify the gaps in Pakistani teacher education and could be valuable in identifying areas where problems exist.

The Public and Private School Divide in Pakistani Education

Benz (2012) characterized regional inequalities and huge disparities between the rich and poor, between urban and rural areas, and between men and women as the reasons for the poor state of education in Pakistan. He analyzed Pakistan's public education system as providing very low-quality education due to 'inefficiency, mismanagement, political manipulation, and corruption' (2012: 224), while also assessing the growing private school structure and its role in overcoming the educational crisis in Pakistan.

Historically, colonial Pakistan never promoted mass education as there was greater focus on English-medium education aimed at generating a limited class of loyal, Westernized, English-speaking bureaucrats and technocrats who would help to expand and maintain imperial power in British India (Benz, 2012). Thus, the colonial heritage of newly independent Pakistan in 1947 was heavily loaded with the class system, which comprised of people who were 'Indian in blood and color, but English in taste, in morals, and in intellect' (Benz, 2012: 225). For the last 73 years, education policies have been drafted by the ruling elite who migrated to Pakistan during its independence in 1947, and who were products of the colonial elite schools. These policies, it is evident, were never fully implemented as their post-colonial mentality never allowed them to remove the rich-poor divide. Hence, the poor state of education in Pakistan is more due to lack of political will and commitment (the military budget being 3.6% as compared to the educational budget of 2%), rather than the poor economic conditions or lack of resources.

The State of Teacher Education in Pakistan

The lack of qualified and trained teachers in public schools bears a direct impact on quality education and creates a vacuum that has been gradually filled by private sector schools run by Pakistani entrepreneurs who are engaged in a drive to meet the high demand for affordable English-medium education. This mushrooming has also brought with it an exclusive education system, mainly imported from the UK, leaving the rest of the Pakistani education to the politically neglected and low-quality public system.

Memon (2007) links student achievement to the number of years of education that teachers have received citing that there is evidence that students of teachers with 12 years of school perform better than students of teachers who have had only 10 years of education. Existing teacher certificate programs, as Memon (2007) identifies, suffer from:

- lack of adequately trained master trainers;
- little emphasis on teaching practices;
- non-existence of a proper monitoring system for teachers;
- absence of accredited bodies that certify teachers in Pakistan;
- regarding mere acquisition of a certificate or diploma as adequate to apply for a teaching position; and
- teacher absenteeism due to political influences in teacher appointments.

This alerts us to the need for researching existing local and foreign teacher education programs that are implemented in Pakistan with regard to their content, context, and the process of implementation. Rehmani (2006: 494) emphasizes 'the need for reforms in teacher education in Pakistan to improve the quality of teaching and learning' and 'working with the teachers in Pakistan with particular emphasis on their conceptions of teaching in improving quality of education'. Among the factors that

play a crucial role in shaping teaching and learning, Rehmani (2006) identifies socio-cultural contexts, teachers' own school experiences, types of pre-service teacher education programs, and the culture of the schools where they teach.

Guskey (2009: 229) highlights the significance of context preparedness and professional development suggesting that 'the most powerful content will make no difference if shared in a context unprepared to receive it and use it and similarly, a seemingly powerful professional development activity poorly suited to a particular context will likely fail miserably'. Livingston and Flores (2017: 555) having studied 40 years of teacher education literature identify the need for teacher education to be looked at as an 'iterative process rather than a linear process'. They argue that teachers often receive education that prepares them for an unknown future and while 'many of the questions we, as teacher educators, ask and many of the topics we explore may remain similar but the context within which teacher education is planned, implemented, governed and evaluated locally, regionally, nationally and internationally constantly changes'.

Saleem and Masrur (2014) confirm that in Pakistan formal professional training for teachers is not a prerequisite. This makes the role of teacher education even more significant in a context where pre-service certification is not mandatory and where teachers are hired directly after high school or college (grade 12 or Bachelors). The lack of training opportunities and a narrow understanding of the field of education are characteristic of not only Pakistan but also of other developing countries and clearly indicate that 'there is something seriously wrong with the teacher training programs' (Shahzad, 2016: 517).

There exists little research in Pakistan on the impact of teacher education on teacher behavior and student learning. This study intends to fill some of this gap by exploring foreign professional development programs while taking into consideration the political, economic, cultural, and ideological factors that play an important role in shaping the teaching narratives of teachers and their teaching processes inside the classroom (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It is also imperative to look at the ecology of socially constructed situated learning environments where learning emerges from the actions of teachers in relation to those of others and in relation to the context. This is developed through interaction between activity, people, and prior knowledge (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

The Significance of Context in Teacher Development

Kanu (2005) argues in favor of familiarity with the culture and context where teacher education programs are to be implemented in the absence of which there is a risk of program failure accompanied by resistance from teachers. The recent increase in professional development activity from foreign countries in recipient countries like Pakistan is perceived to be due to the replacement of state funding with revenue substitution strategies in Western countries.

Following independence from the colonial regime, the educational focus changed from exclusive knowledge provision to supporters of the colonial administration to providing education to everyone else too. While this expanded the quantity of education, the quality of education became greatly compromised with the professional quality of teachers being the most affected especially since the expansion of schools was unaccompanied by professional development to match their teachers' needs.

Kanu (2005: 512) concludes that developing countries must define the identity of their teachers and their respective professional development needs within their 'cultural frame of references'. This frame of reference must be studied by the foreign teacher training providers before curriculum development of teacher education programs; otherwise, the capacity building, confidence, and identities of these educators will always be dependent on international support that is outside their context, and they will never become independent.

Lindvall et al. (2018), in a 12-month-long study of teacher development in Swedish universities compares the content of two professional development programs and their impact on student achievement in the context where teachers were trained. It emerged that the teachers trained in these programs experienced challenges in adapting the new learning to their work context thus confirming that the content of professional development programs needs to be paid attention to with regard to the context of the teachers involved, if it is to be regarded coherent with teachers' knowledge and practice.

Koellner and Jacobs (2015) identify broad outlines for professional development and the development of models of professional development that stretch from highly adaptive to highly specific in terms of goals, resources, and circumstances of local contexts. Although many countries require their teachers to attend mandatory professional development courses, workshops, and conferences, there is little evidence of research on teachers' experiences or their perspectives of these foreign professional development courses.

Hargreaves (2017), in her 4-year-long research with Pakistani teachers whom she provided professional development to, discovered that they generally resented two things: (a) the use of international consultants for professional development and (b) the stringent academic approach towards learning instead of a practical one. Since universities in Pakistan fail to provide training and development to teachers, the gap is filled by international consultants because they are paid by the rich private sector schools, thereby giving rise to the assumption that foreign trainers are taken more seriously by the local schools. Nevertheless, teachers who participated in her study emphasized 'the need for international consultants to be familiar with local classrooms and their contexts' (Hargreaves, 2017: 8).

There is thus a clear need for research on foreign professional development in Pakistan and its impact on education. Hence, this study explores a UK-based professional development program that was made available to select a group of experienced school heads and teachers in an elite private school network in Pakistan.

Effective Professional Development Programs

The literature on teacher development outlines several aspects that make a professional development program effective for teachers. Fischer et al. (2018) identify active learning, coherence, content focus, collective participation, and reasonable duration in addition to enhancing teachers' teaching knowledge and modifying their instruction as the core features of a high-quality professional development program. Darling-Hammond (2006: 302) believes effective teacher education courses are those that prepare teachers to 'understand deeply a wide array of things about learning, social and cultural contexts, and teaching' and enable trained teachers 'to enact these understandings in complex classrooms'. It is no surprise then that these understandings can be developed only when the teachers are taught a course that is coherent with the context and culture of the society to which they and their students belong, and not to the culture of a foreign land where these courses are developed.

Malik and Behlol (2014: 11) identified that most teacher education programs implemented in the public sector imitate American teacher education systems, contain too much theory which disconnects the content from actual scenarios in Pakistani school systems, and are generally disconnected from the teaching conditions that trained teachers would return to following foreign professional development. Failure in implementing the 'fancy concepts and approaches' (Malik & Behlol, 2014: 11) acquired from the foreign teacher education programs results from the fact that Pakistan does not share the same infrastructure and socio-cultural context as the countries where these programs are developed, nor is the content and delivery according to the teaching/learning needs of Pakistani classrooms.

Hence, for seamless integration of theory and practice, teachers need to be able to apply the knowledge gained in training rooms to practice in their context, and subsequently reflect on it in portfolios (Darling-Hammond, 2006). This reiterates that professional development programs that are situated in the context and practices of the school are more effective because learning acquired on these programs enables the development of communities of practice within that respective context (Riveros et al., 2012).

School-Based Professional Development

Jurasaite-Harbison and Rex (2010: 267) emphasize the importance of formal in-service professional development of teachers connecting it to 'systematic educational reforms and school improvement focused on enhancing learning outcomes for all children in public education'. If teachers are to meet the pressures of the changing political and policy climates that are increasingly becoming part of their school lives, 'they require various school-based opportunities for learning to maintain professional growth' (Jurasaite-Harbison & Rex, 2010: 267).

School-based professional development is the new normal for teacher education in global as well as in the Pakistani context. While educational content and theories in teacher development programs may remain the same worldwide, the significance of context is crucial in situating any kind of professional development for teachers and school leadership. This research study emphasizes the need to connect the context to the content of the professional development courses and their pedagogy in Pakistan. While the Hargreaves (2017) study explored this from the perspective of international consultants, I have investigated the connection between context and content from the perspectives of school heads who at the time of this study have either not yet received any foreign professional development; or are engaged in learning on a specific program; or have already completed their certification on the foreign professional development courses under study.

The Study

This research study explores the experiences of school heads in the researched context who participated in two specific foreign professional development programs to qualify as teacher educators. Following the completion of training, they were expected to disseminate learning and knowledge acquired among teachers in their respective schools (primary, middle, and secondary) where they were stationed as heads. This model of training was referred to as 'cascade training' within the context of my study.

Data was collected through face-to-face interviews, a review of course participants' journals, and classroom observations of school heads who participated in this study. Being at an advantage in a senior management role in the school network's administration, I employed convenience sampling, requesting participation from school heads where my visits were scheduled during the year as part of my job role.

Findings were analyzed using post-structural and critical theoretical lenses, leading to the revelation that 'where there is power there is resistance' (Foucault, 1980: 95). Kanu (2005: 509) reveals that in such contexts, teachers resist when program trainers enforce tasks that require them to get involved in 'challenging, questioning or critiquing text', as it excludes or marginalizes their own indigenous/native pedagogy.

The Structure and Content of Two Professional Development Programs

This section elaborates on the background, structure, and content of the two foreign professional development programs that were implemented in the context of my

study. For this study, the two programs are referred to as Professional Development Program 1 (PDP1) and Professional Development Program 2 (PDP2). To ensure confidentiality, the names of the two programs remain undisclosed.

Foreign Professional Development Program 1 (PDP1)

Program description. The project was initiated in 2019 in collaboration with a British university with the purpose of training a selected number of Teacher Educators (TEs) to cascade effective teacher training techniques to the newly hired teachers at the school network for eased transition into the teaching profession. A cohort of 60 school heads were nominated from across the three regions where the school network operates (Lahore, Karachi & Islamabad). This group of school heads traveled to Lahore (which is the central region and main hub of the school network's operations) were put up in a local hotel and remained there for 11 days on two occasions during the academic year.

On both occasions, the British teacher training consultants traveled from the UK to Lahore and conducted 11 days of training. The overall duration of the program was 120 h of input which was divided into two terms of 60 h each over the academic year. Table 4.1 presents the overall objectives of the program.

These objectives were spread out and covered over a duration of 21 days or 120 h that included reflection days and micro-teaching days. Participants were asked to keep reflective journals in which they documented reflections on the learning received each day over the 21 days of training.

Table 4.1 Objectives of PDP1

The teacher as a professional	Meeting learners' needs	Securing the best outcomes for learners
• Types of learners • Active learning • Motivation and self-esteem • Types of questioning • Cooperative and collaborative learning • Lesson planning • Assessment techniques • Inclusive classrooms • Home, school, and community partnerships • Language to support learning • Evidence informed practice • Differentiation • Behavior management • Reflection • Reflection and evaluation	• Values and attitudes • Planning for change and engagement • Numeracy • Safety • Working together as professionals	• Supporting students to achieve aspirations • Metacognition • Researching practice • Planning and evaluating planning • Effective classroom dialogue • Critical skills • Reading clubs • Academic writing • Teacher well-being • Emotional intelligence

The time gap between the two sets of 11 days training was 3 months. In the 3 months where participants returned to work, they were asked to start training smaller cohorts of teachers in their schools to cascade the training that they had acquired and to keep reflection logs for each day of training. Since the British trainers left Pakistan after the first 11 days of training to return 3 months later, the monitoring of cascade training was left to the school network's management, specifically the training department at the network's head office. The trained school heads were encouraged to use Edmodo, an online platform, where they could showcase their reflections and share images/videos of activities that their trainee teachers had engaged in.

They were also asked to collect trainee teacher feedback on their training at the end of each week. It was expected that this data would be shared with the British training consultants so that they could evaluate the progress of the teacher educators that they had trained. The same process was repeated after the second installment of training that lasted 10 days with the 11th day as a social event to conclude the course.

Foreign Professional Development Program 2 (PDP2)

Program description. PDP2, which is available over the Internet, is a British teacher development qualification that is administered internally by school heads in the context who have undergone online vetting and orientation by the British entity offering the program. Following this process, they are certified as program leaders who are qualified to run the program locally in their own institutions. The license or certification status to train lasts only as long as the trainers are affiliated with a particular school.

The program duration is 12 months after which school heads are certified as program leaders in either of the three streams—school leadership, educational technology, or teaching pedagogy. They are then expected to train teachers in their area of certifications.

School heads who are trained as program leaders have access to guided learning, e.g., workshops, seminars, and tutorials along with opportunities for individual and collaborative learning, e.g., reading, research, and discussion. Other elements that support the development of program leaders include the following:

- School-based learning, e.g., opportunities to apply new ideas and approaches in practice and reflecting on experience.
- Availability of mentors who guide program leaders in designing a program suited to their context.
- Program design guidelines.

A mandatory requirement of this qualification is for program leaders to ensure the presence of a mentor for clusters of new trainee teachers who are being trained by them. The role of these mentors is to support trainee teachers through:

- structured professional dialogue;
- formative observation;

- sharing of professional knowledge;
- recognition of work of the teachers;
- encouragement; and
- facilitation.

PDP2 is fairly organized in that trainee teachers are required to regularly submit assignments with prior feedback from mentors, followed by feedback from program leaders. Program leaders have access to professional learning communities formed with other program leaders across the country and international trainers thus providing them with both national and international support platforms. The overall objectives of this program are for participants to:

- know their curriculum area;
- understand their students and meet their needs as individuals;
- encourage students to engage actively in their own learning;
- ensure formative assessment is embedded in classroom practice;
- connect learning to students' experiences, the real world, and wider contexts;
- use a variety of teaching strategies and activities appropriately;
- become reflective and creative practitioners engaged in continuous professional learning; and
- collaborate and support colleagues, the school and the community.

The program syllabus and content are designed to help participants to not only understand the principles of learning and teaching, but to be able to develop personal learning theories and apply these to their practice. Participants learn to design learning activities that help learners to learn more effectively. They also develop reflective practice skills to be able to evaluate and develop their own practice.

Data Collection

Data was collected for this study using documents pertaining to the two programs, email correspondence, and semi-structured interviews. Prior to conducting face-to-face interviews, participant profiling was done through responses to a brief survey requesting information related to their qualifications, years of experience in their current position, and optional biographical information. The email survey was collectively sent to 50 participants on both programs.

Following this, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 12 participants by prior appointment. Of these, 25 interviewees were either studying for or had completed PDP1 and 25 were either studying for or had completed PDP2. All interviews were held face to face, were audio-recorded with consent, transcribed, and cross-checked with participants for discrepancies in reporting. In reporting results, participants were allocated pseudonyms to protect their identities.

Data Analysis and Discussion

A comparison of the two foreign professional development programs based on information received through participants' responses to interviews and program-associated documents reveals significant findings pertaining to program content, design, mode, duration, and participant experiences during and following training. For the scope of this chapter, findings are collectively discussed in this section.

The Content

This content of the two programs was analyzed using the situated theory framework (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and with a focus on features that support the learning of teachers and those that hinder the process of learning as is highlighted in the work of Darling-Hammond et al. (2005).

Connection and coherence. Participants critiqued the two teacher education programs for being overly theoretical and less connected to actual practice which resulted in leaving trainee teachers confused following training conducted by teacher educators or program leaders. Programs that created any impact on the new teachers were those that made them reflect on their practices, were connected with their context, and were building on what they already knew.

PDP1 was described as having no coherence and little contextual connection to both new teachers and the trained teacher educators (school heads). The reason stemmed from a lack of a proper need analysis prior to program development. According to interviewees, a preliminary needs analysis was limited to one school in a single city rather than a few schools in each city for a national chain of schools with more than a thousand campuses around the country. This left a significant gap in the 'non-Pakistani' program development team's knowledge about the current understanding of program participants' teaching pedagogies and their level of expertise.

Secondly, the tight schedule of training left little opportunity for teachers to reflect on their current practices. Training was scheduled over two periods of 11 days each during the academic year with weekends included. Both occasions were the mid-term break of the participants who expressed immense distress at being away from home and family in a different city at a time when all schools were on summer or winter break. The timings of each training day spanned from 9:00 am to 5:00 pm.

PDP2 was reported to be well-designed to connect with the classroom practices of teachers and encouraged extensive reflection which helped the in-house program leaders to adapt the content during training according to the needs of the teacher participants. Participants felt that they were able to establish a deeper understanding when they were able to reflect on their practices and when their voice was heard in the training room. This program was based on the model, 'practice-reinforce-reflect-apply-embed'.

Contextualization of content. The extent to which learning in foreign professional development programs is situated in participants' context determines how successful trained participants will be in the classroom practices that they implement upon returning from training. As PDP1 was developed without the input of local teachers and was imported to be taught, it was seen to be lacking in content contextualization. Trainee teachers did not feel connected with the content and therefore its transfer into their classroom practice or the benefit to their professional context was limited.

PDP2, however, was developed and designed by program leaders who were selected from the local context. They acquired learning through training programs of a foreign university and were then required to submit a program plan based on the needs of their local context. Therefore, the scope and sequence of this foreign professional development program was very much connected with the participants of this course.

Program design. Lindvall et al. (2018) clearly analyze professional development programs in the light of teacher knowledge and teacher practice. PDP1, as has already been indicated, was developed in isolation by foreign trainers in a foreign country with no input from local stakeholders in the educational context of Pakistan where it was being implemented. The organization buying the expertise of these foreign universities merely communicated their policies and teaching competencies to the foreign training program providers and ready-made professional development courses were imported.

The program development team in the UK had worked in isolation without collecting local data on the teachers they were to subsequently train. Their limitations included lack of support from the organization in Pakistan in arranging sufficient school visits in the context to enable data collection prior to course development. As a result, the teacher educators that they trained from among the school heads were given the developed content to deliver in their schools which caused some dissatisfaction. In their interviews, the trainers who developed PDP1 were also of the view that knowing the context along with the knowledge of the content is very important for the transfer of knowledge to take place.

In addition, the training content handed over to trained teacher educators was in the form of PowerPoint slides with the assumption that the teaching competencies shared with them by the organization had been accomplished and knowledge transfer had taken place in a period of 3 weeks spread over 6 months. The program design had no follow-up planned and this was largely left to the school network's management as it was not negotiated in the original contract with the foreign trainers.

PDP2 design, however, reflects both teacher knowledge and teacher practice. The development of local program leaders is the first step towards taking into consideration the context of course participants. The local program leaders are knowledgeable about the requirements of teachers in their context, their current level of knowledge as well as their expected level of knowledge according to the set objectives and expectations of the foreign professional development program.

PDP2 also incorporates classroom practice by trainee teachers after each module where teachers return to their schools and implement the knowledge that they

have acquired in each phase of the course. They maintain reflective logs for each class taught and share these as assignments with the program leaders who are also the course developers. These assignments are assessed to see how the content is understood by trainee teachers during the teaching phase.

The year-long learning on PDP2 incorporates the ‘practice-reinforce-reflect-apply-embed’ cycle which gives trainee teachers the time to go back to their schools and socially construct their learning in their particular context (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The one shortcoming in this program implementation was the high turnover rate of teachers undergoing training at the researched context and the workload of program leaders that considerably slowed down their feedback timelines thus delaying assignments.

PDP2 has set objectives and weblinks detailing content and course development training all of which are made available to participants qualifying as program leaders. This program also encourages school-based structures which include the development of in-house mentors and final feedback on trainee teacher assignments from the core program leaders based in the UK where the program is facilitated from.

The Experience of Foreign Professional Development

Interviewees who participated in this study discussed their experiences and understandings through the lens of their particular position and what was significant to them in their unique context.

Administrators and teacher trainers. Predictably, the administrators and teacher trainers who were major stakeholders in the foreign professional development provided to teachers in Pakistan portrayed the strengths and benefits provided by the programs. These included skills development, ample opportunities for practice and application of content, capacity building in significant numbers to meet the organization management’s objectives, addressing differentiated needs, contemporary adult learning, institutional support, and the development of mentors as well as professional learning communities of UK-certified teachers in Pakistan.

Teacher participants. Teachers who participated in the foreign professional development programs felt that the financial investment was substantial on both programs and the nature of full or partial reimbursement as part of the employment contract that they signed with the organization was often a critical yet unhappy point of discussion. They expressed having acquired skills such as improved classroom practice, content application, and the ability to cater to differentiated needs. Participants believed that they had received adult learner-specific guidance on the courses and that there was some institutional support. They had also gained confidence over time and were able to step into mentor roles and form professional learning communities.

However, they did highlight issues with implementation of learning and experiencing a very slow process of change together with the obviously burdensome financial investment as each of these programs was paid for in foreign currency.

One must bear in mind that in a country with no pre-teaching certification or license requirements, individuals (mostly females) enter the teaching profession considering it easy, secure, and as an additional source of income that supports their families. Often, the training that they receive is on the job and as an internal requirement of their institution once they have been employed.

Other Areas of Concern

Various in-house barriers affect teachers' access to professional development and often they are unable to take advantage of learning opportunities available. A common reason for the administration to not remove these barriers consciously is that the change disrupts the normal, disciplined routine of schools and school operations.

Institutional support. Schools overburden teachers with additional teaching hours per teacher and thus hire fewer teachers for cost-effective operations. This affects the quality of teaching and learning and is also a reason for teachers to stay away from professional development activities.

Participants felt that there was a need to have substitute teachers in place for teachers who take time out for their own professional development. Since some administrators believed this created chaos in the school schedule, they generally discouraged teachers thus leading them to either opt out of the training programs or to participate in training without getting 100% involved in it.

Nomination of participants. Professional development activities are usually conducted off campus for which funds and resources are required. School administration generally chooses who participates in these activities based on who has the resources versus those who does not. They also choose training programs which cost less over those where school administration will have to spend on lodging, food, and travel for participants. This is a preferred approach unless a training program is declared mandatory by the organizational management. Hence, for professional development that requires travel, the organizational management often only nominates school heads who are then expected to cascade the training to their schoolteachers.

Financial Support. Participants recognized the positive role of the organization in subsidizing the foreign professional development courses they undertook or were required to undertake. All participants paid the course fees in installments determined by the management and signed a formal contract with the organization agreeing to serve a specific number of years following course completion to help generate revenue through in-house course delivery and to support the development of other teachers in the school network. The contract they signed also indicated either partial or complete reimbursement of the course fee following the completion of contract requirements.

Unavailability of data on teachers. School heads and the institutional administration are faced with a critical challenge—the lack of evidence-based data and associated

mechanisms to collect data. Regular collection of observation data and its analysis can be key in identifying which teachers require training or professional development and what sort of professional development is needed in the schools. The unavailability of such 'threatening' data which could expose the expertise of resources was perceived to be the main reason for the organization to continually nominate the same school heads or teachers for foreign professional development programs over and over again which made participants feel financially and physically overburdened.

Lack of school-based professional development. In the approach of school-based professional development, the school is the hub of the professional activity for the teachers and school leaders. Data is collected through observations, walk-throughs, and interviews of teachers. This data is analyzed, and action plans and timelines are created with key performing indicators (KPIs) for the schools. Training and development initiatives are then decided based on this data. Therefore, evidence-based and informed decision-making should be a priority keeping in mind the context of the school. At the time of this study, as participants revealed, there was an inconsistent spread of informal and formal professional development infrastructures in schools within the network.

It is clear from the data that foreign professional development programs within the context fail to develop teachers as expected due to the absence of informal school-based training programs and mentoring structures in schools. Extracting teachers from schools and immersing them in trainings and conferences off-site develops them with a disconnection to their context which is not helpful in the application of learning once they return to the context. Teachers who are supported by school-based professional development infrastructures find it easier to bridge the gap between knowledge gained during external training programs that they participated in and the context where they return to apply this learning.

Lack of progression in the programs. Participants on the two programs who participated in this study pointed out that there was lack of progression in the content of these courses. They felt that some of the content was repetitive and disconnected from the ground realities in schools where participants were employed. Participants expressed that an understanding of the real needs of teachers in the schools prior to implementing the foreign professional development programs would have been helpful, especially since they were committed to paying a huge amount of course fees in foreign currency and their salaries were insufficient to deduct installments of the fees from.

The situation is similar to Avidov-Ungar's (2016) research in which teachers were disinterested and demotivated to talk about professional development since they had no say in the planning and decision-making of their own professional development.

Conclusions and Recommendations

It is evident from this study that the majority of participants in the researched context perceived the foreign professional development programs to have increased their understanding and knowledge of teaching and learning in the classrooms. Others reflected on their practices and identified factors that made them unable to implement all that they learned in these programs. Those who were confident that they could transfer the learning to their classrooms did so because they were intrinsically motivated, and even in the absence of support from the administration they were able to make a difference.

Guskey (1995) makes a valid point in stating that the professional development of teachers must be looked at as a process and not as an event. Several participants in this study continually gave the impression of participating in an event rather than a process for each of the two programs. It is critical to note that if professional development of teachers in educational organizations does not bring about change in their classroom practices and subsequently in the organizational culture, then the professional development programs stand in isolation (Guskey, 1995).

Administrators in the organization blame their predecessors for lack of reforms and structures which are generally implemented from top down (Fullan, 2006). School administrations arbitrarily decide on the type of professional development initiatives and the context in which these will be delivered (locally or internationally) without considering that the degree of involvement of stakeholders (Cook et al., 2007) is an important factor in measuring the success or failure of the implementation of these professional development programs (Levin & Fullan, 2008).

This absence of dialogue plays a significant part in the failure of knowledge transfer from foreign professional development programs into the classrooms in the organization (Day & Smethem, 2009). This study reveals that despite a history of reform implementation in the form of professional development programs, teachers and school heads have failed to bring about the expected reforms planning as it appears on policy documents. This is because the reforms indicated in policy documents vary from the actual implementation which does not take into account the context and its inhabitants—teachers.

The organization's planning and vision was perceived to be increasingly focused on having participants sign a payment and legal service contract that bound them to the organization for a specific number of years in return for the upfront course fee payments made by the organization. During the term of this contract, participants paid back the course fee to the organization through monthly deductions from their salaries. This helped the organization recover their investment as well as generate additional revenue by training other new teachers in the network through the teachers who had been trained initially on the foreign professional development programs.

The school network has a history of low retention and high turnover which as Rodgers and Skelton (2014) discuss can be taken care of by support from the school organization's management especially in terms of guidance and support required by teachers to participate in professional development programs. Organizations which

know their employees and maintain data of their work are generally aware of which employees will prove beneficial for the organization. As such, they do not hesitate in investing in these employees by providing support structures in the form of free of charge or partially free foreign professional development. While some participants complained that the payment plans were burdensome, others spoke highly of the organizations' incentives of installment schemes that helped them avail of international professional development opportunities. To understand the varying views, it is helpful to know that the salary scales of teachers in various schools in the same network range from 200 to 950 USD per month.

Findings from this study have implications for theory, policy, and further research on the implementation of foreign professional development programs in private school contexts in Pakistan. It is important to understand the significance of these programs and the positive impact that they have on the teaching and learning environment in Pakistan through exposing teachers to international best practices in education.

There is a definite need for further research in this area in Pakistan especially in terms of policy development and directions set by the government for private school workforce development. An example from the researched context is that at the time of this study, the school network's professional development policy was being written from scratch, which seemed unusual for an organization that has been in business for nearly 40 years. It is interesting to note that in contrast to private sector schools, the professional development of teachers in the public sector educational institutions is well researched since it is mostly through initiatives of foreign donor agencies who keep track of their time, resources, and financial investment in a third-world country.

Several important considerations can be drawn from this study from the perspective of private school networks that are considering the implementation of foreign professional development programs. Firstly, it is critical to conduct a formal contextual needs analysis prior to agreeing to the program content design and development framework with the foreign consultant team. Data must be collected in detail and teaching competencies that teachers are required to demonstrate must be fully shared with the program development team to justify the training content. This process requires time and effort on part of both parties involved and requires the program development team to spend time in the context for a clear understanding of teacher development needs.

Secondly, schools must maintain up-to-date data on the learning, development, and performance of teachers against their required competencies so that fair nominations are made for professional development and learning initiatives.

Thirdly, it is important that the school network and the foreign professional development teams work in collaboration to devise follow-up mechanisms post training so that participants can understand and evaluate their own progress as well as work towards filling the gaps in their learning.

Fourth, a culture of school-based professional development must be inculcated in the educational organization which gives a sense of empowerment to the heads and teachers at the schools. It is clear that no form of professional development dictated

from outside of the school will be owned by the teachers and heads until their internal need arises.

It has been recognized globally that trained teachers and school heads can significantly improve school operations and the learning environment, and the schools where foreign professional development is available are doing better than other school systems in Pakistan. However, there is now a need to evaluate the meaningful implementation of the knowledge gained from these foreign professional development programs for schools to be able to receive improved support from foreign collaborations.

This study has attempted to fill a small part of the gap in research of foreign professional development programs in the private school sector in Pakistan. Similar research needs to be carried out in other private educational organizations where foreign professional development programs are being taught and different frameworks need to be developed to address the voice and the context of local teachers for better implementation of such programs in the private school context in Pakistan.

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Part II
Identity Construction

Chapter 5
Identity Construction Among Tertiary Teachers in Pakistan

Shagufta Moghal

Abstract Developing countries such as Pakistan when faced with the rapidly changing demands of contemporary professional environments necessitate the construction of fluid and flexible self-identities among teachers. Processes such as narrative inquiry are likely to enable teachers in such contexts to construct and understand their identities as well as the factors that shape and influence their personal and professional identities. This chapter provides insight into how administrators and policymakers in the Pakistani tertiary education context may facilitate teachers' awareness of the process of identity construction and provide the necessary support for new practitioners at the tertiary level.

Keywords Identity construction · Professional development · Teacher professional identity · Narrative inquiry · Semi-structured interviews

Introduction

The conceptions about teaching and teachers have undergone significant change so that teachers are no longer viewed as mere service providers promoting the values and goals of the institutions where they work. Such developments in teacher orientation and role expectations have resulted in a shift in teachers' sense of identity; i.e., the way they see themselves as teachers and what they perceive their roles to be. This necessitates the need to investigate the factors that play a part in teacher identity construction and development as well as the positive or negative influences associated with it.

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Defining Teacher Identity

Beijaard (1995: 281), defines identity as, 'who or what someone is, the various meanings people can attach to themselves, or the meanings attributed by others'. The constructivist view of teaching and teachers acknowledges their highly defined sense of identity, which according to Sachs (2005: 15), 'provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of 'how to be', 'how to act' and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society'. Thus, identity is constructed over time and is influenced by multiple factors as the teacher gains new personal and professional experiences (Olsen, 2008; Reeves, 2017).

Teacher identity is one of the key components in the process of 'becoming' a teacher; and hence, an integral aspect of teacher learning (Britzman, 2003; Tsui, 2011). The process of becoming an effective teacher with a unique sense of identity is 'multi-dimensional', 'idiosyncratic' and 'context-specific in nature' (Braga, 2001; Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997; Flores, 2001; Hauge, 2000). According to Day et al. (2003), identity is made up of competing interactions between personal, professional, and situational factors.

Conceptualizing Teacher Professional Identity

The professional aspect of teacher identity is perhaps the most important. Flores and Day (2006: 220) define the development of professional identity as 'an ongoing and dynamic process which entails making sense and (re)interpretation of one's own values and experiences' that is influenced by personal, social, and cognitive factor. Teacher identity and its construction, has become a subject of great interest in educational research in the last 5 years (Astuti, 2016; Barcelos, 2017; Barkhuizen, 2017; Donato, 2017; Duff, 2017; Farrell, 2017; Hallman, 2015; Jackson, 2017; Nunan, 2017; Reis, 2011; Richards, 2017; Varghese, 2017; White, 2017; Yayli, 2015).

Kelchterman's Five Aspects of Professional Identity

Kelchterman (1993) identifies five aspects that provide a concise understanding of teacher professional identity.

i. The *vision of oneself as a teacher* is related to self-image; it reveals how an individual describes oneself as a teacher, or one's awareness about how others perceive him/her as a teacher.
ii. *Evaluation of oneself as a teacher* is related to how one values oneself, in addition to comparing oneself with other professionals and with existing professional norms.

iii. *Job motivation* is connected to reasons and motives for entering and staying in the profession based on past and present experiences and influences.
iv. *Understanding of one's tasks as a teacher* entails how teachers define their work and perceive tasks associated with teaching, including the quality of the relationships with pupils and the level of cooperation with colleagues and peers.
v. *Future perspectives* are related to growth as a professional based on expectations, options, and opportunities that a teacher has for future development in the profession.

Identity of Second Language Teachers

According to Nunan (2017) English as a Second or Foreign Language (EFL/ESL) teachers are unique in that they use English both as a medium of instruction as well as the content of instruction. However, despite acquiring expertise in EFL or ESL proficiency, the distinction between native and non-native speaking English language teachers remains a thorny issue. This leads to '*dichotomiz(ing) the world neatly into "us" and "them"*' (Kaplan, 1999:5), and developing a sense of social disadvantage which subsequently lowers the professional's self-esteem and self-worth, a challenge not faced by teachers of other disciplines (Nunan, 2017: 165–166).

In view of globalization and the demand for non-native teachers, identity formation, and the development of English language teachers has increasingly become an important concept (Barcelos, 2017; Freeman, 2009; Martel & Wang, 2014). A study of the negotiations made by teachers is crucial in understanding the 'process' of teacher identity formation and is likely to help institutions and policymakers devise strategies that may expedite the reconciliation of teachers' perception of their identities with the work practices of institutions where they work (Izadinia, 2013; Lerseth, 2013; Olsen, 2008). Individual negotiations of tertiary teachers in the Pakistani context is a relatively less researched area and the aim of this chapter is to fill part of this gap by initiating research in this direction.

Researching Identities of English Language Teachers in Pakistan

A qualitative research approach was considered best suited to explore common themes that were expected to emerge from the narratives of participants' lived experiences in the context of Pakistan.

Population and Sample

Participants in this study comprised of tertiary teachers employed in either public or private universities, or degree-level institutions, all over Pakistan. Teachers with a minimum of 2 years working experience who also held a Master's degree (or equivalent) in English literature, TESOL, Linguistics or any related field were chosen to participate. Following preliminary conversations with 25 tertiary teachers, a group of six information-rich cases was identified through purposive sampling. The participants were assigned the pseudonyms of Amna, Atiqa, Faiza, Gia, Saima, and Sarmad.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data was collected using three methods:

i. *The 'life history' approach* to narrative inquiry, which incorporated teaching experiences in a constructivist manner (Lu, 2005)
ii. *Semi-structured, open-ended interviews* that provided insight into the views, perceptions, beliefs, opinions, and meaning making processes of participants about their identity
iii. *A narrative writing task* which highlighted the *storied themes* about participants' identity giving them the opportunity to choose for themselves what to include in their writing (Kyratzis & Green, 1997: 30).

The Miles and Huberman (1994) framework, that simultaneously enables data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing, was applied to the narrative data in order to interpret the meanings and embedded themes.

Pakistani Teacher Identities: Convergence and Divergence

A cross comparative analysis of participants' life histories, interviews, and written narratives generated six distinct categories based on reiterative themes that were prevalent in the narratives. These are as follows:

i. Family background and parental influence
ii. Effect of positive or negative educational experiences
iii. The role of organizational culture, leadership, and colleagues
iv. Personal changes and negotiations
v. Time and workload management
vi. The purpose and personal conviction for professional identity.

Family Background and Parental Influence

All participants' narratives reflected the initial influence of their parents' way of thinking or wishes on their choice of profession. Saima, for instance, had experienced a culture of women working as full-time professionals because both her mother and sister are teachers in the primary and secondary context, respectively. She mentioned that her home environment was conducive to her choosing teaching as a career; although as a child, she felt neglected with both parents working full time, which left her with low self-esteem.

Gia, who belonged to an educated family and was given the freedom to choose her occupation, attributes her choice of profession to factors other than family and parents. The trust and confidence that she received from family enabled her to construct a unique work ethic which is an integral part of her professional identity.

Faiza, on the other hand, faced a turbulent personal life which drove her to finding a well-needed sense of self-worth through her profession. Resultantly, part of her professional identity is based on never complaining and maintaining a tolerant attitude towards the challenges she faces in her daily work including identifying with her work environment and student sensibilities. While Faiza believes she has settled in well in the professional environment and career, her social circle, and family think otherwise. This skepticism has driven her to take pride in her professional identity and career which is the driving force in Faiza's life right now.

Effect of Positive or Negative Educational Experiences

Participants' own childhood experiences with their teachers emerged as another major influence on how they envisioned their personal and professional identities. Some aspired to be just like their teachers and teach by their philosophies or styles, while others were put off by their poor teaching experiences believing that they knew exactly what not to do in their classes. All participants held distinct memories of their educational experiences and the effect that these experiences had on their own development. For example, Amna, Atiqa, and Gia aspired to be like their own teachers who taught them with attention, care, and devotion, while the rest did not.

Faiza vividly remembers one teacher who stood out from the rest due to her harshness and who led her to develop a dislike for teachers in general. Saima, who as a child felt neglected both at home and school, grew up feeling that there were serious problems in the system that needed to be identified and that teachers should be more interested in their students. The need to eradicate such problems from the system as a teacher drove her to empathize and identify with her students.

The Role of Organizational Culture, Leadership, and Colleagues

Organizational culture, the role of department heads, senior leadership, and interactions with peers emerged as defining factors that play a pivotal role in how well participants adjusted into their professional roles. They particularly remembered leadership support or lack of it at the time of induction, department heads' attitudes, and cooperation from colleagues, all of which collectively made the experience of a new teacher smooth or otherwise leading them to take critical decisions about career paths, professional identities, and reactions to events.

Atiqa was welcomed and supported when she joined as a teacher, leading her to respond in a similar manner when a new teacher was introduced to her; while Saima was not positioned according to her qualifications initially and had to face a lot of criticism. Participants showed consensus on the need for a supportive work environment in order to help build a positive self-concept and professional identity among novice teachers.

Personal Changes and Negotiations

Participants believed personal changes were necessary for new teachers to accommodate themselves into the teaching profession and acknowledged that they had all been through the experience which was not an easy one as they revealed.

As one participant, Amna stated, '*you read one thing theoretically, but the practical or real experience is something very different*'. Such experiences propelled the then new teachers to work hard at adjusting and coping with the demands of their new profession. They had to adjust to the environment and culture of the organization and evolve their own thinking to encompass the overall goals and aims of the organization. Gia, for example, explained that she had to change how she viewed the profession and what it entailed, even in terms of the responsibilities which were too much for her initially. These narratives make it clear that getting used to the profession needs time and adjustments, like any other process.

Time and Workload Management

The theme of time shortage and heavy workloads, which is almost universal when it comes to teaching, is reiterated in the narratives of participants in this study as well. Sarmad referred to teaching as a 24/7 job which continues after school hours too when teachers are planning for the next day. Administrative work is an essential part of the teaching profession and it takes up much of their time after school. Extracurricular duties are an additional responsibility expected of them. Consequently, heavy

workload takes its toll on teaching practice and the in class performance of teachers, including preparation time, mode of instruction, assigned tasks, and evaluation. Gia shared her personal code that she used to cope with additional demands up to a certain limit: '*If there are outrageous demands or something unexpected, I ask them to specify a time period for it. I want them to be exact and specific in what they want and then decide if I can comply. If the demand is indefinite, I walk away*'. This may not be a stance taken by most teachers but provides an alternate insight into this aspect of teacher identity.

The Purpose and Personal Conviction for Professional Identity

Underlying all practical and theoretical aspects about teaching and the role of teachers in the learning process, is the purpose and driving force which drives teachers to pursue the profession of teaching. Participants' stories revealed that while some were driven by a desire to make language learning easy and smooth for the learner, others felt that making students understand a point is most important. Whereas some teachers felt the need to contribute and give back to society, others were focused on enabling students to think critically and making them independent and autonomous learners. Still others wanted their students to feel a sense of self-worth and tried to give them individual attention that would help build their confidence and groom their personality. Despite appearing rather idealistic, such personal convictions can be seen as desirable in teaching and mentoring.

Underpinnings of Pakistani Teacher Professional Identity

An analysis of participants' narratives considering Kelchterman's (1993) five aspects of professional identity provides the underpinnings for factors that have an impact on teacher identity construction in the tertiary educational context in Pakistan.

Vision of Oneself as a Teacher

This aspect features the guiding principles underlying a teacher's professional self. A successful teacher was regarded as one who combined up-to-date knowledge of content and methodologies, had adequate teaching experience and demonstrated the right attitude that showcased a demeanor of humility and accessibility for students. Participants as teachers were not only focused on imparting knowledge but also envisioned themselves as guides who inspired, groomed, and trained students to be

better socially, morally, and ethically. They wanted students to develop as critical thinkers and practitioners who could question and construct an acceptable reality for themselves.

Evaluation of Oneself as a Teacher

Achieving a balance between the image of self and prevalent professional norms associated with teaching is based on some criteria against which teachers evaluate themselves. Often teachers believe that they are half-way successful as teachers. Issues such as those related to practice, subject knowledge and its application, fulfilling teaching requirements, teaching skills, and methodologies as well as assessments are some areas that emerged as criteria for teachers to reflect on and self-evaluate.

Job Motivation

There are diverse reasons that encourage teachers to either join or join and stay in the teaching profession. These include comfort in the role as a teacher, recollections of one's own time as a student, self-respect, independence through personal earning, student affection, respect, a sense of importance, and a sense of contributing to change and influencing student viewpoints and ways of thinking.

Understanding of One's Tasks as a Teacher

English language teachers' understanding of their individual roles is related to their teaching practice and relationships with peers as well as students. Teachers, as is evident from the narratives of participants in this study, interpret their roles in multiple ways; as facilitators, guides and initiators of the use of ESL. Some teachers view the knowledge of English language and the ability to use it as setting the basis for understanding of other subjects thereby affecting students' success or failure in education and defining the opportunities they get in the future. The role of the English language teacher thus becomes apparent as a portal to the language itself.

Future Perspectives

Based on their professional experiences and aspirations for career advancement teachers have individual future perspectives that may include further study, gaining

more confidence and comfort in their role as a teacher, doing research, and continuing to serve the profession in any capacity.

An analysis of these five aspects of identity sheds light on very distinctive factors that shape the professional selves of teachers and act as the personal code of conduct for them. This code is constructed as a result of their experiences as practitioners and the circumstances of their day-to-day practice.

Implications

The process of identity construction for the tertiary-level teachers in the Pakistani educational context is a highly individualized and subjective process. No two cases are alike even if they are from the same context and same organizational environment and culture. This leads to the conclusion that no one formula or set of rules may be adopted to facilitate teachers as they construct their identities.

In analyzing data using Kelchterman (1993) aspects of professional identity, many diverse opinions and beliefs came to light. The vision of oneself as a teacher and the personal criteria of self-evaluation distinctively make it evident that contextual, organizational, and environmental changes, as well as the administrative demands and mind-set, alter the way teachers perceive their identities and self-images.

Offering Support and Guidance for Teacher Identity Construction

An in-depth engagement with participant narratives provides insight into how teachers' experiences may be affected for the better if some changes on the institutional, administrative, and educational policy levels are made. A few recommendations based on these observations are presented here.

Providing students with career counseling during secondary and tertiary education will help to recognize the potential of students with an inherent ability to become teachers. Teacher training encompassing teaching methodologies may reduce the experience of shock and disillusionment that teachers experience at the onset of their career. School administration should arrange for personality profiling and identification tests for prospective teachers in order to ascertain if they are compatible with the organizational and collegial environment of their institute.

Government educational policies should focus on regulating, monitoring, and restricting the amount of work assigned to individual teachers. Where required, teacher assistants should be made available to help with administrative and extracurricular tasks. School administration or leadership should take the initiative to improve their respective organizational environment, focusing on the spirit of cooperation, sharing and support for one's colleagues.

Institutions should improve their induction of new teachers' policy and processes by assigning mentors to new teachers in order to help them learn the ropes of the profession, assimilate into the organizational culture, and to provide individual guidance as they negotiate their identities within the work environment.

Multiple methods of assessing teacher success should be employed by the administration to gauge teacher performance, improvement, and achievement. The process rather than the product of teaching should be under focus.

The personal and personal-professional spheres of identity should be given due consideration alongside the professional and interpersonal aspects. If personal needs are not addressed, teachers may experience feelings of dissatisfaction, low self-esteem, and lack of confidence. No undue constraints should be placed on the inherent personality traits and qualities that teachers bring to their professions; any idiosyncrasies may be adapted to the teaching requirements and may prove vital in making the educational experience unique. Restrictions, on the other hand, may negatively influence individual teachers and lessen their passion or commitment to the profession.

In addition to retaining their interest in the profession, opportunities for growth, professional development, and research should be available to all teachers to enable constant evolution and improvement as practitioners.

Conclusion

The process of identity construction is a conscious and dynamic phenomenon that empowers teachers to make judgment calls and choices in their daily interactions as professionals. Teachers are thus active participants in how their identity is shaped or reshaped. The many adjustments and changes that occur during the initial stages of a teacher's career mostly belong to the personal-professional, professional, and interpersonal dimensions of teacher identity. If the process of identity construction and development is studied from various perspectives, policymakers, and administrators can play significant roles in supporting teachers in their professional journeys. Factors such as diverse family backgrounds, parental influence as motivation, positive or negative educational experiences, the role of the organizational culture, leadership and colleagues in shaping identity, and personal convictions must be considered to better understand the personal and professional identity of teachers.

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Chapter 6
Non-native Teacher Identity in Saudi Universities

Mubina Rauf

Abstract The professional identity of Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNEST) has been an issue of frequent debate and research in the world of TESOL. This study aims to gain insight into the perspectives of NNESTs about their professional identities in an expanding circle country (Saudi Arabia). The context of this study is the Intensive English Program in state universities where Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTs) are currently employed in majority. To explore the identity of teachers, a dialogic approach was implemented drawing on Bakhtinian methods. Semi-structured interviews were employed to construct a narrative study around four NNESTs' experiences at their workplace. Interpretation of emergent data includes a comparison of their stories which reveal that NNESTs perceptions of their professional identities are based on a multitude of factors such as their personal and educational background, financial disparity at work, job uncertainty, and the influence of constant interaction with NESTs on their personalities. Following a discussion of the emergent themes, the study concludes by identifying steps that could reduce the NEST-NNEST dichotomy.

Keywords Professionalism · NNEST identity · Dialogism · Diversity

Introduction

The professional identity of Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) has been a perennial issue of debate and research in the world of TESOL. Interestingly, most of this research has been conducted by NNESTs themselves (Braine, 2005). Despite their skills and qualifications, NNESTs struggle persistently to construct their identities and to prove themselves as legitimate TESOL professionals in their teaching contexts (Canagarajah, 1999).

The motivation for this study comes from my own status as a NNEST and my long association with the Intensive English Programs (IEPs) in state universities at

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an expanding circle country (Kachru, 1990). My extended experience in one of these programs is the perpetual, unspoken fear of being asked what made me better than those whose first language was English.

As Okawa (cited in Thomas, 1999, p. 5) puts it, 'I sometimes feel that I have to do twice as well to be accepted' and that 'my initial credibility as a teacher or lack thereof—was related to my race'. Admittedly, my identity as an ESL teacher in the IEPs is uncertain and/or 'second best' (Richardson, 2016).

This study intends to gain insight into the perspectives of NNESTs about their professional identities in a context where NESTs are in majority. The context is that of the IEPs at state universities in an expanding circle country. The study also explores how NNESTs in these contexts construct and conceptualize their identities in the 'other world' of NESTs majority (Lu, 2005).

NNEST Identity

Teacher identity is strongly connected to personal and social realities. The personal journey starts with learning, reflecting, and relearning. This phase enables teachers to strengthen their theoretical and professional knowledge (Johnson, 2009). The social aspect is about the different roles of teachers wherein they are in perpetual negotiation of how they relate to this world (Pennycook, 2001). These roles develop with being a member of a larger teacher community and with classroom practice (Tsui, 2007). The two concepts of community and practice are at the heart of understanding the professional identity of a teacher (Wenger, 1998).

An ESL teacher's professional identity is a dynamic concept. It is transitional and changes according to the context. Coldron and Smith (1999) emphasize the significance of the tension between agency (the personal dimension in teaching) and structure (the socially 'given') with reference to professional identity. The latter point is about an identity that is 'socially legitimized' (Richardson, 2016). If professional identity is investigated from the angle of NNESTs social position in the researched context, the question arises about whether their status is socially legitimized because although they are regarded as the next best to NESTs, they are never the best. This legitimization plays an important role in the construction and conceptualization of their identity.

The dichotomy between NESTs and NNESTs is one of the most debated issues in the world of TESOL, which as Davies (1991) argues, is power-driven, identity-laden, and most likely affects the confidence of NNESTs. Despite several studies on the strengths and contributions of NNESTs (Braine, 1999; Cook, 1999; Holliday, 1994; Medgyes, 1992), their image 'seems rigid and polarized in the field of language teacher education' (Huang, 2014: 120). Reviews of surveys that illustrate no prejudice against NNESTs show that these surveys are 'more politically correct than accurate' (Braine, 2005: 22) and that the stated attitudes do not coincide with actual behavior (Arva & Medgyes, 2000). The public descriptors of high-stakes standardized exams ask for native-speaker or 'native-like' proficiency that can only be

taught by a NEST who is the best model of English language, thus leaving NNESTs in a situation where goal-posts are perpetually being moved by people they cannot often challenge (Rampton, 1990:99). This 'introjected notion', as is prevalent in the researched context has a highly negative impact on the construction of NNESTs' professional identity (Richardson, 2016).

The field of TESOL is definitely not discrimination-free, as Selvi (2014) argues and NNESTs suffer the most from these blatant and subtle practices of promoting native-speakerism (Holliday, 2005). In fact, according to Richardson (2016), discrimination is a choice that institutions and employers make.

The Research Study

Context

Vu (2016) argues that the dimensions of ELT professionalism rest upon the complexities of two categories—'from within' and 'from above'. The former is shaped by personal attributes of teachers as professionals and the latter emphasizes external forces such as market demands, managerialism, and ideology. The IEPs in this study are based on the 'from above' category which means their policies are determined top-down by institutional management, and their recruitment policy assumes that the ideal English teacher is a native speaker by virtue of being native, despite academic qualification being the top criterion on paper (Alenazi, 2012; Medgyes, 1992; Pacek, 2005; Stern, 1983; Thornbury, 2006). Phillipson (1992) argues that this widely accepted 'native speaker fallacy' has had a long-lasting impact on language education policies.

However, soaring demands in IEPs lead to hiring NNESTs, but the criteria for recruiting them is more rigorous than NESTs. This includes lower salaries and no guarantees of retention giving rise to perpetual struggle for equal treatment along with lower confidence and self-esteem. Alsup (2006) argues that teachers' sense of professional identity is synonymous with their level of self-confidence, and it needs space for development. Suarez (2000) is of the view that NNESTs become victims of 'I am not a native speaker syndrome' which affects their morale disastrously. This explains the use of terms such as 'stepchildren' and 'second class citizens' to refer to the treatment meted to NNESTs at their workplaces (Mahboob, 2005; Rajagopalan, 2005).

Research Questions

The situation described leads to questions such as:

- What do NNESTs think about the myth of NESTs being the best?
- How does this notion influence their growth and professional development?

- What steps, if any, do they take for their own survival?

Identity serves as an ideal tool towards understanding what happens '*with, for* and *to* people in given contexts and the resulting effects on the whole person' (Johnston, 2012: 2).

The focus of this study is to investigate the issues that NNESTs face, the way their professional identities evolve in a NEST majority environment and the impact of their relationship with NESTs on their professional identity. The questions posed are as follows:

i. How do NNESTs perceive their professional identity in IEPs at state universities?
ii. How do NNESTs construct and conceptualize their professional identities in a NEST majority work environment?
iii. How do NNESTs' relationships with NESTs influence the way they see themselves as English teachers?

Methodology

Bell (2002) elaborates on the epistemological assumption behind narrative methodology as human beings making sense of random experiences by imposing story structures. Narrative is thus a way of using language to construct stories (Bruner, 1990). Sometimes, we come to know ourselves through the stories we can or cannot tell and thus form our narrative identity (Ricoeur, 1984).

According to Connelly and Clandinin (1999: 4), teachers are identified from the 'stories they live by'. These stories give teachers a narrative thread that helps them to create meaning through their experiences and find new ways to shape their professional identities that lead them to new stories (Beijaard et al., 2004). This 'narrative theorizing' is best done in a reciprocal relationship to the identities of others with whom they work.

Bakhtin's (1981) framework of 'dialogism' is significant in identity development as teachers engage in dialogue with the discourses around them, sort out the multiple voices and use them for their own purpose (Assaf, 2005). They 'create reciprocity… that allows them to continually negotiate who they are…' (Hallman, 2015: 5). Maclure (1993) explains that the Bakhtinian discourse analysis is based strictly on language itself and takes teachers' narrative as being discursively constructed. Any competing discourses that conceptualize this discursive construction allow contradiction without 'a general descent into incoherence' which enriches data and makes it interesting (Johnston, 1997: 687).

Participants

Four Asian NNESTs participated in the study to relate stories of their experiences, perspectives about their shifting identities along with the changing workplace policies, and the uncertainties associated with their jobs. The sampling was purposive based on including teachers who had commendable performance reviews and student feedback. While participants all work in the same environment and have the same job descriptions, their social, and educational backgrounds are different which means that there were more variations and complexities in their careers as compared to similarities.

Data Collection

For the purpose of this study, I drew on the Bakhtinian methods premised on a dialogic approach to exploring teacher identity. Semi-structured interviews were used to construct a narrative study around NNESTs' experiences at their workplace. Interviews were conducted following the standard qualitative procedures (Kvale, 2007) by including core and peripheral topics in the schedule, however, keeping the sequence flexible depending on what the participants wanted to talk about. Two out of the four interviews were done on Skype, while the others were conducted face to face. All the interviews were recorded and later transcribed before being analyzed. Researchers argue that it is not only the story that should be narrated but also the hidden meanings and perceptions in the story that should be identified and discussed at length (Bell, 2002; Pavlenko, 2002). Hence, the Bakhtinian approach that asks for careful, respectful, and holistic reading of the transcripts to identify the competing discourses was used to analyze the transcripts. (Johnston, 1997).

Validity

Validation entails trustworthiness in qualitative research through establishing accuracy and credibility of research findings (Cresswell, 2014) and identifies the value of truth, applicability, consistency, and neutrality as the four major concerns (Guba, 1981). Narrative researchers aim to convince readers of the validity of their claims (Polkinghorne, 2007) by interpreting the text in a justifiable manner. According to Schwandt (2000: 192), this interpretation can be done in two ways: either 'break out of … historical conditions to reproduce the meaning' or interpret data through the lens of your prejudices. This study is a mix of both. Since I have also been a part of the researched context, my interpretations are likely to be occasionally biased. Hence, it is the readers who will eventually decide how plausible the claim is, based on the evidence and argument presented.

Findings

Findings revealed that teachers' perceptions of their professional identities were based on many factors such as their personal and educational backgrounds, financial discrimination experienced at work, job uncertainty, constant interaction with NEST colleagues, and the resulting influence on their personalities. Given below are brief profiles of the participants in this study and a discussion of common themes.

Participant Profiles

See Table 6.1.

Arfa

Arfa started her career as a school teacher and then did the CELTA before joining a university IEP program. She has 8 years of experience as an EFL teacher and coordinator. When asked about her professional identity as a NNEST, she said:

> '*It took me a lot of time to understand that… because like every Asian I had that 'white man supremacy' idea in my head only to realize afterwards that not everyone is the same and that eventually I came to know that … I was… even I (emphatic) was quite educated and quite experienced in this field. I always had that inferiority complex when I saw natives…especially their accent…*'

She felt hurt when she discovered that her salary was half of what a NEST was getting despite not being as qualified as she was. Interestingly, it was her 'inferiority

Table 6.1 Teachers' profiles

Name	Nationality	Qualification	Teaching experience (years)	Other experience
Arfa	Indian	• Master's in education and history • CELTA	8	Assessment coordinator
Rania	Egyptian	• Master's in English literature • TEFL certification	16	Trainer recruiter
Ayla	Pakistani	• Master's in applied linguistics • CELTA	7	NA
Zeni	Pakistani	• Master's in applied linguistics • CELTA	4	NA

complex' that made her persevere to prove herself through the years. With experience, she learned that she was in some ways, better than her NEST counterparts but her 'inferiority complex' always stayed with her. She gradually progressed in her career by becoming a lead teacher first and then a coordinator. She believes that it was her continual hard work, something that NESTs do not need to do, that led to her success.

> '*I had to be extra careful. I had to be extra prepared … I had to be extra vigilant yeah, I constantly have to prove myself… that hasn't ended yet…*'

Arfa's narrative reveals that despite being a successful EFL teacher, she still experiences student disappointment at the beginning of each new class when they see an Indian as their English teacher. She narrated interesting stories of how each time she started a new class of students, she applied different strategies to convince the students that she was a qualified, experienced teacher, and went 'the extra mile' to ensure that they enjoyed the language learning experience in the classroom.

Arfa was confident that she could teach better grammar than her NEST colleagues and could empathize more with the language learning problems of her students. However, she felt that NESTs are highly professional in their approach towards everything, whereas NNESTs tend to get emotional even in work related matters. Alsup (2006) states that their personal self is not integrated with their professional self to take on a thoroughly professional role and at the same time maintain their strength as an individual.

The intriguing part of Arfa's story is the companionship with her 'inferiority complex', that is almost like a comfort zone that she does not want to get rid of. It can be assumed that since equality to her NEST counterparts is an impossible dream, she remains content with the status quo and continues to work persistently to 'prove herself'.

Rania

Rania believes that she knows what goes on behind the scenes regarding recruiting teachers and running EFL programs. In 2018, she left a lucrative management position to return to her passion of EFL teaching.

Rania has no qualms about being a NNEST and claims to be better than NESTs in many ways. She understands her students well and knows what teaching strategies should be used in various situations. She is content at being successful in her career and her benchmark is that NEST colleagues regularly consult her regularly for teaching ideas.

She believes that discriminatory hiring practices have changed for the better because of student feedback. Student complaints for NESTs are no less than that of the NNESTs. Rania disagreed that NNESTs face the threat of unemployment at the end of every academic year despite being qualified and experienced. She firmly believes that the hiring criteria have changed, and that EFL/ESL qualifications and certifications are given priority by recruiters.

However, her frustration was evident when discussing the discrepancy in salaries. At her workplace, NNESTs were deprived of their summer salary, but NESTs with similar qualifications and work profile as hers were not. In fact, some NESTs had much less work than was expected of NNESTs in her context and they were paid much better. This situation, as Rania felt, created the risk of impacting on students' development. For example, it was important to consider the expectations of sincere efforts from a teacher who was financially marginalized in comparison to colleagues.

Interestingly, Rania detached herself from this group of NNESTs because as she put it, 'this could affect teachers who… don't have the passion to teach'. She attempted to not think too much over the financial marginalization aspect of her job because her work environment was healthy, and the attitude of her NEST colleagues was positive. Nevertheless, Rania implicitly expressed that it was hard not to feel inferior when one was being paid less than one's counterparts but there was not much choice.

Rania is a confident and optimistic person who has developed herself professionally while working alongside NESTs. However, deep down one can relate to her frustrations that come with unfair practices that prevail among administration in dealing with NNESTs.

Rania perceives that bilingual teachers are better than NESTs because when teachers share their students' first language, they are aware of the difficulties from firsthand experience (Richardson, 2016). However, she asserted that she never spoke Arabic with her students and continually worked on her accent to become more native-like which made her successful as a teacher. Despite existing research that the use of L1 in teaching the second language has cognitive and pedagogical advantages (Canagarajah, 1999; Cook, 2001), the predominant method in the researched context is that of using English only in the classroom.

There are ambiguities in Rania's narrative, and one can observe a quick change in stance on some matters. Nevertheless, she brims with confidence that she could appropriate her professional identity without sacrificing her 'local identity' as an Arab (Norton, 2013:18).

Ayla

Ayla, who wanted to work in a pre-university IEP soon after completing the CELTA, was met with disappointment when she started applying for jobs. She describes her experience as follows:

> '*Of course, I have a Pakistani passport and they offered me a really low package… right, so I was like …. you advertised this is what you pay but why aren't you paying me the same and they said, 'Well you better go and change your passport then'…and the recruiter was like… 'yeah, when I speak to her I look at her credentials. She is perfect and you know she is eligible to have a certain package…but then because she doesn't have that certain passport we are looking for so we can't offer her that much'... so, I actually didn't accept it and I felt very bad.*'

That was at the beginning of her career. Eventually, she accepted a job where the salary was adequate but still lower than her NEST colleagues. With the passage of time, she became indifferent towards the financial discrimination between overqualified NNESTs and under qualified NESTs. In taking the marginalization for granted, she appears to have conformed to what is the norm in her specific work environment that, 'NESTs have to be treated better than NNESTs'. Richardson, as interviewed by Horne (2015), argues that the 'dominant discourse' about the native speaker being ideal has been around for so long that everybody has started believing it, including the NNESTs. Ayla's narrative illustrates her belief in that 'dominant discourse'.

When asked if she had to work harder to prove herself, at first, she denied it and then in due course agreed that more effort was expected from NNESTs;

> '*…to be honest, I don't think there is any discrimination… It's only the monetary side… I haven't felt that because I am a non-native so I will have to put in extra effort to prove my teaching skills… yeah, I've seen natives being treated differently, but to be honest, I just take it for granted. They (the management) might not pressurize a native teacher as they might pressurize or sometimes overload a non-native teacher… … as Asians …we just tend to do a lot of hard work… so the more you do the more you are dumped stuff on… so it's like as with native speakers probably they (the management) just take it for granted that 'oh she's not going to do an extra whatever', right? …. Yeah, if you call it discrimination, yeah …that's there… I mean subconsciously somewhere maybe they (NNESTs) try to prove themselves…*'

For Ayla, this unfair treatment was not an issue that she wanted to spend time thinking about. She would rather spend time on her work. Despite her qualifications and experience, her sense of being a genuine EFL teacher was in contradiction. This clearly suggests that she has taken on what Golombek and Jordan (2005) refer to as the burden of NNESTs for accepting the responsibility to achieve a certain native-speaker-defined intelligibility.

Zeni

After working for three and a half years in an IEP at pre-university level, Zeni left the job. She narrates that she was highly motivated and excited to work in the beginning. She even put in a lot of effort to do the job 'perfectly', however, this motivation did not last for long. As Johnson and Golombek (2002) suggest, not all narratives have happy endings. Constant discrimination discouraged her to the point that she quit the job and returned to her home country:

> '*They were offering better salary packages to native speakers than non-native speakers and also to those 'desis' (Pakistani immigrants), who had got the (right) nationality (passports)… so, there was a big discrimination in that scenario and of course, job insecurity as well because at the end of every year … we were in a fix whether we were going to get the contract or not…*'

She left the job despite being retained for 4 years because she was in a state of constant fear. Unlike her NEST colleagues, she was not given classes or levels according to her preference. Teaching ESP to 80 students at an advanced level was an undesirable situation that no one else was willing to do, so, it was thrust upon her. It was a unique

challenge, but she managed without any student complaints. However, the stress led to depression which affected her health. She argued that this would never happen to NESTs because they would never accept such treatment.

Zeni's 'sense of self', constituting her values, beliefs, emotions, actions, and reactions, that amalgamated into her individual identity (Gee, 2000) was damaged by a specific incident to the point that she was left with no positive opinion about either her students or her NEST colleagues. She felt that students exhibited more deference to NESTs than NNESTs regardless of what effort was put into their development by NNESTs. Despite having a good rapport with her students, she did not expect them to revere her owing to her nationality.

Her experience with NEST colleagues was that they regarded themselves as superior, 'because they were natives'. She narrated how at one point, her team teacher, who was a NEST, did not consider her to be good enough to sit with her and discuss lesson planning and forced her to follow whatever she thought best. However, Zeni highlighted that some NEST colleagues were good friends and that she had learned from them.

Zeni's narrative is a classic case of a 'stranger on the periphery' where either her presence is ignored or she is made invisible (Thomas, 1999: 5). The challenges she faced stem not only from the management and co-workers but also her students. Thomas (1999) posits that this trickle-down effect is natural since students value what they see is being valued and undermine what they see is being undermined.

Emergent Themes

The aim of this study was to understand NNESTs' construction and conceptualization of their professional identities in an environment where NESTs are in majority. The study also aimed to investigate the influences, the interactions, existence or absence of teamwork, and negative or positive attitudes if any, of the NEST majority community on the NNESTs minority. The common themes that emerged as part of the identity construction framework are complexity, diversity, and collaboration. They are discussed (Fig. 6.1).

Identity Construction Framework

See Fig. 6.1.

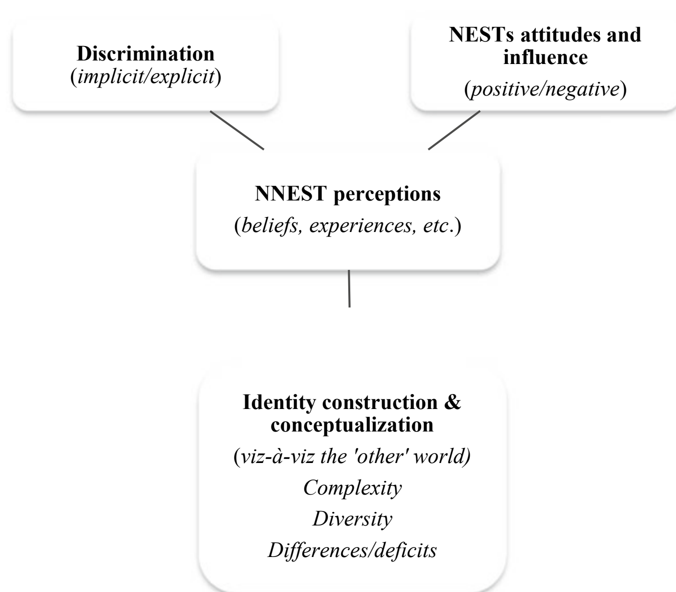

Fig. 6.1 Identity construction framework

Complexity

Duff and Uchida (1997: 471) state that complexity is inherent in studies that explore the relationships between language teaching and teachers, particularly when teacher identities are being ‘reflected upon’.

The four teachers in this study were among the best EFL teachers in the IEPs where they were employed. Yet they grappled with the never-ending issue of non-nativeness.

A deeper look into the narratives of the four teachers in this study reveals contradictions, denials, and implicit or explicit frustration. Richardson (2016) refers to NNESTs as ‘shying away’, when they use voice recordings of native speakers in their classrooms instead of modeling the language themselves. In this study, this phrase aptly represents Ayla’s and, to some extent, Rania’s attitude of ignoring the reality by ‘shying away’ from the fact that they themselves are being treated unfairly based on their passports. We find them getting frustrated over the inequalities they confront, yet simultaneously distancing themselves from their own community. This ‘deficit view’ of NNESTs (Richardson, 2016) is difficult to absorb while struggling to find a place in the ‘other’ world.

Arfa and Zeni, on the other hand, understand that they can never be equal in status to their NEST counterparts. However, their approach is starkly different from each other. Zeni’s story depicts a contradiction between her beliefs that were constructed through her ‘expert’ knowledge and what she experienced in the IEP where her knowledge as an EFL/ESL expert was not working for her. This shift shattered both

her 'sense of expertise' and her 'affective sense of self-worth' (Johnson & Golombek, 2002: 311) as a teacher. Being unable to resolve this contradiction, she quietly left the context.

Arfa's 'inferiority complex' lives with her permanently. According to Medgyes (2001), a NNEST's inferiority complex is the belief that their knowledge of the target language is always inadequate and that they will always remain incapable of measuring up to the linguistic standards that are so valued in the profession. Nevertheless, Arfa is content and happy as she thinks this is what makes her perpetually persevere and 'go the extra mile' to satisfy her students.

Diversity

Park (2012) argues that diversity among NNESTs has not yet gained the attention of researchers. Likewise, Huang (2014) identifies that NNESTs have been placed in the literature in a single group instead of highlighting their diversity.

Whereas Arfa's narrative illustrates the 'ultimate acceptance' of her NNEST identity in a positive manner, Zeni's narrative demonstrates negative experiences throughout the time that she spent in the IEP, resulting in a crushed identity and 'self-marginalization' (Park, 2012).

Rania confidently claims her NNEST identity, seeing it as a kind of privilege that bilingual teachers have in second/foreign language teaching. There is, however, an implicit desire to 'be in and be seen as a legitimate member' of the IEP and not the second best (Park, 2012: 141).

Ayla, the youngest participant, seemed extremely busy in her teaching activities and continuous professional development, so much so that her NNEST identity can never be questioned. There is a clear detachment in her manner, and she seems estranged from herself (Sumara & Kapler, 1996).

Collaboration

It is surprising that despite the dichotomy, most NNESTs find their NEST colleagues helpful and cooperative and vice versa (Celik, 2006). Both NNESTs and NESTs are necessary and vital (Moussu & Llurda, 2008) in contexts where they use their expertise jointly. This will ultimately empower NNESTs and strengthen the effectiveness of the IEPs (Liu, 2007).

Most research on self-perceptions of NNESTs indicates that that they acknowledge the existence of differences between themselves and NESTs in terms of language proficiency and teaching behavior (Braine, 2005). Findings from this study reveal a third factor as well. With few exceptions, the participants of this study expressed positive feelings towards their NEST counterparts. Rania and Arfa openly acknowledged how much they had learned from them in terms of both pedagogy and personality

development. According to both, their qualified NEST colleagues had a strong sense of professionalism that they tried to emulate and found it to positively impact on their work attitude. As the following participants expressed,

> '*We have constant interaction with the natives and some of them are really good friends… they have this knack of handling things… we tend to be emotional but … the natives… they are professionals, thorough professionals… definitely, you accept so much you absorb so much … learning goes on as you keep meeting teachers with different perceptions on teaching.*' (Arfa)

> '*They are more professional than we are here… and I think the level of professionalism is higher there (NEST countries). So, when they come here, they expect the same. We are more emotional…. Sometimes this affects our work, the way we run things…so, I would say that I learned about professionalism when I began working with native teachers… yeah, to be honest I didn't know what professionalism exactly means until I started working with them…Of course, I learned the language better…I learned the everyday language you see…*' (Rania)

Instead of creating divisions, it is crucial to distinguish between NESTs and NNESTs as professionals and to recognize their differences as strengths (Maum, 2002). One effective way of complementing the strengths of both NESTs and NNESTs is team teaching, which is common in IEPs (Medgyes, 2001). Cook (1999) argues that comparisons between the two should yield difference, not deficits. Hence, it is worth noting that people cannot be expected to conform to the norm of a group to which they do not belong, and, when they speak differently, they are not speaking better or worse, just differently. Generally, there is a shortage of studies on successful collaboration between NESTs and NNESTs, and further research is required to explore such possibilities.

Conclusion

This study investigated the issues that NNESTs face while working in a NEST majority EFL environment. Findings illustrate how NNESTs struggle to construct and conceptualize their identities in a challenging environment. Bakhtin's dialogic approach of exploring the relationship between the 'self' and the 'other' helped in understanding the fluid and complex nature of NNEST identity itself. Bakhtin's theory that 'individuals are persuaded by conversants who have authority … either an individual or larger society' (Hallman, 2015: 6), is aligned with the findings of this study. Moreover, findings also prompt us to pay attention to the narratives of NNESTs in this specific context. While collecting more stories of NNESTs with different backgrounds, other patterns of identity construction could appear (Vaci, 2011). Administration in multicultural contexts should pay more attention to exploring the personal self of NNESTs that will be helpful in training new NNESTs who join the IEPs. This can help create awareness and lead towards a process of identity construction that is smooth and positive in nature.

The study also highlights the dire need to address the NEST-NNEST dichotomy issues in TESOL education programs. The narratives in this study show 'commonalities that TESOL education programs have not sufficiently addressed' (Simon-Maeda, 2004: 406). Traditionally, these programs stress more on methodology and proficiency (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson & Golombek, 2002). There is no option of teachers becoming aware of the realities of how marginalization and certain fallacies could influence their career development and identity.

Interviews for this study were conducted during the summer break when participants were not under any contractual obligations. While I used pseudonyms to retain the anonymity of participants and avoided any reference to their places of work, there remains the possibility that teachers who participated in this study might not have been open about the native/non-native policies in places where they had worked and may have avoided saying anything controversial against the discriminatory practices adopted by the management. Future research could include multiple interviews taken at different times of the academic year. For example, in the case of Zeni it would be interesting to follow how she lost her energy and confidence during her job. This might enlighten how a teacher could be facilitated in extraordinary circumstances to develop his/her identity.

My own position as a NNEST may have influenced the objectivity of this study and limited its validity. While collecting data, at times I felt like I was re-living my own experiences while the participants narrated their stories. Having said that, we do find examples of NNESTs documenting their own lived stories (Amin, 1997; Braine, 1999; Liu, 2004; Thomas, 1999). Indeed, as Hansen (2004: 41) states, 'my self-identification as an NNEST is the identity that drives my research and teaching'.

It should also be noted that this study was based in an 'expanding circle' country and the context is EFL which is significantly different from the ESL environment in the 'Inner' and 'Outer Circle' countries (Kachru, 1990: 4).

Appendix: Interview Protocol

EFL Teaching Career/Experience

- Tell me about yourself.
- How did you become an English teacher? Any specific reason?

Professional Identity

- What do you think about your professional identity as a non-native English-speaking teacher in the IEPs you have taught?
- Has being a non-native English-speaking teacher had any effect on your career? Negative or positive?
- How do you think you were different as an ESL teacher if you compare yourself to your NS colleagues?

NEST-NNEST Differences/Discrimination

- Do you think you had to think and work more on professional development?
- Are the hiring procedures different for NS and for NNS?
- How is your relationship with your NS colleagues? Are they supportive? You feel like they are better/superior?
- Do you think you are discriminated? How? Give me an example
- Could you describe in as much detail as possible a situation in which you thought you were being discriminated?
- Wherever you have worked, do you think the administration supported you if there were issues? Could you say something more about that?
- Tell me about the students you have dealt with throughout your career. Have they been good/not good? Do you find anything difficult to teach because of your non-nativeness? Do you have further examples?
- Have you felt that they (your students) would prefer a native English speaker as their teacher? How?
- Let's come back to identity. Do you think your identity has changed with experience?
- How do you see your future?

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Part III
Language Policy

Chapter 7
English in Pakistani Universities: An Analysis of Linguistic Features

Humaira Irfan

Abstract English is perceived to have gradually arisen in uses and forms that diverge from a single standard because there are multiple Englishes within and across cultural discourse practices. Previous studies reveal that the non-native variety of English has passed through three phases which (Kachru, Quirk and Widdowson (eds), English in the world: teaching and learning the language and the literatures, Cambridge University Press, 1985) describe as follows: (i) non-recognition of the local variety of English; (ii) regarding the local variety of English as sub-standard; and (iii) a gradual acceptance of the non-native local variety of English language. Research on Pakistani English (PakE) would indicate that it is in the process of evolution. This chapter discusses existing research on PakE and examines its original features as appearing in the context of universities, particularly in lexis and grammar. Among the notable creative characteristics of the PakE used in universities are innovative vocabulary; distinctive use or non-use of articles; interrogative word order in indirect questions; the use of the present continuous tense in contexts where other varieties would use the simple present tense; altered use of phrasal and prepositional verbs; and use of adjectives as adverbs.

Keywords PakE · Articles · Word order · Present continuous tense · Phrasal and prepositional verbs and lexis

Introduction

Talaat (2002) explains that PakE is a non-native variety of English which uses all words available in Standard British English (StrBrE) in a relational pattern. In a study of lexical variation in PakE, Talaat (1993) identifies the semantic shift in certain lexical items as a shift from their original StBrE usage to what is called the 'Urdu-ised' meaning. Similarly, Baumgardner (1987, 1993, 1998), compares PakE with exonormative models of English to discuss the acceptability of various syntactic, lexical

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and morphological innovations in PakE. His study, however, does not include the investigation of sociolinguistic variations in PakE. Among others, Mahboob (2004) also presents an overview of syntax, morphology, lexis, and phonology of PakE, while Rahman's work (2011) contributes to corpus planning in Pakistan.

PakE appears to be a distinguished local variety that is likely to eventually replace StrBrE in Pakistan. Kachru (1985) identifies three stages that a non- native variety of English language passes through:

- In the first phase, there is no recognition of the existence of a local variety of English language.
- In the second phase, the local variety of English language is regarded as substandard.
- In the third phase, it is gradually accepted as a norm.

Mansoor (2002) notes that PakE is currently passing through the third phase. She further observes that Pakistanis use three distinct varieties of English: the acrolect (spoken by the elite class), the mesolect (used by the middle class), and the basilect (used by the uneducated class).

Pennycook (1994) states that the global dominance of English is a product of the local hegemonies of English rather than imperialism. The simultaneous or alternative use of English and Urdu through code switching and code mixing has become the norm (Talaat, 2002) so that a conversation that initiates in Urdu filtered with an English accent switches over to English and then Urdu again in mid-conversation. For example, it is common to hear an announcer on a local FM radio say, '*Humaray listeners ka favourite singer Ahmed Jehanzaib hay*'. (*The favourite singer of our listeners is Ahmed Jahanzaib*). Similarly, many TV Channels have named their programmes using code switching too, such as, '*Style Duniya*', (*The World of Style*); '*Bhangra Music*', (*A specific type of local music*); or '*Aaj TV*', (*TV today*). These examples clearly reflect how English language influences society through the 'continuing influx and nativization of English loanwords into the native tongue' (Mckenzie, 2008:277). This influence is even more evident in PakE which is localized in pronunciation, lexicon, and syntax through its interaction with regional languages (Rahman, 2011).

History of PakE

It is imperative to understand that PakE originates from pre-partition British India. Both English and other South Asian languages, as Ali (1993:3) elaborates, have developed in different directions so that 'the Germanic group under the influence of Roman Christianity', was drawn from Latin and Greek, while the Indo-Iranian bore affinities to 'Sassanian-Pahlavi and Sumerian on the one hand, and Persian and Arabic Islamic influences on the other'. Although the British arrived in India in the seventeenth century, it was not until the middle of the eighteenth century that they could strengthen their position in India through what was then called the East India

Company. During this period, they set out to create what Spear (1965:124) refers to as a class of people who were 'Indian in colour and blood but English in taste and character, in morals and in intellect'. The East India Company attempted to do this by promoting 'English literature and science through the medium of the English language' (Spear, 1965:127) and through government schools and colleges in India that started to impart Western knowledge using the English language.

Ali (1993:9) further reflects that following intense study of the British English, science, and literature of the time, Indians who graduated from these schools and colleges, 'were declared successful and were ready to recruit others to the cause of Britain's 'moral duty' to India by teaching them to become good, bad or indifferent brown Englishmen.'

English language thus spread in British India either through direct contact or through formal schooling and since there were insufficient native English-speaking teachers to meet the demand, the input received was both native and local. This meant that there was relatively little contact with native varieties of English in India, which got further reduced after independence and resulted in what Baumgardner (1993) refers to as 'nativization' of English in the Indian sub-continent. Subsequently, this contributed to the institutionalization and evolution of South Asian English as a native variety (Mahboob, 2004).

English language, hence, retained its official position even after India gained independence from the British rule and Pakistan was formed in 1947 because it had penetrated the socio-political fabric of the country (Ali, 1993). As Sidwa (1993: 213) states:

> *'English, besides having its own genius, is useful by today's standards in terms of commerce, communication, and technology... We, the excolonized, have subjugated the language, beaten it on its head and made it ours! The fact remains that in adapting English to our use… we have given it a new shape, substance, and dimension'* (Sidwa, 1993:213).

Reeves (1984) describes Pakistan as the 'Second English Empire', while Kachru (1982) views PakE as part of the linguistic sub-family of South Asian English. This includes Bangladeshi, Indian, Nepali, and Sri Lankan English. The language as Powell (1998) affirms, has qualified official status in former British colonies such as Bangladesh, where it is recognized for legal and educational purposes, India where English holds associate official status, Kenya where it is the second official language, and Sri Lanka where English is widely used in government offices.

Indigenization of English in Pakistan

South Asian varieties of English are reportedly defined in terms of local languages and reflect the unique features of different vernaculars in each country (such as PakE or Indian English). Hence, there is a need to differentiate these varieties from each other. The distinctive features of PakE were regarded as errors by early researchers (Jones, 1971; Bell, 1973; Smith-Pearse, 1968; Shah, 1978, and Rafi, 1987). It is, however,

a heterogenous language that is influenced by the socio-economic, educational background, and multiple first languages spoken by Pakistanis.

Grammar books tend to advise against these errors which are nevertheless reinforced through electronic and print media, local textbooks, study guides as well as dictionaries. Baumgardner (1988) describes this situation as 'pedagogic schizoglossia'. Kachru (1982, 1983), an Indian linguist, first proposed the idea of PakE as a distinct variety in his argument for South Asian English. Additional literature on English in Pakistan includes research on language pedagogy (Moss, 1964; Dil, 1966; Iqbal, 1987; Raof, 1988; Saleemi, 1985; Baumgardner & Kennedy, 1993; Khattaq, 1991; Sarwar, 1991); language planning (Haque, 1987); and literary creativity (Hashmi, 1986; Rafat, 1969; Rahman, 1991).

There is, however, little research on the linguistic aspect of English in Pakistan. This is a topic that has only recently attracted attention, especially since linguistic changes in the English language are now perceived to be taking place in both Pakistan and South Asia. Since independence and partition of the sub-continent, English has remained 'a potent force in the multilingual and multicultural make up of present-day South Asia and continues to adapt itself to its new environment' (Baumgardner, 1993:41). In order to effectively comprehend PakE, a certain amount of familiarity is required with recurrent Urdu words that have been borrowed freely from the indigenous domains of food, clothing, government administration, politics, education, art, and music. The Arabic lexis is also seen to have permeated PakE in terms such as '*Inshallah*' (if God wills), '*Jehad*' (holy war), '*Masjid*' (mosque), '*Shaheed*' (martyr), '*Shariat*' (Islamic law), and '*Zakat'* (Islamic tithe) (Baumgardner, 1993 as cited in Mahboob, 2009).

Baumgardner (1993:45), highlights that a pertinent characteristic of PakE is that it incorporates vocabulary that no longer exists in StrBrE, such as 'moot' (meeting), 'thrice' (three times), and 'druggist' (a narcotics dealer). There is also evidence of the use of distinctive derivational suffixes in combination with Urdu such as '*Bradar-ism*'(brotherhood), '*Shariat-isation*' (adherence to Islamic laws), '*lathi-charged*' (baton-charged), '*rickshaw-wallahs'* (rickshaw drivers), etc.

Interestingly, one of the aims of English Language Teaching (ELT) within the native culture is perceived to be that of establishing a connection between ELT, patriotism, and the Islamic faith, as evidently declared by the chairman of the Punjab Textbook Board, 'The Board…takes care, through these books to inculcate in the students a love of the Islamic values and awareness to guard the ideological frontiers of your [the students] homelands' (Punjab Textbook Board, 1997 as cited in Mahboob (2009:175).

Mahboob (2009) believes that the pragmatics of PakE reflect Muslim cultural practices and Islamic values as is evident in textbooks that contain topics on the Prophet Mohammed (PBUH), Islam and Hajj. He cites some common examples of lexical and semantic features of PakE such as the native greeting *'Assalam-o–Alaikum'*, praise, *'Maasha-Allah'*, an expression of gratefulness *'Alhumd-o-Lillah',* and God-willing or *'Inshallah'* (Mahboob, 2009:182–83). Another example of the Islamization of English language is identifiable in the discourse structures of writings that appear in the prefaces of textbooks, such as *'Bismi-llāhi r-raḥmāni r-raḥīm'*,

(Mahboob, 2009:184), an Arabic phrase that means, 'In the name of God, the most Gracious, the most Merciful'. Sidwa (1993:214) rightfully advises that PakE must be used with caution in an international context because, 'the Pakistanised turn of phrase or choice of native word that might add originality and freshness to the writing for someone who is acquainted with this part of the world can give headaches to someone who is not'.

Acceptance of Pakistani English

Irfan (2017) in her investigation of postgraduate students' views about PakE discovered that it is confidently used by university students and is generally assumed to be 'the correct version' of English that can also be used in both instruction and assessment. She highlights that students strategically think in Urdu before translating their thoughts into English, which owing to inadequate vocabulary in English sometimes leads them to borrow words from Urdu to communicate meaning.

Considering that PakE is now one of the many local languages which make Pakistan a multilingual society, universities should consider endorsing it in language policies. However, there are likely to be some drawbacks, such as, the possible obstruction of the development of PakE, the scarcity of creative and research-oriented writers who employ the medium of PakE, financial constraints to develop PakE, the fact that PakE has not yet been codified and standardized which results in associating English with British colonialism and heterogeneity and, finally, the lack of grammar books and dictionaries in PakE.

Methodology

Four focus groups comprising of six participants each were organized. Participants included postgraduate students and faculty from the department of education in two public universities located in Lahore. The focus group interviews were unstructured and aimed at exploring issues such as acceptance and preference of PakE and its use in universities. The universities were given the following pseudonyms: Marigold University (MU) and Daisy University (DU). Following focus group discussions, the interviews were transcribed to analyze emerging unique characteristics of PakE.

Analysis of Findings

Findings from the focus groups revealed perceptions of faculty and students about PakE in addition to some novel linguistic features that are discussed in this section.

Perceptions of PakE

Participants were aware of the fact that they were users of PakE which is different from other World Englishes. They identified PakE as one of the languages of Pakistan along with the national and regional languages. As one student participant commented:

> '*Pakistani English is a mixture of Urdu and English words. It is certainly different from native varieties such as, Canadian English, American English and British English.*'

Another respondent, MUT1 pointed out,

> '*Our English is altered because we think in Urdu, then translate thoughts and ideas in English.*'

A third respondent MUT3 agreed;

> '*Pakistani English is being used for instruction and learning in schools and universities. Pakistani students are at ease with it.*'

There are English newspapers, journals, books, and magazines in PakE so it can be claimed that it is used extensively in Pakistan.

A postgraduate student DUS3, however, disagreed as follows:

> '*I think for curriculum and evaluation Standard English is needed.*'

This highlights an important concern regarding the use of non-native varieties of English which are assumed to be legitimate in some contexts.

Participant DUS2 asserts;

> '*The national curriculum and assessment committees should be familiarised with PakE.*'

Participant MUS4 explains;

> '*The literature written in Pakistani English depicts our culture...*'

A noteworthy concern that emerged was that of insufficient awareness of PakE at an international level which makes it pertinent to include the concept of PakE in teacher education and language policy in Pakistan.

Linguistic Features of PakE

Focus group interview data was further analyzed to investigate innovative linguistic features of PakE. Kirkpatrick (2007) believes that the new varieties of English language which have developed following its contact with other languages demonstrate a clear inclination towards syntactic simplification or regularization of one sort or another. The following section focuses on lexis and grammar in PakE in agreement with the argument presented in the literature review about PakE having evolved in its own identity.

Lexis

Words that are derived from local languages and incorporated into PakE tend to display a different semantic range. The statements below are excerpts from the focus group interviews that show vocabulary usage in a distinctive way that has become a characteristic of PakE:

- We don't have *ample* literature in the Punjabi language.
- It will take people some time to *adjust* to Pakistani English.
- They use both the languages together; *little bit* explain in English and then shift to Urdu.
- The students feel uncomfortable with the *extreme* use of English.
- We must necessarily *confine* to single language.
- It will help to develop the *base* of English.
- We should promote regional languages for *fruitful things.*
- There is a *barrier* of system of education.

It is observed that speakers of PakE have the tendency to frequently use words such as 'need' and 'want' in their utterances. For example,

- There is *need* of one language.
- We *need* to focus more on English.
- We *need* a well-established model.
- We *want* to classify it.
- We *want* to have serious talk with them.

Grammar

Some syntactic features of PakE are shared with other known varieties of English such as Indian English. These include:

(a) The distinctive use or non-use of articles:

- English medium is compulsory *at* university level.
- I think *the* impact is strong *on* the students' ability.
- We see *the* socio-cultural background of *the* students.
- Languages are part of culture.
- We should move *in* positive direction.

(b) Interrogative word order in indirect questions:

- Although, there is discussion about World English, but *do* we have sufficient knowledge in Pakistani English?
- If they are not good in reading and speaking, *how* could they be good in writing?

- The policymakers should decide that *what* should be the medium of instruction.
- I know there is a language policy in Pakistan, *but* I don't know what's inside it.

(c) The use of present continuous in contexts where other varieties may use the simple present verb tense. It is important to highlight here that the use of present continuous in the examples of PakE below is more in reference to the future.

- Pakistan's future is *promising* on the global map.
- It is *taking* place in education system.
- I use Urdu for *making* things clear to students.
- We keep on *insisting* that English should be used.
- They should train the teachers *incorporating* diversity.
- People are *getting* connected through one language.

(d) Phrasal and prepositional verbs are used differently, for example:

- *Under* the constitution of Pakistan, English and Urdu are our national languages.
- We are confused *about* British and American spellings.

(e) Adjectives may be used as adverbs:

- They can't express their ideas *fluently* and *expressively*.
- They learn *easily* and *comfortably*.

(f) The frequent use of 'have to':

- They *have to* use memorization.
- We *have to* transfer the knowledge.
- We *have to* incorporate all this in our policy.
- I *have to* use Urdu to explain concepts.
- We *have to* be bilingual in classroom.

(g) Use of the contraction 'its' in sentences where 'it is' can be used:

- *It's* the only way to transmit culture.
- *It's* fair to use Urdu keeping in view their backgrounds.

Discussion

The chapter has discussed in detail the evolution of PakE highlighting that South Asian Englishes (Indian English, PakE, Sri Lankan English, etc.) evolved as a result of the scarcity of native-English resources and increased exposure to the non-native

English input received by learners. Of these, some non-native varieties are now regarded as legitimate and have their own standards and norms. PakE is similar in that it has its own notable features which differentiate it from some of the native varieties of the inner circle. This evolution of PakE is attributed to the habitual conceptualizing of ideas in Urdu and then translating those ideas into English which has created novel syntactic structures in PakE.

In addition, apart from using a mix of both American and British English, Pakistanis continue to use some vocabulary that is now obsolete in StrBrE. These variations appear confusing to learners who in their attempt to follow the rules of StrBrE inadvertently end up using PakE. It would help if the Ministry of Education takes a decision on which convention of the English Language (British or American) is acceptable in schools and universities. The use of English and Urdu in Pakistan is localized to the extent that it is not possible to extricate one from the other and hence any adaptations of the language in common use become acceptable at institutional levels, thereby making it indigenous.

The World Englishes movement has driven many non-native varieties of English to develop their own standards and norms of communication. The risk, however, is that such models will be of little help in developing the rhetoric of communication, primarily because of the variation in cultural and rhetorical styles. It is assumed that since PakE has evolved to be considered as one of the local languages of Pakistan, it cannot be judged in relation to inner circle Englishes.

While the background of this study concentrates on the mesolectal variety of English language, which represents the cultural identity of the middle class, the data analysis revealed emergent linguistic features of the acrolectal variety, that is, English language spoken by the educated class in Pakistan. An analysis of the communication of highly qualified Pakistanis reveals specific innovation and variation in lexis and syntax. This includes distinctive use of vocabulary, modals, articles, and prepositions, all of which appear to have resulted from a tendency to simplify and regularize the language for effective communication. It is clear then that the use of PakE among the educated class is marked by local variations, despite the fact that their language use is likely to be closer to StrBrE in comparison to those who are not academically qualified. Since English today is an amalgamation of interrelated languages, the notion of having standardized grammar and vocabulary norms should be replaced by practices that take into account the communication needs of English language users from multilingual backgrounds who now use English in the global context.

Conclusions and Implications

In exploring whether PakE is a distinct variety of English, this study revealed that PakE is at a nativization stage owing to its indigenization which is the result of contact with national and regional languages. While previous research concentrates mainly on this version of English being of a basilectal or mesolectal variety, this study has attempted to describe an acrolectal variety which is used for communication by

the educated class in Pakistan and might be adopted as the model of English by later generations. It is recommended that Pakistani universities should support the development of PakE by utilizing it in assessment and curriculum. The concept of PakE should also be introduced in the national education policy and teacher education in Pakistan.

Glossary of Urdu Terms Used

Urdu	English
Hamaray listeners ka favourite singer Ahmed Jehanzaib ha'	*The favourite singer of our listeners is Ahmed Jahanzaib*)
Style Duniya',	(*The World of Fashion*)
Bhangra Music	A specific type of local music
Aaj TV	TV today
Inshallah	If God wills
Jehad	Holy war
Masjid	Mosque
Shaheed	Martyr
Shariat	Islamic law
Zakat	Islamic tithe
Baradarism	Brotherhood
Shariatisation	Adherence to Islamic laws
Lathi-charged	Baton-charged
Rickshaw wallahs	Rickshaw drivers

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Chapter 8
Pakistan's English in Education Policy: A Study of Drawbacks

Kashif Raza

Abstract Despite adopting English as an official language, Pakistan has never had a documented 'English-in-education' policy which makes it interesting to observe how the country's education system has survived over the years. This chapter discusses the status of Pakistan's 'English-in-education' policy and the challenges faced in its development. More specifically, it discusses the drawbacks of not having such a policy, and presents a critique of the reforms, proposals, and suggestions offered by the government, researchers, policymakers, and public figures. The aim is to explore the reasons why all attempts to date have failed to satisfy the key stakeholders.

Keywords English in education · English language in education policy · Language policy of Pakistan · English as a medium of instruction

Introduction

Pakistan, a multicultural and multilingual country, has been striving to establish an English Language in Education Policy (ELEP) since its existence in August 1947. The two main languages of the country that are considered important for political, economic, and social development are English and Urdu. Although Urdu is the national language of Pakistan and English functions as the official language, the balance between the two has not yet been achieved (Raza, 2021). Since Pakistan (as part of the former subcontinent) was a British colony until 1947 and English was a highly influential language particularly in use for social, educational, economic, and administrative affairs in British occupied India, the earlier rulers of the then newly created Pakistan continued to use English as an official language to run government affairs. According to Mahboob (2017:72), 'the choice of maintaining English in Pakistan was both a pragmatic and a political decision', that was not intended to be permanent and Urdu was supposed to replace English by 1958. However, to date,

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this has not been done and the intention to have English replaced by Urdu continues to remain a future objective in Pakistan's educational policies and frameworks.

Current 'Language in Education' Policy in Pakistan—An Undocumented and Unofficial Language Policy

Currently, Pakistan does not have a clear policy on 'English in education'. According to Mahboob and Jain (2016:2), 'there is no official document that specifically outlines and discusses the national language policy and its implications for education'. Different educational setups follow individual and unofficial language policy practices. For instance, the National Education Policy Framework (NEPF, 2018), identifies three types of school systems in Pakistan: public (state run schools with very low fees), private (run by individuals or organizations with high fees), and 'madrassahs' (religious education centers run by religious scholars and mainly funded by generous individuals or associations). Out of the three school types, only private schools are known to employ English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in its true sense and the emphasis on the use of English in educational activities is seen only in these schools (Ministry of Education, 2018). On the contrary, public schools and 'madrassahs', (depending upon their geographical location), mainly use Urdu or one of the regional languages, such as Punjabi, Sindhi or Pashto as their Medium of Instruction (MOI).

Table 8.1 summarizes Pakistan's two main National Educational Policies (NEP, 2009, 2017) and the NEPF (2018) which together are aimed at providing a plan of action for the teaching and learning of English language in Pakistan.

The NEP (2009) emphasized collaboration between the Ministry of Education (MoE) and the Provincial and Area Education Departments (PAED) for speedy implementation of the ELEP across Pakistan. It provides a plan of action where English is to be taught only as a subject from class one onwards giving the PAEDs the option to choose any MOI (English, Urdu, or official regional languages) for teaching science and mathematics up to class five, whereafter the MOI will be English. The 2009 policy gave provincial governments this option to follow and implement until 2014, after which English became the mandatory MOI.

The NEP (2017), comparatively brief on language policy, made it compulsory to introduce English as a subject from class one onwards and promoted the adoption of either one of the regional languages or the national language, Urdu, as the MOI at primary level. On the other hand, the NEPF (2018) in its aim to establish a uniform education system proposes the implementation of a multilingual policy where English will be taught as a second language or L2.

While the three policies discussed in Table 8.1 offer a short-term action plan for adopting English language into Pakistan's education system, none of them provides direction on how this plan is to be implemented, what resources are to be utilized,

Table 8.1 Excerpts from National Education Policies of Pakistan on the MOI

NEP 2009	NEP 2017	NEP 2018
Policy Actions, points 4–8 (2009:28) '4. The curriculum from Class I onward shall include English (as a subject), Urdu, one regional language, mathematics along with an integrated subject 5. The Provincial and Area Education Departments shall have the choice to select the medium of instruction up to Class V 6. English shall be employed as the medium of instruction for sciences and mathematics from class IV onwards 7. For 5 years, Provinces shall have the option to teach mathematics and science in English or Urdu/ official regional language, but after five years the teaching of these subjects shall be in English only 8. Opportunities shall be provided to children from low socio-economic strata to learn English language.'	Policy Provision, points XVIII and XIX (2017:49) 'XVIII. Medium of Instructions for all subjects at primary level shall be either local language or national language (Urdu) XIX. English as compulsory subject shall be started from grade one.'	Priority 2: Uniform Education System (2018:11) '(iv) Agreement on a multi-lingual policy, with English to be taught as a second language.'

and what measures are to be taken to ensure that the implementation of the ELEP will result in L2 improvement. In addition, neither the NEP (2017) nor the NEPF (2018) refer to any previous policies nor develop upon them, which indicates inconsistency in policy development and lack of proper planning in implementing policies.

Challenges in Documenting a Clear 'English Language in Education' Policy

One aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the challenges that Pakistan has faced in developing and implementing an ELEP. These can clearly be categorized into historical, linguistic, and political.

Historical Challenges

Historically, English has been present in the subcontinent way before the birth of Pakistan. The country came into existence in August 1947 as an independent Islamic nation aimed at freedom from British colonization and with the objective of creating independent development policies that would benefit its people. However, the leaders of Pakistan during this time of transition decided to retain several policies from the British era (especially in the field of education). For instance, existing English language practices in many Pakistani institutions are in continuity of the British colonial policies (Durrani, 2012; Mahboob, 2003) that aimed to create a two-layered society: the upper class (having access to quality education through EMI) and the lower class (getting education through the use of vernaculars).

Mahboob (2003) provided a detailed historical account (1835–2003) of English language in the subcontinent and in Pakistan. He highlighted the country's attempts under different leaderships to develop a plan of action to promote English. Following independence from British rule, Pakistan adopted a three-language structure: English as the official language, Urdu as the national language, and one regional language for each province. However, in the field of education, no balance was retained between the use of English and Urdu as the MOI, which resulted in the creation of a two-class system based upon English language proficiency and use. Mahboob (2003:9) concluded, 'The policy of the government to continue the two mediums of instruction in education side by side reflected the British policy'.

Linguistic Challenges

The second factor that has resulted in the delay of a proper ELEP development in Pakistan is the multilingual population of the country. Rahman (2004) reported that approximately 69 different languages are spoken in Pakistan, out of which six are main and 58 are minor languages. Lewis et al. (as cited in Mahboob & Jain, 2016) mentioned 72 languages. According to the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) of Pakistan factbook webpage < https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/pk.html > , (n.d.), Urdu and English, despite enjoying higher status, are not the most commonly used languages in the country.

The reason for this, as Mahboob (2003) identified, is that given the linguistic diversity of the country, every attempt to promote a single or bilingual policy in the country has faced resistance from Regional and Minor Language Speakers (RMLS). The state's assumption that a monolingual policy will work best for the country in terms of unity and development has faced a lot of confrontation from different sectors (Raza, 2021). As Durrani (2012:37) highlighted, 'These status policy efforts to unite Pakistani citizens under one language have been fraught with politics and conflict'. Monolingual policy enforcement initiatives either for English or Urdu have

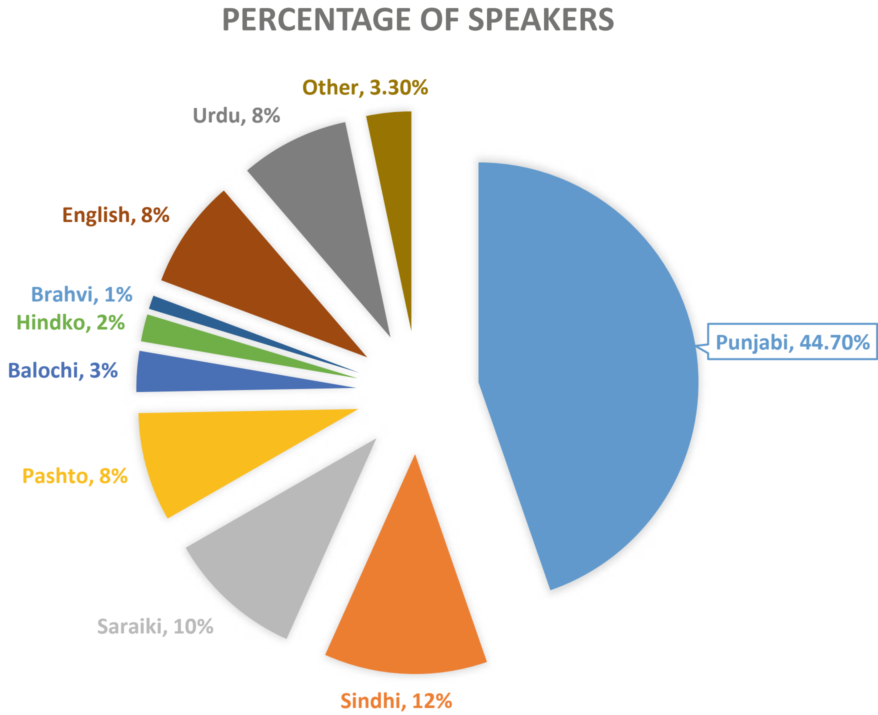

Fig. 8.1 Distribution of local languages according to the Central Intelligence Agency Factbook webpage

produced unimpressive results (Ayres, 2003; Coleman & Capstick, 2012; Mahboob, 2017; Manan et al., 2016; Rahman, 2004).

Figure 8.1 illustrates the distribution of languages according to the CIA Factbook webpage.

The regional breakdown of languages in the illustration is as follows:

- Punjabi and Seraiki are mostly spoken in the province of Punjab. Hindko is also spoken in certain areas of Punjab.
- Sindhi is spoken in the province of Sindh
- Pashto is spoken in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK). A few areas have Hindko speakers too.
- Balochi and Brahvi are spoken in the province of Baluchistan

Attempts to adopt English as the MOI in education have proved counter-productive. For instance, Manan et al. (2016) in their study conducted in 11 private schools in Pakistan, collected data from school principals, teachers, students, and seven field experts to analyze the effectiveness of the English medium policy. They concluded that the policy of introducing English language at primary level did not produce positive results and factors such as non-availability of qualified English educators, poor

teaching practices, social and cultural variables, and the lack of institutional preparedness resulted in the failure of this policy. Similarly, Mahboob (2017), through a selective literature review, contended that adopting English as the MOI in higher education in Pakistan has also produced unsatisfactory results and has rather increased the gap between social classes.

Similar resistance from the RMLS has been observed in the case of promoting Urdu as the national language and as the MOI in education (Coleman & Capstick, 2012; Durrani, 2012; Garcia, 2016; Manan et al., 2015). As Rahman (2004:13) pointed out, 'the policy of favoring Urdu has made ethnic groups express ethnicity in terms of opposition or resistance to Urdu'. An example of this dissatisfaction is evident from the early years following Pakistan's creation and independence from British rule when attempts to implement Urdu as the national/official language resulted in the Urdu-Bengali controversy and ultimately escalated into the creation of Bangladesh which was originally East Pakistan.

There is a continuous lack of initiatives on the part of the government towards developing proper policies for the development of regional languages and the recognition of non-official regional languages. For instance, the NEP (2009) recognized official local languages, such as Punjabi, Pushto, Sindhi, and Balochi, spoken in Pakistan but did not mention anything about the status or future direction of non-official languages, such as Saraiki, Brahvi, or Hindko. Similarly, both NEPs (2009 and 2017) failed to provide clear guidelines on how local languages will be promoted and adopted in education as the MOI. Many local language speakers and researchers (Ayres, 2003; Durrani, 2012; Mahboob & Jain, 2016; Mushtaq & Shaheen, 2017) perceive this as an attempt to suppress local languages. For example, the Saraiki Nationalist Movement demands the creation of the Bahawalpur province, which should include Saraiki-speaking areas from the existing provinces of Sindh, Punjab, and Baluchistan to promote Saraiki culture and language, and to diminish the influence of other languages including Punjabi (SWADO, 2010). Rahman (1996:103) highlighted the Sindhi-Urdu dispute in the province of Sindh as another example of this confrontation where the Urdu-speaking minority, mainly based in Karachi, opposes the suppression of their language (the province of Sindh has multiple local dialects) and demands the creation of 'a separate province to be carved out of Sindh'. Ayres (2003) perceived the existence of such language-based movements in Pakistan as a threat to national unity that if allowed to escalate may lead to disintegration of provinces.

Despite the fact that it is spoken by only 8% of the population, Urdu is also perceived as an important language of unity (Ministry of Education, 2009; Rahman, 2002) and of Islam (Mahboob, 2009; Rahman, 2002). Substituting Urdu with English is perceived as an attempt towards national disintegration (Durrani, 2012). In his national address in 1948, Muhammad Ali Jinnah, the founder of the nation announced Urdu as the national language of Pakistan and added that 'the State Language of Pakistan is going to be Urdu and no other language. Anyone who tries to mislead you is really the enemy of Pakistan. Without one State language, no nation can remain tied up solidly together and function' (Jinnah, 1948 as cited in Durrani, 2012:150). Pakistani leadership in the later years followed along the same lines to promote Urdu

in all fields of life through the gradual dismissal of English (Ministry of Education, 2009, 2018). In fact, the Supreme Court of Pakistan gave a ruling on 8 September 2015, ordering the federal and the provincial governments to declare Urdu as the official language of the country and to formally adopt the language in government and non-government affairs. Similarly, in September 2017, a Supreme Court bench comprising three members, reinforced implementation of the 2015 declaration and warned office bearers to ensure its execution in order to avoid contempt of court.

Political Challenges

Political influences on the Pakistani education system have also played their role in the postponement of language policy enactment in Pakistan. Researchers (Ayres, 2003; Durrani, 2012; Garcia, 2016; Mahboob, 2003; Rahman, 1996, 2002, 2016) highlight the existing language-based politics in Pakistan and provide detailed accounts of how the country's political leadership has failed to address this issue.

Mahboob (2003), in tracing the various influences of political changes from 1947 to 2003 on language policy development in Pakistan concluded that by continuing the British colonial educational policies from pre-independence times, and by purposefully using English and local languages for education, Pakistani rulers contributed to producing a two-class structure: the ruling class and the working class. The former is educated in the English language and the latter in vernaculars. Durrani (2012) and Rahman (1996, 2002) also note the contribution of this 'linguistic apartheid' in creating class disparities in the society and establishing a segregated (English and non-English) education system across the country.

Similarly, instead of embracing and promoting the linguistic diversity of Pakistan as an asset, the political forces have either branded local language recognition initiatives (e.g., Bengali language movement) as anti-state manoeuvers (Ayres, 2003; Mahboob, 2003; Rahman, 2002) or suppressed them to gain socio-political strength (Coleman & Capstick, 2012; Rahman, 2016). Durrani (2012: 37) argued that the elevation of vernaculars against dominating language(s) is perceived to be 'disadvantageous for political expediency and strategic governance'. In 1990, during the late Prime Minister Benazir Bhutto's government, the 'Baluchistan Mother Tongue Use' bill was passed to make Balochi, Brahvi, and Pashto languages as MOI in Baluchistan. This was later amended by the next prime minister Nawaz Sharif's political alliance in 1992 making it optional. Durrani (2012) cited this as a clear example of the colonized mindset of Pakistani governments that consider the dominance of a common language (either English or Urdu) easier for governance.

Drawbacks of the Lack of a Clear Policy

The absence of a consistent English language education policy in Pakistan has played a deleterious role in weakening the education system in general. It has created imbalance in the choice of a MOI. It has also resulted in the design of ineffective language teacher preparation programs and the failure to encourage quality research in language policy enactment in Pakistan.

Inconsistent Mediums of Instruction (MOIs)

While English exists as an official language in different fields in Pakistan, it is not evenly used as the MOI in education sectors across the country. In the absence of clear guidelines on how and when to use English in the classroom, teachers and institutional administration take the liberty to use one of the three languages (English, Urdu, or regional languages).

The NEPF (2018:4) report recognized this lack of conformity in the provision of quality education across the country, 'Private schools predominantly use English as a medium of instruction, with a very strong focus on active use of English language by children, while public sector schools mostly use Urdu and the regional mother tongue as a language of instruction'.

Many researchers (Coleman & Capstick, 2012; Garcia, 2016; Gulzar & Qadir, 2010; Mansoor, 2003; Rahman, 2016), also reported this divide between the use of English in private schools, and the use of Urdu and regional languages in public schools and 'madrassahs'. According to Mahboob (2017), English is used as the MOI in more than 70% of private schools and in the majority of the universities. On the other hand, classrooms in public schools are mainly bilingual where the use of regional languages and Urdu dominates instruction. One reason for this is the low English language proficiency of both teachers and students in state run institutions (Ministry of Education, 2018). Hence, students in public schools and 'madrassahs' are not adequately proficient in the use of English language in comparison to those in private schools/universities.

This inconsistency in the choice of language as the MOI is the result of unclear direction provided to schools by the federal and the provincial governments. Gulzar and Qadir (2010), in their qualitative study, interviewed Pakistani PhD scholars and foreign graduates to explore their views on language selection and its usage and impact in the classroom. They concluded that the main causes of current irregularities in language use are faulty language policies and lack of communication between the policymakers and English teachers. They further argued that in order to promote effective teaching and learning in EFL classrooms, a clear language policy should be devised to facilitate both teachers and students.

Focus of English Teacher Preparation Programs

One of the objectives of teacher training programs across the world is to prepare pre-service teachers to meet professional standards of teaching. These standards may differ across countries and are often informed by the respective educational policies. Naturally then, in the absence of a clear policy, teachers are unaware of what they must do and how they must go about fulfilling the responsibilities attached to their roles. As a result, schools are at liberty to choose their MOI, the subjects that are given more attention, their in-house teaching practices, and the time and energy commitment to students' skills development.

This situation of uncertainty and inconsistency in curriculum development and delivery of English language teaching is reflected in the current practices prevalent in Pakistani schools (Coleman & Capstick, 2012; Mahboob, 2017; Mansoor, 2003) For instance, English is taught as a compulsory subject from secondary school until B.A/B.Sc. (graduation from college) and the common teaching methodology employed by English language teachers (ELTs) is the translation method (Shamim, 2011; Warsi, 2004) where students are trained to translate texts from English to Urdu and vice versa. Nawab (2012) reported an example of this practice through his investigation of select secondary school ELTs' teaching approach in Chitral, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK). Through a series of interviews and class observations, he concluded that ELTs in the context rely heavily upon the translation method where opportunities for practice and language development are very limited. While there is consistency in the use of this approach in many institutions, it is neither informed by the NEP 2009 or 2017 nor included in any federal teacher training programs offered across the country. Teachers in Nawab's study (2012) exploring ELT in Chitral's schools reveal that the translation approach works best for the context as it prepares students for translation-based questions in their exams and saves them from additional work that is associated with implementing innovative teaching practices. The translation method in ELT in Pakistan evidently is successful owing to the shortage of trained ELTs (Nawab, 2012).

The majority of ELTs or teacher trainers in Pakistan are postgraduates with a concentration in English language or literature and no formal ELT training. Post-graduate programs in the country do not have an English language proficiency requirement for acceptance to the program. Candidates may score high marks in their program courses; however, this is not always indicative of their language skills and ability, especially because English language skills development is neither evaluated nor monitored. As a result, they graduate with unimpressive English language proficiency (Shamim, 2011) and, English teachers, fail to produce competent students with practical English language skills (Garcia, 2016).

Although there have been many initiatives at the federal and provincial level to train ELTs, none of them have produced extraordinary results. For instance, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan started the English Language Teaching Reforms (ELTR) project in 2004. The main objective of this project was to train ELTs in order to improve their teaching practices and research skills, and

to promote Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). With the help of local and international training consultants, the HEC has trained more than 2,000 college and university faculty since 2004, providing more than 1,200 professional development sessions in two different phases. However, there has been no reported impact evaluation of the initiative on teaching practices of the trained faculty. A follow-up with the trainers and the trained faculty after completing phase 1 would have helped in improving training in phase 2 as well as in analyzing whether the training had been of any help in terms of faculty development. The project could also have been extended to pre-service English language teachers who are currently enrolled in postgraduate programs to introduce them to current research in ELT. It could have helped to enhance their pedagogical skills, teaching and learning strategies, and their ability to use Information Technology in language teaching and learning. Similarly, there has been no reported impact evaluation, progress update, or future direction on the project following the launch of phase 2 in 2010.

Direction for Research on ELT and Policy Development

Researchers and experts in the field of ELP development can contribute to improvements only when such a policy is already in place and there are efforts by concerned authorities to address policy directions through different measures. In addition, critics can point out areas that stakeholders need to pay more attention to when implementing the ELEP and suggest modifications for better results. However, in my observation, this is not possible when there is no documented policy, as is in the case of Pakistan. Hence, the focus of researchers and experts in Pakistan has shifted to suggestions and proposals for the development of an ELEP. The following section discusses some of these proposals in detail.

Existing Proposals for ELEP Development in Pakistan

In addition to government initiatives and reforms, there have also been proposals from academics interested in ELT and ELEP in Pakistan (e.g., Asghar & Yousaf, 2016; Durrani, 2012; Garcia, 2016; Mahboob, 2003; Mansoor, 2003, 2005; Raja, 2014). In this section, I have discussed and critiqued four of the recurrent issues associated with these proposals and provided some suggestions for improvement.

Lack of Collaboration Between English, Urdu, and Other Language Writers

The majority of the work produced on language education and language policy in Pakistan is either in English or Urdu and there exists no common platform to facilitate collaborative development of the much-needed language policy. For example, ELEP development proposals (Durrani, 2012; Mahboob, 2003; Mansoor,

2003) rarely discuss and cite the work done in Urdu and other regional languages and vice versa. While each language (such as English, Urdu, Punjabi, Sindhi, and Pashto) has its own individual worth, any discussion about language policy enactment should include equal representation of counter perspectives (Rahman, 2004), so that concerns like 'linguistic apartheid' (Shamim, 2011), particular language 'patronization' (Rahman, 1996), 'English-medium fever' (Manan et al., 2016), and 'colonial language ideology' (Durrani, 2012) can be addressed.

Hence, any proposal that informs Pakistan's language policy must include representation of all core languages. There is also a significant need to encourage publishing diverse multilingual research journals that represent voices from all language speakers of Pakistan. 'Almas', a research journal that is published by the Department of Urdu at Shah Abdul Latif University, Sindh, is a good example of such collaboration between languages. It publishes a variety of research-based articles in both Urdu and English and promotes citation of articles that have been originally published in English (for example, see volumes 18 and 23). Such practices, if promoted, will not only allow equal representation of all languages but will also provide opportunities for collaborative efforts towards solving the issue of language policy development in Pakistan.

More Focus on 'What' and Less on 'How'

Most of the work produced on Pakistan's language policy rarely goes beyond discussions on the history of language planning in Pakistan and its challenges. Similarly, the solutions presented in these studies mostly conclude on 'what' should be done, rather than on 'how' it should be done. Such publications include policy documents produced by the government of Pakistan (NEPs, 2009, 2017 & NEPF, 2018), and prominent researchers and public figures (such as, Durrani, 2012; Mahboob, 2003; Mansoor, 2003; Raja, 2014).

The NEP (2009, 2017) emphasized the importance of learning English as a compulsory subject from class one to class five along with Urdu and other regional languages. The assumption is that students will be able to develop proficiency in English during this period (see Table 8.1). In fact, the NEP (2017) promoted Urdu and regional languages as the MOI, however, without any details or guidelines on how a balance between the various languages will be created when choosing a MOI in the classroom. Hence, the critical question remains of *how* an ELEP can be implemented and how consistent English language skills can be developed in a country where English is spoken by a very small group of the elite population (Durrani, 2012). Similarly, the NEPF (2018) suggested a multi-lingual policy development and demoted the status of English to L2, but without delineating a plan of action on how, when and where to start this progress.

Similar limitations are observed in proposals presented by researchers and public figures. For instance, the three-language policy proposal by Mahboob (2003) did not provide any details of how Pakistan can continue to implement such a policy and what resources are to be considered to strengthen this practice. Similarly, Durrani

(2012) proposed considering local practices and the rationale behind them when designing a plan of action. However, details of how this is going to help cater to the needs of a multilingual society in the long run are left open for further research.

Several researchers (Mansoor, 2005; Raja, 2014) also support bilingualism, however, once again without any clarity on how this can be implemented. In commenting on these proposals, Mahboob and Jain (2016) argued that most research on bilingual education ends up discussing either the English-Urdu controversy or code switching, and hardly reports on actual classroom-based research. While they note flaws in existing research and proposals that endorse bilingual education in Pakistan, Mahboob and Jain's (2016:10) own directions did not go beyond suggesting the initiation of classroom-based research and the development of a 'well-researched and informed language in education policy'.

Extremist Approaches: Either Urdu or English or Both

There are proposals that argue either for bilingual education or for the implementation of Urdu or English only as the MOI. Such proposals are distanced from actual classroom practices in Pakistan and are reluctant to acknowledge the existence and significance of counter proposals.

Garcia (2016), for instance, proposed uplifting the status of Urdu to an international language while retaining English for educational, socio-economic, and political purposes. Her proposal is based on the argument that factors such as current linguistic diversity, constitutional ambiguity, educational practices, unclear language of the Supreme Court Order (8th Sep 2015), and lexical limitations of Urdu make it difficult for Pakistan to replace English with Urdu in the near future. Although she highlighted serious issues such as catering to multilingualism, the obscure language of the constitution of Pakistan, vagueness in the order of the Supreme Court, and inconsistent educational practices; there are also instances where Garcia (2016) tended to exaggerate her stance on the situation without any substantial evidence. For instance, when discussing the inconstancy of the education system in Pakistan, she argued that public school teachers are unable to write and speak Urdu accurately but 'in the private schools the medium of instruction is English and so, their students are very proficient in this language since the staff is qualified and speaks it well' (Garcia, 2016:31).

The assertion about lack of uniformity in Pakistan's education system and disparity in language proficiency between public and private schools is endorsed by the NEPF (2018) report and other researchers (Warsi, 2004). Claims that students in private schools in Pakistan are successful because of English as the MOI is not supported by any research to the best of my knowledge. Research on English as the MOI in Pakistani higher education institutions (Mahboob, 2017) as well as school education (Manan et al., 2015) shows unsatisfactory results in the adoption of this policy.

A clear disagreement is also observed among researchers towards the adoption of Urdu as the MOI in Pakistan. Mahboob (2003:23) suggested teaching Urdu as a compulsory subject at all levels but, argued that, '…it should not be the medium of

education'. He saw Urdu only as the language of communication and as a national symbol, but not useful for economic progress or international and regional communication. Similarly, Rahman (2004) used the term 'Urdu imperialism' to describe the dominance of Urdu over regional languages in political and economic fields. On the other hand, Asghar and Yousaf (2016) argued for parallel MOIs where Urdu should be given equal importance as English for cultural and linguistic benefits. They claimed that Pakistan does not have the resources to uplift students' English language proficiency. Hence, efforts should be made to introduce Urdu as the MOI because 'students learn better in their first language' (Asghar & Yousaf, 2016:24). Despite the scarcity of classroom-based research, studies have repeatedly shown dominant use of Urdu and other regional languages as the MOI in classrooms (Rahman, 2016), mainly because of three reasons:

- Urdu and local languages are convenient when explaining difficult concepts (Gulzar & Qadir, 2010).
- Students form varying educational and socio-economic backgrounds are likely to have lower English comprehension ability and may fare better in environments where the MOI is other than English.
- There is a large number of English teachers with lower English proficiency skills (Mahboob, 2017; Mansoor, 2005; Ministry of Education, 2018; Warsi, 2004).

Such arguments pose as a serious concern in research on language policy development in Pakistan. The majority of the existing language policy development proposals are either uncorroborated or opinion-based generalizations which do not help with advancing the debate on the issue under consideration. For example, existing literature on ELEP development in Pakistan overflows with suggestions on what can and should be done to develop a well-researched policy that caters to all stakeholders. However, not many researchers have tried to implement their proposals in real-life classrooms to investigate if they work. In many of these studies, there is a recurrent focus on either critiquing the government's education policies and other researchers' work or a straightforward proposal for policy formation.

Preference for Language Planners Over Language Users

The government and Ministry of Education's approach of supporting proposals from language planners (for example, Asghar & Yousaf, 2016; Garcia, 2016) and expecting policy makers to step in to develop a proper language policy neglects the voice of the language user. Such an approach also poses challenges in policy implementation as local language speakers and ethno-nationalists do not accept the imposition of a different language over their own mother tongue (Coleman & Capstick, 2012). This is the opposition that English and Urdu have faced from different language-based movements and groups in Pakistan who see English as a foreign language that is symbolic of the colonial era, and Urdu either as a Punjabi elite language (Rahman, 2004) or a representation of the 'Muhajirs' (migrant Urdu speakers from India).

Others, such as Mahboob and Jain (2016), ask for a consideration of language users' preferences when devising a language policy. They suggest looking at classroom practices and taking into account public views about language use (Durrani, 2012). One issue with this approach of language policy planning is that human attitudes and preferences change with time and factors such as globalization, economic (in)stability, and migration play a great role in this (Lo Bianco, 2010).

Conclusion

Pakistan's struggle for the development of a well-researched, well-drafted and nationally representative ELEP has not generated any satisfactory results so far. Multiple factors are responsible for this failure, which include historical aspects, linguistic challenges, and political influences. In the absence of a documented ELEP, Pakistan's education system is facing many challenges including inconsistent MOIs, poorly designed ELT preparation programs, and unclear directions for future research on policy development. Although there have been many proposals from different researchers, policymakers and public figures, the concerns and demands of key stakeholders remain unresolved. It is time for ELTs, policy-makers, researchers and public figures to develop a platform that allows cooperation and assistance in developing a language policy that caters to Pakistan's national interests, helps in improving the education system in the country, and provides a plan of action for the development of Urdu and other regional/local languages. There is also a strong need to decrease the influence of bureaucrats and politicians and increase the input of actual stakeholders in policymaking and implementation processes.

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Chapter 9
Issues and Challenges in Legitimizing Localized English: A Critical Reappraisal of *Native Speakerism* in Pakistan

Akhtar Abbas, Tehseen Zahra, and Wasima Shahzad

Abstract Propositions such as 'I don't want to speak like a native speaker of English' (Choi, Language and Education 30:72–85, 2016), appearing in the title of a study focusing on the critical inquiry of *native speakerism* highlight recognition of the local variants of English language. Rethinking nativeness (Aneja, TESOL Quarterly 50:572–596, 2016) and *nativizing non(-nativeness)* in localized English language contexts has thus resulted in dialogue among language experts on World Englishes in the global linguistic milieu. There are now new discussions on different dimensions of this *native fallacy* which challenge the standardized models of English language, especially in the pedagogical context. English in Pakistan is used as a second language mostly in formal contexts. However, the issues and challenges faced in legitimizing local variants of the language yet remain to be addressed in detail. This chapter highlights the status of Pakistani variants of English language at the levels of *use, the user* and *the mode of use*. To determine the scope of Pakistani variants of English language and their usage by Pakistanis both locally and globally, there is a need to explore and classify the contemporary genres in practice. It is recommended that experts focus on the development of written and spoken corpora in academic, legal, political, media, cyber, workplace, and medical discourses that can pave the way for a strong footing towards the establishment of a common Pakistani variant.

Keywords Local English · Nativeness · Pakistani English · Genres · Corpus

Introduction

The linguistic phenomenon of English as a global language has initiated its interaction with other languages of the world resulting in language change, variation, and

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sometimes to the emergence of new pidgins which often turn into distinct languages. Such adaptation by locals has resulted in the emergence of *World Englishes* that carry distinct linguistic and social identities.

Nativist Approach: Myth or Reality?

The English language used in Britain, North America, Canada, and Australia has been licensed as the standard code and licensees are proclaimed as the native speakers. This socio-linguistic polarization is seen as anti-ethically construed and as politically marginalizing speakers of the same language (English) in other parts of the world. In addition, the notion that English as *one language* bearing *two grammar types* and *accents* (British and American) has also contributed to the growing sentiments of linguistic ghettoising among both *native* and *non-native* speakers of the language. More importantly, the presence and acceptance of variations in language use among *native speakers* of English has also provided a strong base for laying the foundations of *World Englishes.*

Another reason for socio-linguistic polarization against the native approach resulted from the emergence of the *Minority Language Rights (MLR)* movements across the world. These politico-linguistic movements developed a well-founded discourse regarding language vitalization of minority languages. Scholars such as Phillipson (1992), who brought forward the theory of *Linguistic Imperialism,* strongly disapprove of the concept of dominant languages at either local or global levels. As a result, mother tongue education has become one of the chief goals of educationists (Kuper, 2003; Quane, 2003) in recent times.

Modelling English Varieties

As a by-product of this growing sociolinguistic debate of *Linguistic Imperialism* the narrative of localized varieties of English has also been developed in the linguistic arena of the world. Different models of English varieties have been presented by scholars. For example, Kachru's (1986) three concentric circle model depicts the territorial existence of English varieties across the world where Pakistan comes in the *Outer Circle Englishes* (see Fig. 9.1).

However, critics who believe in the legitimization of varieties of English spoken all over the world have criticized Kachru's three concentric circles as conveying the notion of native speaker dominancy through the inner circle. Instead, McArthur's model (1998) of *World English* provides all the varieties of English with a democratic place on the linguistic globe (see Fig. 9.2).

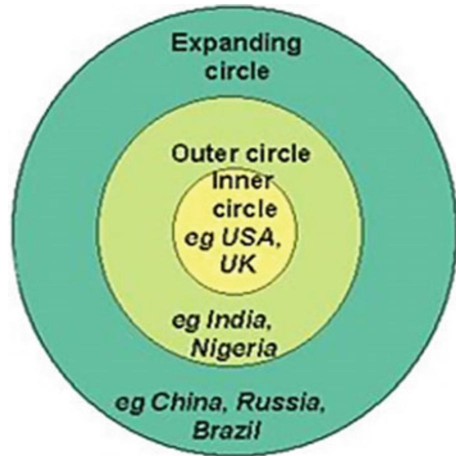


Fig. 9.1 Kachru's (1986) three concentric circles

English and Multilingualism

Some English-speaking countries are now monolingual due to the huge influx of immigrants from different multilingual contexts. This influx has also witnessed the emergence of various forms of English in Kachru's inner circle countries. Mahboob and Barratt (2014) report that negotiation policies and strategies in the socio-linguistic milieu have been revisited by native speakers in the diverse linguistic ecology of their countries to establish solidarity as most of them do not speak what is seen as *Standard English.* Hence, under the influence of socio-economic backgrounds, the standard code of English is perceived as no more than a fallacy in English speaking countries (Mahboob & Barratt, 2014). Akin to this situation, variants of English spoken in multilingual non-native countries have also become mutually unintelligible in some situations, thereby suggesting that different forms of English have acquired the status of distinct systems of communication/language codes among the language users.

However, in the contemporary era of cyber revolution, distances have been diminished and the concept of global citizenship is emerging rapidly. The intelligible variants of English language are the only variants which are widely in use by global citizens to communicate in different situations. Other unintelligible variants create communication barriers for both native and non-native speakers and ultimately obstruct anchoring global identities which in fact require a common lingua franca.

It is no surprise then, that members of speech and discourse communities worldwide also require intelligible varieties in order to communicate effectively and achieve common goals. They exchange information and ideas through certain genres which have common structural and lexico-grammatical features that enable effective communication (Shehzad & Abbas, 2013, 2015, 2016; Swales, 1990). This phenomenon is not possible among the speakers of unintelligible varieties. Hence, it is the common variant or the lingua franca (English) that engages scholars and

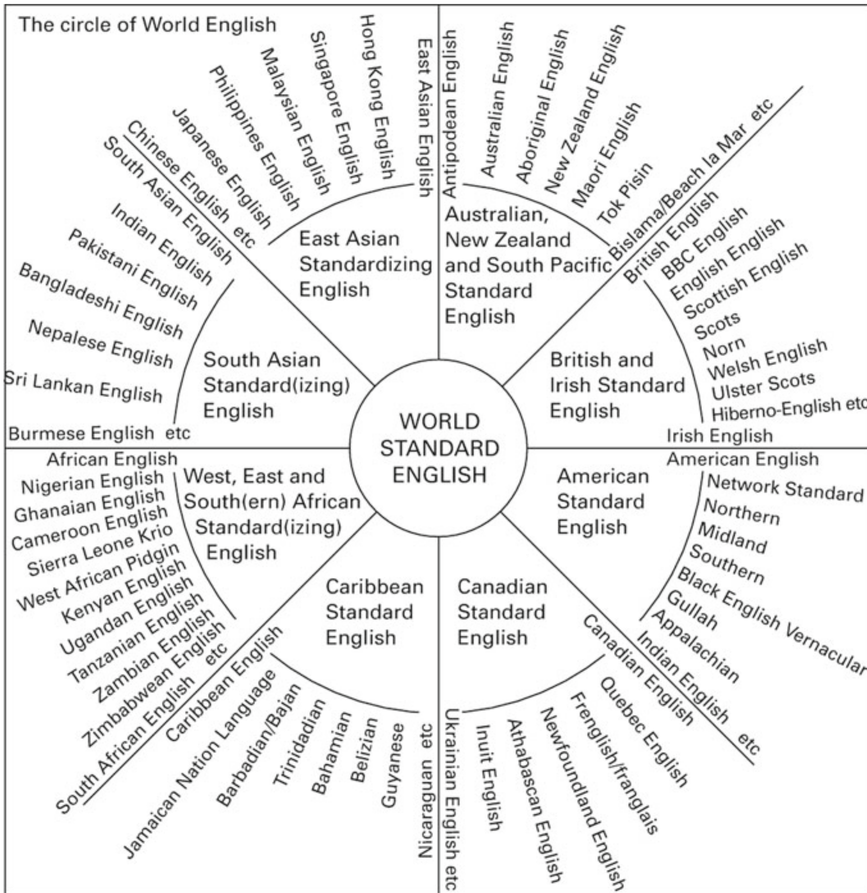


Fig. 9.2 McArthur's (1998) circle of world English

intellectuals in academic collaboration as is evident at international conferences and in published research journals.

It can therefore be argued that the different intelligible variants of English are more likely to be instrumental in meeting local and international communication needs, which definitely is not possible through the unintelligible varieties of English. The risk in legitimizing variants may lead to multipronged dichotomies of English language users which can bifurcate English language speech and discourse communities in the same way as the dichotomy of native and non-native speakers creating inner and outer circles.

Current State of English in Pakistan: Prospects of Pakistani English

Mahboob and Barratt (2014) presented a three-dimensional model to respond to the sociolinguistic perspectives on the functionality of global English variants. This model provides some theoretical underpinnings to establish a strong footing in moving forward from a state of disagreement to a case of compliance. Similar theoretical standpoints have also been adopted in this discussion of the prospects of Pakistani variants in both local and global use. This three-dimensional model focuses on:

- the users of various forms of English;
- the uses of various forms of English;
- the various modes of communication.

Idealized Vision of English and Urdu in Pakistan and Standardized Deviations

While discussing the prospects of Pakistani English many scholars such as Rahman (2010) and Hassan (2004) focus on the *use* of English language only. Both, Rahman (2010) and Hassan (2004) exploited secondary data (personal observations and texts written by Pakistanis) to explore the socio-linguistic uniqueness of the English used in Pakistan which ranges from *Standard English* to localized variants of English language (see Fig. 9.3).

Notwithstanding, this ideal state of mind has resulted in a variety of deviating linguistic practices in the last two decades. These practices have been theorized (*standardized deviations*) as unique features of the English language used in Pakistan such as *Hybridisation* (Khattak, 2013), *Anglicisation* (Hassan, 2004), *Urduisation* (Baumgardner, 1993), and *Indigenisation* (Baumgardner, 1993). In addition, Hassan (2004) and Rahman (2010), in their observation of oral and written practices, provide theoretical underpinnings of a Pakistani variant of English. Their theoretical foundations cover the levels of phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics (See

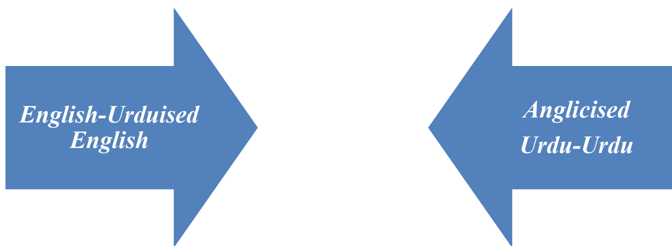


Fig. 9.3 Idealized vision of English and Urdu in Pakistan

Baumgardner, 1993; Talaat, 1993, 2002). However, Canagarajah (2013) reciprocates such linguistic practices through an interplay of terms like *plurilingualism* and *translanguaging* in a South Asian perspective.

Prospects of Pakistani English: Issues and Challenges

The other two important manifestations, i.e., *users* and *modes of communication* as proposed by Mahboob and Barratt (2014) have not been taken into sufficient consideration by scholars who advocate the Pakistani variant of English. This section discusses the prospects of Pakistani English by bringing the local and global linguistic issues and challenges to the forefront.

Users of English in Pakistan

Hassan (2004 classifies English language users in Pakistan into four groups:

i. Anglicized English users (very few) are indistinguishable in linguistic essence.
ii. Acrolect English users (some in number) are products of elite English medium schools and colleges.
iii. Mesolect English users (dominant in number) are products of Urdu medium schools and colleges and show a higher influence of the first language.
iv. Basilect English users (specific to clerks and office workers of low position) are less qualified usually secondary school level and intermediate.

However, this four-layered social stratification based on language use is not as simple as it seems.

Anglicized English Users

Anglicized English users can be classified into further four groups based on their socio-economic local and global standings (see Fig. 9.4). Pakistani immigrants in the US, the UK, and Canada who are employed in either white-collar or blue-collar jobs currently use at least six variants of Anglicized English which are simultaneously embedded with some similarities and many variations. Additional three variants of Anglicized English in Pakistan are visible in the 120 international and locally registered call centers based in the US, the UK, and Canada (and many non-registered call centers as well) which are running their telecom businesses with almost 2,300 employees (in registered call centers) in Pakistan.

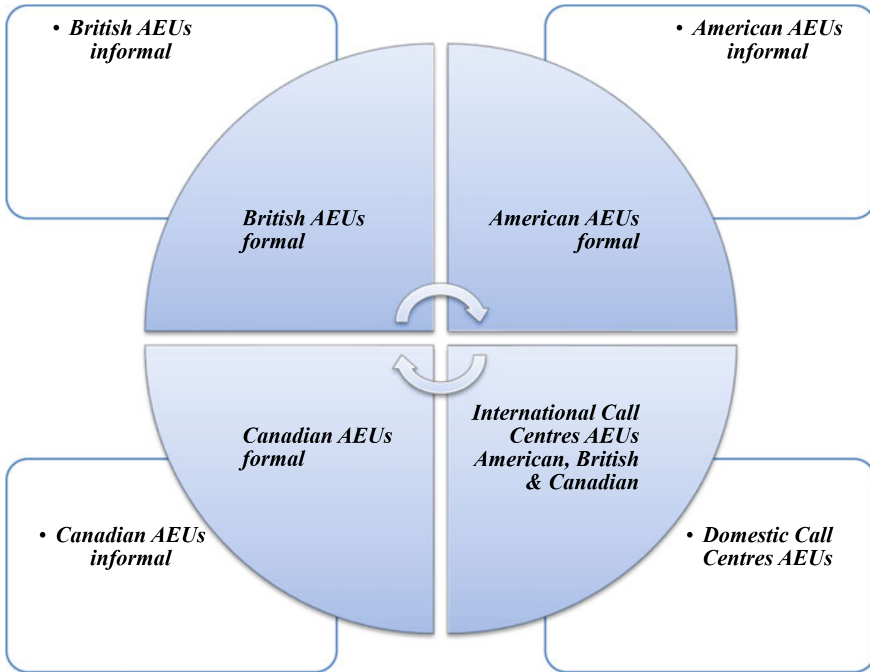


Fig. 9.4 Variation in Anglicized English Users (AEUs) in Pakistan

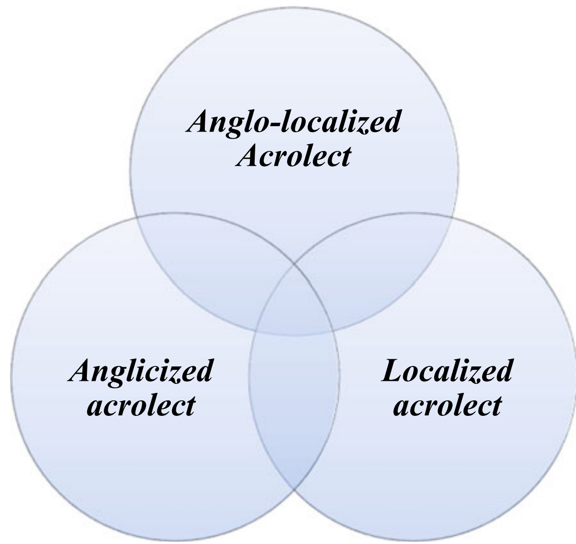
Acrolect English Users

The *acrolects* are products of elite English medium schools and colleges. They are closer to Anglicized English users, thus, taking the influence of all the Anglicized forms including the three (American, British, and Canadian) standard varieties. Besides these influences, they tend to use localized versions too in most situations. Thus, the acrolects can further be classified into.

- *Anglicized-acrolect,*
- *Localized-acrolect.*
- *Anglo-localized acrolect* (see Fig. 9.5).

Examples of acrolect English users can only be heard on the state television channel known as Pakistan TV or PTV. Though Hassan (2004:30) considers 'acrolect probably good for all local and international needs', it is unclear who this form is intelligible to and whether native (Americans, British, or Canadian) or non-native (Asians, Africans, European, or Australians) intelligibility is the criterion for standardizing acrolect in local contexts.

Fig. 9.5 Variation in Acrolect Users in Pakistan



Mesolect English Users

Mesolect users of English are dominant in number and have a substantial education background. Their English bears high influence of Urdu and other regional Pakistani languages such as Sindhi, Pashtu, Punjabi, Balochi, and Potohari. This regional variation in *mesolect* speakers in Pakistan is easily observable in different formal and informal situations (see Fig. 9.6). Mahmood (2014) in his recent PhD work identifies many variations in the phonological features of English language. Standardizing one regional variant of English and excluding others could raise many socio-linguistic and political issues which ultimately may result in linguistic apartheid along with ghettoising the regionally declared *non-standard* variants. This situation could further escalate dichotomies of social stratification in the presence of *Anglicized English* and *acrolect* based on certain attitudes towards the *standard* and *non-standard* variants.

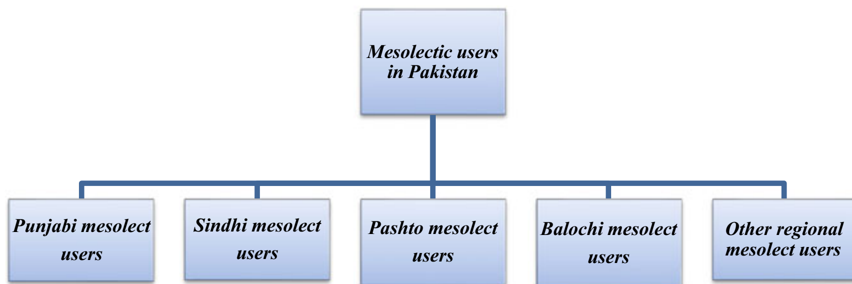


Fig. 9.6 Regional mesolect users' variation in Pakistan

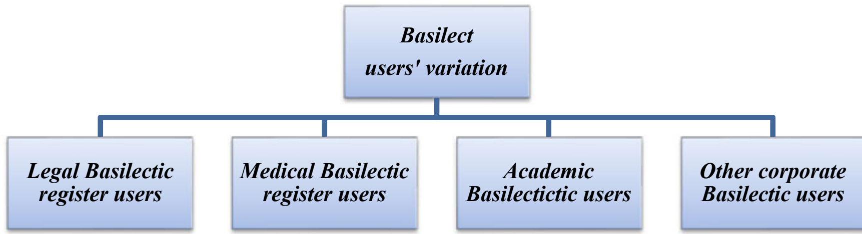


Fig. 9.7 Variation in Basilect users in Pakistan

Basilect English Users

Finally, there are the *basilect* users of English, who usually work at socially lower positions (such as clerical jobs), are academically less qualified and are responsible for performing their jobs through specific official genres in written English. They are usually experts at the jargon in their respective fields such as legal, medical, or academic in which they are practicing their English with some similarities and many variations. There is a need to explore these genres in greater depth in order to understand the linguistic features of *basilect* (see Fig. 9.7).

Modes of Communication and Generic Employment

Another very important aspect of Mahboob's (2013) three-dimensional model to conceptualize the modern English variations is the *mode of communication* including written, oral, and visual language used in different domains (see Table 9.1). These modes of communication are utilized through several different written, spoken, and visual genres including academic, legal, medical, cyber, political, and corporate. Each genre that is in practice in Pakistan varies in form and content as well as exhibits its generic identity through different structural (organizational) and lexico-grammatical

Table 9.1 Adapted from Mahboob (2014)

Domains	Example
Local, written, everyday	Friends writing letters/text messages, tweets to each other
Local, oral, everyday	Friends talking to each other about their plans for the holidays
Local, written, specialized texts	Texts written by and for a local group of people
Local, oral, specialized	People discussing specifics about their problems/situations
Global, written, everyday	International news agencies reporting on events
Global, oral, everyday	Conversations among people from different parts of the world
Global, written, specialized	Academics writing research papers
Global, oral, specialized	Conference presentations

Table 9.2 Genres practiced in Pakistan

Discourses	Examples of genres to be explored
Academic Discourse	**Written:** research articles, book reviews, conference abstracts, Ph.D. dissertations, grant proposals, textbooks, undergraduate essays, editor response letters, submission letters, reprint requests
	Spoken: lectures, student presentations, seminars, office hour meetings, tutorials, conference presentations, peer study groups, Ph.D. defenses, admission interviews
Media Discourse	**Written:** newspapers (letters to editor, business pages, entertainment pages etc.), magazines, advertisements, billboards, brochures, pamphlets, press releases
	Spoken: talk shows, documentaries, press conferences
Legal Discourse	**Written:** court-judgements, opinion articles, deeds
	Spoken: court room hearing, seminars, Bar meetings
Cyber Discourse	**Written:** text messages, Facebook statuses, tweets, emails, blogs

(textual) features that have not yet been explored in detail from the perspective of Pakistani variants of English.

For example, Shehzad and Abbas (2015, 2016) analyzed the introduction section of M.Phil. theses and found certain localized structural and textual patterns which share similarities with *non-native* writings but are different from *natives'* literacy practices. To establish the Pakistani variant of English, an exploration of all the genres (as mentioned in Table 9.2) is needed. This project is undoubtedly a huge task that requires long duration input and the support of large organizations working on languages (Table 9.2).

Recommendations

To support the process of localizing the English language in Pakistan, a few recommendations are made following the discussion in this chapter. Firstly, all genres currently in practice in all domains including academic, legal, media, workplace, and literary fields need to be classified. Secondly, as existing *genres* share many similarities and differences in their textual and structural patterns, a genre-based approach in investigating the phonological, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, and discoursal features of English used in Pakistan would further be effective in determining the prospects of a Pakistani variant of English.

Thirdly, the development of written and spoken corpora of academic, legal, political, media, cyber, workplace, and medical discourses can pave the way towards the establishment of a Pakistani variant. This huge task needs intense effort, time, expertise, and financial support.

Finally, the genres in practice in Pakistan (see Table 9.2) may be exploited in order to problematize the issue of Pakistani variants of English that could further determine the scope of English language used in the country at local and global levels.

Conclusion

The desire among Pakistani scholars for the acceptance and recognition of the Pakistani variants of English is based on both linguistic and sociolinguistic reasons. English has been used as a de facto official language of the country for the last many years; however, the practices of *users* have resulted in many anomalies, deviations, and linguistic idiosyncrasies. Several scholars such as, Baumgardner (1993), Rahman (2010), Hassan (2004), Mahboob (2009), Khan, (2012), and Talaat (2002), have addressed these idiosyncrasies on the yardstick of Standard English. They pointed out many similarities in *use*; however, the *users* and *modes of use* have not been addressed sufficiently and it is imperative to study these further. A *corpus-based genre* approach appears to be a highly effective approach in determining the prospects of Pakistani English to meet both local and global goals.

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Part IV
Curriculum Reform

Chapter 10
English Language Curriculum Development in Pakistani Universities

Humaira Irfan, Bushra Ahmed Khurram, and Yasir Hussain

Abstract This chapter reports on a study that investigates the four components essential to effective curriculum design in higher education programs: needs analysis, situational analysis, materials development, and evaluation. Qualitative data was collected through face-to-face interviews with ten English language teachers employed at a large public university that has nine campuses across the Pakistani province of Punjab. Participants were all members of the university's English language curriculum committees as well. Findings reveal that the curriculum committees developed and designed their programs without formal needs analysis, situational analysis, or evaluation of materials or the program. In addition, faculty members were of the view that the existing curricula and course content that is implemented in Pakistani universities do not develop academic rationalism, critical thinking, and cultural pluralism, thus failing to cater to the needs of a diverse audience. It is argued that the implication of such an approach towards curriculum and content design is limiting and contrary to the social justice needs of English education which should be aimed at empowering the learners. It is recommended that curriculum development in universities should build on critical feedback received from various English language courses taught at these universities.

Keywords Curriculum · Needs analysis · Situational analysis · Materials development and evaluation · Critical thinking

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Introduction

Curriculum in Pakistani universities is planned and enacted by selected curriculum committees which do not often include classroom teachers, who, as a result, face challenges while teaching the prescribed courses (Irfan, 2013). A majority of the teachers, as Siddiqui (2007: 50) observes, believe that they are unable to bring about any real change because 'the curriculum is handed down to them' without really involving them. The perception is that the English language curriculum in Pakistani universities lacks a needs and situational analysis, thus making it pertinent to review and consider feedback obtained from students and teachers (see Fig. 10.1).

Theoretical Framework of the Research

This section discusses various aspects of the existing curriculum and the rationale for proposing effective curriculum design and implementation.

English Language Curriculum

Curriculum is an essential component of education at all levels (Irfan, 2013) that includes not only what students learn but also how they learn it (Rodgers, 1989). It considers how teachers help students learn, how they use specific supporting materials, their teaching styles, and their methods of assessment. Figure 10.2 illustrates the four essential aspects of the curriculum as identified by Richards (2011).

For a curriculum to be useful, its development process should incorporate numerous essential components such as needs analysis, situational analysis, the planning of learning outcomes, organizing the course, selecting and preparing teaching

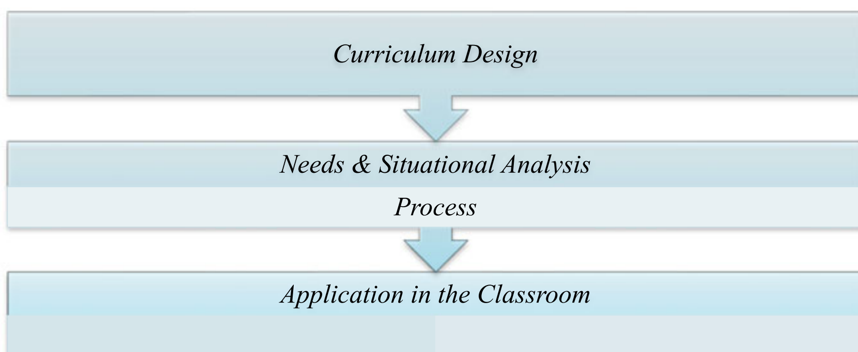

Fig. 10.1 Curriculum model for Pakistani universities

Fig. 10.2 Aspects of an English curriculum as identified by Richards (2011)

materials, and providing for effective teaching and evaluation (Johnson, 1989). It is equally essential to include information about learners' backgrounds, expectations, beliefs, and preferred learning styles, especially since learners are the key participants in curriculum development projects (Richards, 2011). Hence, a sound English as a Second Language (ESL) curriculum not only identifies students' language needs but also enables them to engage in a critical examination of the existing order and become active participants in shaping their own roles in it (Auerbach, 1995).

Among the multiple aims of needs analyses for curriculum development, Richards (2011) identifies the following:

- Finding out the language skills that a learner needs in order to perform a role, for instance, as a university student
- Helping determine whether an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students
- Determining which students from a group are most in need of language training skills
- Identifying a change of direction that is important to people in a reference group
- Identifying the gap between what students can do and what they need to be able to do
- Collecting information about a problem that learners are/might be experiencing.

Nunan (1992: 176) is of the view that 'the effectiveness of a language program will be dictated as much by the attitudes and expectations of the learners as by the specifications of the official curriculum'. He believes that learners come with their own agendas in the language lessons they attend, which determine what they take away from any given teaching/learning encounter. Hence, the goal of a need analysis

process is to collect information that can be instrumental in making decisions about the goals and content of a language course (Markee, 1997; Nunan, 2006). As Clark (1989: xii) observes: 'A language curriculum is a function of the interrelationships that hold between subject-specific concerns and other broader factors embracing socio-political and philosophical matters, educational value systems, theory and practice in curriculum design, teacher experiential wisdom and learner motivation. In order to understand the foreign language curriculum in any particular context it is therefore necessary to attempt to understand how all the various influences interrelate to give a particular shape to the planning and execution of the teaching/learning process'. Hence, another aspect to consider in curriculum development is situational analysis, the aim of which is to assess the potential impact of multiple factors on the planned curriculum. These factors may be political, social, economic, or institutional (Richards, 2011).

Among the goals of curriculum development, it is worth considering the following:

- Academic rationalism (Clark, 1989) which emphasizes the intrinsic value of the subject matter and its role in developing learner intellect, humanistic values, and rationality.
- Socio-economic ideology which justifies the teaching of the English language as an economic need for society.
- Development of thinking skills (Wegerif, 2002) which are instrumental in developing learner self-awareness, self-reflection, critical thinking, and learning strategies.
- Cultural pluralism that should prepare students to participate in several different cultures and not merely the culture of the dominant social and economic group (Burnett, 1998). The notion of cultural sensitivity emerges from the manner in which coursebook content promotes specific cultural values, norms, and ideological content. Hornberger (1991: 222) is of the view that it is important to develop 'cultural pluralism at school and in the community' to enable the growth of 'an integrated national society based on the autonomy of cultural groups'.
- Social reconstructionism, which is the result of active construction and accommodation of one's own sense of the world (Roberts, 1998). A curriculum derived from the perspective of the role that schools and learners can play in addressing social injustices and inequality (Apple, 1986; Freire, 1972) focuses on 'developing knowledge, skills and attitudes which would create a world where people care about each other, the environment, and the distribution of wealth. Tolerance, the acceptance of diversity and peace would be encouraged' (Morris, 1995: 20).

It is thus imperative that a curriculum should have goals and learning outcomes that are based on an understanding of both present and long-term needs of learners, as well as the beliefs and ideologies of the society where they exist. It is also important to incorporate these aspects of the curriculum into the language policy and language program design which according to Tomlinson (2008: 4) should adhere to the following principles:

- Making the language experience contextualized and comprehensible

- Ensuring that the learner is motivated, relaxed, positive, and engaged
- Incorporating salient, meaningful, and frequently encountered language and discourse features
- Helping the learner achieve deep and multi-dimensional processing of the language

Curriculum in Pakistan

It is established then that an effective English language curriculum should not only take into account a needs analysis and situational analysis but should also be designed in a manner that considers the intended learning outcomes for students and develops their ability for academic rationalism, critical thinking, and cultural pluralism.

In Pakistan, teachers are not involved in the process of language policy making nor in designing the curriculum which is key in transmitting language policy goals (Irfan, 2013). Teachers thus create their own goals in the classroom to accommodate the perceived curriculum gaps and to support learner comprehension. Teachers are, however, bound to teach from textbooks which are the key source of examinations in the Pakistani education system (Mansoor, 2002). This implies that despite their training, teachers often have 'little room for innovation in the presence of existing curriculum and syllabus' (Siddiqui, 2007: 51). Mahboob (2009) perceives the curriculum content in Pakistan as endeavoring to promote a national culture that may be linked with religious and ideological content, and that is likely to promote the cultural content of a dominant group with little focus on minorities and other competing global cultures.

Considering that in a culturally diverse country the goal of a curriculum should be to develop cultural pluralism, it is essential for language planners and curriculum developers to take into account learners' needs as well as the content that teachers have to teach in order to achieve the intended learning outcomes (Mohammed & Kumari, 2007).

Research Questions

This study investigates the following research questions:

i. What are Pakistani university teachers' views on the process of curriculum development in Pakistani universities?
ii. What are Pakistani university teachers' opinions about the selection and preparation of course reading materials in their universities?
iii. What are Pakistani university teachers' perceptions about the evaluation of curriculum in their universities?

Research Design

The research design of this predominantly qualitative study is based on investigating the following aspects as identified in Fig. 10.1:

- Needs analysis
- Situational analysis
- Process of curriculum design
- Curriculum application in the classroom
- Achievement of intended learning outcomes
- Teacher evaluation.

Context

The context of the study comprised three out of the nine campuses of a large public university in the Punjab province of Pakistan. The three campuses are specifically based in the city of Lahore, Punjab.

Participants

Participants in this study include ten English language instructors who were also members of the curriculum committees in their respective campuses. Nine out of the ten participants had MPhil degrees and one had a Ph.D. in TESOL from the United Kingdom.

Data Collection

Data was collected through consensual recordings of face-to-face interviews that lasted approximately 45 min. The interview questions were unstructured and transcribed texts of interviews were shared with participants to check for accuracy of understanding. Confidentiality of interviewees and their universities was ensured through the use of a pseudonym for the context (Leaders' University or LU). The interviewees were accordingly identified as Leaders' University Teachers or LUT1, LUT2, and so on.

Findings and Discussion

Data were analyzed to generate significant findings pertaining to English language curriculum development in the context. These have been discussed under the following emergent categories:

- Beliefs about curriculum in higher education
- Curriculum committee selections
- Purpose of curriculum design
- Process of curriculum development
- Academic needs of students
- Situational analysis of various campuses
- Preparation of teaching materials
- Evaluation of learning outcomes and university teachers.

Beliefs About Curriculum in Higher Education

Participants expressed their views about designing and implementing curriculum in universities with statements such as below:

> '*curriculum is a vehicle through which different attributes are delivered and skills are developed in students*' (LUT1).
>
> '*it is a well-planned document in higher education that is reliable and up-to-date*' (LUT2).
>
> '*it should be according to professional international standards*' (LUT4).
>
> '*competency of graduates depends upon curriculum design*' (LUT5).
>
> '*it involves knowledge, understanding and application of theory*' (LUT9).
>
> '*it is the backbone of education system*' (LUT10).

These views provide interesting insights into prevalent curriculum practices, such as it involves comprehension and the application of knowledge and global standards.

Curriculum Committee Selection

In sharing their views on curriculum committee selections in their respective campuses, participants believed that the committee formation should focus on, '*…bringing together curriculum experts from different academic units…*' (LUT1) so that, '*…experienced and trained professionals are nominated…*' (LUT2).

The rationale behind forming curriculum committees was believed to be, '*…to facilitate students' learning in right direction…*' (LUT6) and, '*…to exchange expert opinions…*' (LUT7).

However, they believed that the actual selection criteria were based on anything but expertise. For instance, as the following participants reveal,

'*...for selection 'seniority' is considered...*' (LUT8).

'*...PhD faculty are given preference...*' (LUT9).

'*...personal relations with management are important...*' (LUT10).

Participants all agreed that the purpose of forming curriculum committees was to exchange opinions and to facilitate students' learning effectively. At least one participant believed that Ph.D. holders were given preference when it came to forming these committees. However, this is likely to be an unfounded perception considering that even among the participants in this study only one faculty member out of the ten interviewed held a Ph.D. in TESOL. Some participants highlighted that identifying curriculum committee members based on personal relations or seniority in years of experience instead of individual knowledge and expertise about curriculum design were among the reasons for the unsystematic curriculum being prescribed in universities. It is unclear whether participants themselves had been identified on similar criteria to become members of their respective curriculum committees.

Purpose of Curriculum Design

The purpose of the curriculum is not merely to keep in sight instructional tactics and intended learning outcomes but to produce skillful and trained learners who can have efficacious, contented, and sustainable professional lives. Participants in the study believed in the significance of curriculum design stating,

'*...the curriculum design process has substantial significance for creating a contextually relevant and responsive teaching and learning environment for both teachers and students...*' (LUT1).

The aim of an effectively designed curriculum is seen to be as, '*...better content...*' (LUT4) that is intended to, '*...lead to fulfillment of objectives...*' (LUT8), and ultimately help learners in, '*...qualifying for a degree...*' (LUT9).

Participants in their reflection over the main purposes of the curriculum design cited building feasible teaching and learning settings and updating content and objectives as the core objectives, however, failing to consider the most critical purpose, that of developing effective employability skills among learners. They also discerned that effective curriculum design dealt with identifying suitable instructional strategies, developing academic rationalism, cultural pluralism, socio-economic justice and equality, and self-reflection and critical thinking.

Process of Curriculum Development

Curriculum design was seen as comprising, '…*needs assessment, identifying goals and objectives, students' learning experiences, teaching and learning strategies, implementation, evaluation and feedback*…' (LUT1). While the criteria outlined by the Higher Education Commission (HEC) was carried out, it was highlighted that, '…*piloting is not carried out*…' (LUT3) prior to implementing any curriculum. Aside from indicating that the HEC mandated principles on curriculum design and assessment were adhered to, participants were unable to and/or hesitant to explain how course contents were organized. Perhaps, one reason for this as Siddiqui (2007: 50) observes is that, '… the curriculum is handed down to them so that they cannot bring any change…'.

Academic Needs of Students

Awareness of learners' academic needs is crucial in designing and implementing the curriculum productively in universities. However, as one participant perceived it, the academic needs of learners in universities are understood to be only, '…*subject knowledge and getting a degree*…' (LUT2). Another participant understood learner needs to be, '…*trends in subject, research skills, use of technology and conceptual understanding*…' (LUT3). While participants were aware of the importance associated with understanding learner needs, the reality of the situation was that, '…*no needs are kept in view*…' (LUT9) and, '…*the only means of data are assessment of students*…' (LUT7).

Postgraduate learners in Pakistani universities belong to diverse socio-linguistic and educational backgrounds, and hence, they are likely to need academic skills that will help them cope with studying at a university of higher education. It is important to identify the gap between what learners are able to do and what they should be able to do. This makes it imperative to gather information about learners' academic problems so that an effective curriculum can be designed and implemented in universities.

Situational Analysis of Various Campuses

Participants were of the view that the only way of carrying out an appropriate situational analysis was with the inclusion of, '…*faculty from different campuses of the university*…' (LUT8). However, the current committee members did not visit the various campuses of the university because all curriculum committee meetings were arranged at the university's main campus in Lahore. This resulted in

committee members having no authentic first-hand information or awareness about the conditions of the various campuses located across the province of Punjab.

Preparation of Teaching Materials

Participants indicated a gap between curriculum design and implementation highlighting that,

> '…*in our university, preparing teaching materials for teachers is not the responsibility of curriculum committees*…' (LUT1).

Another participant reported that,

> '…*the list of books is provided along with outlines without ensuring whether these books are accessible to students or not*…' (LUT2).

It was thus revealed that learners experienced language learning difficulties and academic problems because the required materials were not provided or made available to them in accordance with their respective course outlines and the recommended books were unavailable either in bookstores or libraries.

Evaluation of Learning Outcomes and University Teachers

Formative and summative assessments were the only measures reported in practice for evaluating the outcomes of various courses. At least one participant reported that,

> '…*in universities, teachers' performance is mostly evaluated by the Quality Enhancement Cells (QECs). Several aspects are taken into account in this regard such as, students' performance (results), course evaluations, research input and teachers' participation in professional development activities*…' (LUT1).

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the findings from this study, it can be concluded that the current English language curriculum in the context explored has identifiable gaps in areas such as needs analysis, situational analysis, and achievement of the intended learning outcomes. Findings also reflect that the manner in which the curriculum is designed and implemented in Pakistani universities does not develop learners' ability for academic rationalism, critical thinking, and cultural pluralism. In exploring participants' perceptions about the theory and application of the existing curriculum, learners' needs, and the prerequisite international standards for curriculum design, it is revealed that while universities are expected to follow the prescribed HEC rules

for curriculum design, the actual syllabus is executed without piloting it. It also does not include a post-implementation recommended review process. The only way of curriculum evaluation currently in practice is through formative and summative assessments conducted by teachers and the evaluation of teachers by learners. Further, curriculum committees are believed to be formed based on personal relations with management and seniority in the number of years. The nominated members rarely visit campuses to obtain firsthand information about campus conditions or their needs.

It is recommended that the academic needs of learners and critical feedback acquired from both learner and teacher evaluations should be taken into consideration for the future design and implementation of the curriculum in universities.

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Chapter 11
The Reality of Change: Teachers' Perceptions About Curriculum Reform in Pakistan

Farwa Hussain Shah

Abstract Changing an existing curriculum is a complex process, and its success depends on a number of factors, one of which is the significant contribution of teachers to the success or failure of any educational reform. To explore the importance of teachers in the process of change, this study investigates the currently in use undergraduate curriculum that was introduced by the Pakistani government in 2010. Whereas public schools in Pakistan are following a single national curriculum starting from the year 2021, at the time of this study, colleges and universities continue to adhere to the curriculum that was introduced in 2010 as part of a major nationwide curriculum reform. Data was collected through the use of semi-structured interviews conducted with eight English language lecturers employed in three public sector colleges in a major city. Findings revealed that, despite a positive attitude towards the concept of change, the lecturers who participated in this study considered the curriculum change project impractical due to a lack of planning for implementation. They also felt marginalized in the process of decision-making and found themselves unprepared to take up this challenge. Moreover, the participating lecturers expressed skepticism regarding the sustainability of the new curriculum owing to the political and economic instability at the time. The study thus highlights numerous critical issues such as the importance of the implementation stage of a new curriculum, and the often-ignored role of teachers in making decisions about educational reforms. It also confirms the significance of teacher education and teacher preparedness for the success of any curriculum change.

Keywords Curriculum change · Teachers' perceptions · Implementation · Higher education Pakistan

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Introduction

In Pakistan, English permeates the social, professional, and educational life and is used as the official language in all legal and official documentation. However, English language education in Pakistan has often been censured for its poor quality and absence of much-needed curriculum reforms (Mehrunnisa, 2009; Siddiqui, 2007). English is taught as a compulsory subject at all levels: primary, secondary, and tertiary. In public sector colleges (undergraduate) it was taught through a literature-based curriculum until 2010—an approach that was heavily criticized for not being able to develop the required competencies among undergraduate students. The teaching methodology was generally teacher-centered, textbook-directed, and focused on exam preparation.

In 2001, after more than 30 years of what has been described as stagnation and neglect (Jamil, 2009), reforms were introduced into the English language curricula at all levels. This process of comprehensive curriculum change is still in progress in different phases. In 2010, the higher education curriculum (grade 12 and onwards) underwent a complete change which had important implications for students, teachers, and educational institutions. For the English language curriculum, it meant moving away from the traditional literature-based curriculum towards a skill-based syllabus, and a shift from traditional teacher-centered teaching approaches towards more student-centered teaching methodologies. This not only necessitated changes in the examination system but also required financial support for the provision of resources and materials and for the training and development of teachers (Aziz et al., 2014).

This curriculum change naturally generated challenges for those responsible for its implementation—teachers or lecturers who are 'a crucial factor in the ultimate success or failure of that innovation' (Li, 1998: 698). In this study, the terms teachers and lecturers are used synonymously. The curriculum change that is explored in this study greatly affected the lecturers who participated in the study, as they were required to make a paradigm shift in their teaching methodology. This meant that they were required to re-assess their beliefs and practices about learning and teaching (Adey & Hewitt, 2004), creating a situation that necessitated an exploration and understanding of the perceptions, views, and feelings of lecturers teaching in public sector institutions.

This study thus aims at investigating Pakistani lecturers' perceptions about the nature of the curriculum change implemented, its implementation process, their role in decision-making pertaining to this reform, and their preparedness for the change.

Literature Review

Conceptualization of Curriculum

Curriculum is defined as 'a plan for action that guides instruction' (Zais, 1976: 38). It is a set of intended or structured learning outcomes (Johnson, 1967 is cited in Giroux et al., 1981: 72) that guide a course of study. Post-modernist researchers (Pinar, 2008; Slattery, 2013) consider it as a process of decision-making about the needs, goals, objectives, content areas, teaching methods, and the evaluation of the whole process. Mckernan (2008: 7) perceives the curriculum as something 'creative, unpredictable in its itinerary and path of growth: moral, intellectual, spiritual and constructive'. This constructivist point of view presents the curriculum as a dynamic, complex, and creative process in which teachers and learners are active participants in creating knowledge and understanding it as a construct for social interaction with others (Levine, 2002).

Curriculum Change

Curriculum change implies 'alterations from existing practice to some new or revised practice (involving materials, teaching and beliefs) in order to achieve certain desired students' learning outcomes' (Fullan & Park, 1981: 10). Crookes et al. (1994) believe that innovation in a second language teaching program is generally an informed change that is brought about by direct experience, research findings, or other means. It results in the adaptation of pedagogic practices so that instruction is better able to promote second or foreign language learning.

Curriculum change is perceived to be dictated by the shifting patterns in the social-political, economic, and technological configuration of a society. As times change, a society's vision of itself is affected and transformed by the occurrences around it. This situation also has an influence on what constitutes knowledge (Frank & Gabler, 2006). This makes it imperative for the higher education system to become responsive and relevant to the new needs of the society (Beck & Young, 2005; Castells, 2001) and to ensure that the changes taking place are integrated into the curriculum. Curriculum change is then based on the rationale that there exists a disparity between the requirements of the society and the education system. When the existing educational methods, content, and structures fail to respond to the new visions of the society, a change in curriculum is indispensable.

In the last two decades, these changes have increasingly been influenced by globalization in terms of economic, technological, as well as social and environmental dimensions. Local boundaries have become vague and educational boundaries have been pushed aside (Hargreaves, 1989). The world has become a global village and industrialized countries at the center of progress as well as those in the periphery are all affected by this change (Al'Abri, 2011). With this increasing awareness of

interdependence among cultures, economies, and technologies, there is a dire need for societies to transform their education systems in order to keep up with the rest of the world (Muller, 2000). This places immense pressure on educational institutions to transform their curricula in accordance with the needs of the age.

The problems of educational quality and relevance are considered to be best addressed by changes in the curriculum and its delivery rather than by a simple increase in public investments or expenditures on education (Nanzhao, 2006). Moreover, ongoing changes require that at all educational levels the curriculum is continuously revised and updated (ibid) with the main aim being to improve learning (Bondi & Wiles, 1998). With changes in the educational structure, English language education is also faced with change implementation issues. These are more apparent in non-native English speaking (NNEST) countries, which have brought about a number of curriculum changes at different levels and of various degrees. China implemented a new curriculum across all levels in 2003–04. Japan's new curriculum, introduced in 1998, was implemented in 2002. In Pakistan too, in 2010 after a period of more than three decades, the English language curriculum went through large-scale changes across all levels including the undergraduate level of university education. This change has had significant effects on the educational system of the country.

The process of curriculum change involves three stages: initiation, implementation, and routinization (institutionalization) (Fullan, 2001, 2007; Waugh & Godfrey, 1995). The importance of a successful implementation phase of change can never be over-emphasized as this is the stage where issues such as human resistance and understanding of the policy rationale arise. As Verspoor (1989) argues that for the institutionalization of change within an educational setting, successful implementation is a pre-requisite. This is especially significant since implementation focuses on the nature and extent of actual practice as well as the factors and processes that influence the successful achievement of change (Fullan, 1992). Broadly speaking, implementation also entails the process of engaging with and incorporating the latest ideas, programs, activities, structures, and policies that are new to the people involved.

Consequently, it is at the implementation stage that the nature of change is most visible along with the process by which people accommodate themselves and their practices. It can be seen as a separate phase beyond the documented and verbal declarations because it concerns the actual application of innovation by people. The literature on educational change leading to reform and innovation (Fullan, 2007; Verspoor, 1989) continually highlights the significance of the implementation process.

Successful implementation is equally focused on the 'what' and 'how' of the desired educational change. Well-designed curricula with laudable aims might fail to achieve their objectives if the implementation process is ineffective (Fullan, 1991; Higgins, 2004; O'Sullivan, 2002). Often the focus is exclusively on the policy formulation stage, i.e., which results in rushing through the implementation phase in order to get to the routinization phase (Rogan & Aldous, 2005). In reference to curriculum changes in Australia and the USA, Porter (1980: 75) verifies this stating that 'the people concerned with creating policy and enacting the relevant legislation seldom look down the track to the implementation stage'.

Compatibility between the curriculum change and the practical realities at the social and classroom levels is vital for successful implementation. Many non-English-speaking countries in the recent past have endeavored to change their English language curricula. However, these projects have been increasingly mismatched to the ground realities (Phillipson, 1992). Wedell (2003) in discussing the language curriculum changes in Japan refers to Pennycook (1989), who stresses the failure of approaches to language learning and teaching that are adopted without considering the classroom realities and educational cultures into which they are to be introduced. Thus, no matter how ideal the curriculum is, if it does not match the educational culture, learner needs, teacher beliefs, and pedagogical realities of the context it is bound to be resisted and is likely to fail.

In addition to the factors discussed, the role of stakeholders is critical in the success of the change. These include teachers, teachers' associations, school administration, school boards, parents, as well as community leaders, business leaders, political leaders, and taxpayers in general (Schlechty & Bob, 1991). The involvement and engagement of teachers in implementing and managing change is imperative as they transform a specified curriculum into practical reality in classrooms. Dembélé and Lefoka (2007) highlight that the gap between policy and implementation will continue to exist unless adequate attention is given to teachers as they are best aware of learners' needs, and therefore should have the strongest say in curriculum decisions (Webb, 2002). Including teachers in decisions associated with curriculum change guarantees enthusiasm. At the same time, it is also important to upgrade their competencies and skills to enable them to execute the expected change which might otherwise result in failure (Gruba et al., 2004).

The literature on curriculum development and change voices the importance of teachers' roles in curriculum implementation. Sieburth (1992: 191) states that, 'effective and innovative practices are those that promote teacher directed curriculum change and management'. Similarly, researchers such as Bernstein (1974), Elliot (1994), Lieberman (1997), and Markee (1997) highlight the need for teachers' active participation in curriculum change. Finch (1981) believes that teachers' active involvement in decision-making has comparatively increased; however, this involvement is still not as much as it should be. The policy makers are not teachers and changes are imposed from the outside (Barrow, 1984; Richards, 2003 as cited in Troudi & Alwan, 2010). Apple (1995: 38) reveals that teachers in the USA have been largely disempowered and do not have a role in the field of public curriculum development. In Pakistan, the situation is even more disempowering as curriculum development is a prerogative of the Ministry of Education and is carried out at the centralized level. As Jamil (2009) reveals, curriculum changes are politically instigated, and their continuation greatly depends on the political conditions in the country. This is what Barrow (1984) refers to as a top-down approach to curriculum change with teachers being expected to conform to the external policy makers' decisions.

In the situations described here, teachers are not prepared for change especially when importance is given to materials development and the achievement of the objectives leaving the real players neglected (Olson, 1977). To educate teachers about the concept of curriculum development and to keep them engaged in the

process, Olson (1977: 63) calls for the adaptive approach in teacher education which 'seeks to provide teachers with conceptual tools that enable them to exercise choice effectively'. It is believed that such approaches are helpful in increasing teachers' awareness of their situation and in enhancing their intellectual functioning.

Furthermore, successful change requires needs analysis and situation analysis. Teachers' involvement at this stage is quite significant. According to Qureshi (2007: 167), 'It is clear that the curriculum in whatever way it may be designed must be consistent with the comprehension of the student to benefit by it'. If students are unprepared to benefit from the change, then educational reform will be ineffective. Hence, teachers being aware of their students' level and situation, are the best source of information as well as the best agents of change implementation. They can highlight students' needs, prepare their learners for change, and can eventually help make the reforms efficacious.

This clearly implies that the opinions, perceptions, and beliefs of teachers are crucial in implementing curriculum change. To the best of my knowledge, there are few studies on curriculum change and teachers' perceptions in the field of TESOL (Troudi & Alwan, 2010). Defeng (1998) in an exploration of Korean English language teachers' perceptions about introducing curriculum changes identifies that teachers' understanding of the curriculum innovation and change is central to its success. For change to be effective, it has to be gradually introduced with due importance being given to the ideas and perceptions of the teachers, who should also be properly prepared and educated in order to ensure successful implementation.

Kennedy and Kennedy (1996), who explored the attitudes of teachers in a change implementation project in Hong Kong, believe that part of the complexity of curriculum change is the attitude and role of the teachers. Despite being experts in their field, they are forced to follow the wishes of parents and policy makers. McGrail (2005) identifies a range of psychological effects of change on teachers' self-perception when change is imposed without asking for their opinions or analyzing their needs. Burns (1995) in exploring teachers' perceptions on curriculum development highlights the differences between their beliefs and practices. She emphasizes the need for teacher participation in curriculum development stating that it should be a gradual process and should not be implemented 'piecemeal' (Ewell, 1997). Troudi and Alwan (2010) in their exploration of secondary school English language teachers' feelings about curriculum change in the United Arab Emirates discovered that the initial feelings of being marginalized gradually diminished as teachers' understanding of the new curriculum increased. The study strongly recommends teacher participation in curriculum change and decision-making.

Context of the Study

In Pakistan there is little published research on curriculum reform. While a few scholarly works do exist in the form of opinions about the historical and political mishandling of the education system in Pakistan (Jamil, 2009; Nayyar & Salim, 2004),

there is, however, no systematic research about the higher educational curriculum change implemented in 2010. There is also no recorded information available on the feelings or perceptions of lecturers involved in this process, nor any insight into the challenges that they have experienced. This lack of information or research prompted me to investigate the role of lecturers who were stakeholders in implementing the curriculum reform and I thus embarked on this study with a view to contributing to the knowledge base in the Pakistani context.

Methodology

The interpretive paradigm was adopted to capture the diversity of human experience, which, 'begins with individuals and sets out to understand and interpret their experiences of a particular phenomenon' (Cohen et al., 2000: 23). Knowledge in this paradigm transpires from the individuals' interpretation of the world around them in particular situations, thus emphasizing the importance of understanding human experiences from their own perspectives. Employing a qualitative research methodology facilitated my understanding of the subjective world of human experience and to gain a deeper insight into my research questions.

Participants

Eight English language teachers/lecturers (6 females and 2 males) were selected on a voluntary basis from three public sector degree colleges in a major city. Three of these participants were holders of masters' degrees in TESOL/TEFL/English literature. Two were enrolled in M.Phil. programs at the time of participating in this study. All of them had the experience of teaching the old as well as the new curriculum.

I conducted semi-structured interviews to allow participants the opportunity to express their perceptions freely. This helped me identify themes in the information shared and subsequently resulted in the collection of rich data (Kvale, 2007; Radnor, 2001). Semi-structured interviews also encouraged participants to express their feelings, attitudes, expectations, and insights without losing focus.

Data Analysis

Following qualitative research procedures (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the naturally occurring patterns in data were allowed to emerge in an inductive manner (Strauss & Corbin, 1998 is cited in Gan et al., 2004). A 'qualitative content analysis of the raw data was carried out because it is seen as helpful in answering the why questions and analyzing perceptions' (Sage Encyclopedia, 2008:

120). The emergent patterns in the data were analyzed and perceptions related to the research aims were highlighted. These were then comprehensively discussed to provide an exhaustive description of the phenomena. Some of the emergent findings substantiate findings from previous studies, while others refute the scant amount of past research that exists.

Lecturers' Perceptions

In this section, the findings that highlight lecturers' perceptions about the curriculum change in higher education in Pakistan are discussed.

The Necessity of Change

The idea of curriculum changes and communicative language teaching was received positively as a much-desired initiative in higher education. Participants in my research believed that a skills-focused curriculum would improve students' general language proficiency and their overall academic ability. This could bring Pakistan's higher education system at par with the international level. These findings highlight that lecturers in the researched context understood the need for change in their setting because the current curriculum was dated, rigid, limited in scope, lacked innovation, and encouraged rote learning. The results also indicate that most of the English language lecturers in this study were quite progressive and believed in an active educational environment. They were interested in continuous professional development aligned to the requirements of the changing international scenario. This shows the 2010 curriculum change in a positive light as it seems to have driven the teachers/lecturers to become active in their own development. Interestingly, these findings contrast with those of Konings et al. (2007) and Choi (2008), who in their studies about school reforms in the Netherlands and Korea respectively discovered that teachers perceived the curriculum change negatively because they did not believe in the need for communicative language teaching reforms.

Practicality of Change

While they appreciated the concept of change, the lecturers who participated in my study considered the new curriculum impractical and unrealistic as they felt that the pedagogical and logistic limitations were disregarded. They criticized the absence of a formal needs analysis before implementing a radical change and referred to it as 'a cosmetic covering', which would remain unrealistic unless the 'grass root' issues were resolved. This draws attention to the fact that for a curriculum change to be successful, those implementing it must consider the pedagogical realities of that context and society, otherwise, the change is bound to create problems at the time of

implementation. These findings echo the findings from similar studies conducted by Orafi (2013) in Libya and Nunan (2003) in the Asia Pacific region. They conclude that curricular changes and educational reforms which are not grounded in reality and lack consideration for teachers, social realities, and the cost involved are likely to result in failure.

The findings from this study clearly reveal that in making decisions about implementing a curriculum reform, the socio-economic and pedagogical realities of the country, and the background of the students as well as the constraints they experienced were not taken into consideration. The lecturers who participated in my study believed that the decision-makers had little or no experience and understanding of the needs, lacks, and wants of the public sector colleges. They, therefore, took a limited perspective of the situation and based major reforms on the much higher-level students enrolled in elite universities. This was perceived to have resulted in deteriorating the educational standards rather than improving them over the period that these changes were implemented. Part of the problem could be put down to the failure of decision-makers to carry out a needs assessment. Ali and Baig (2012) in their study on curriculum change in medical colleges in Pakistan discovered that the program was unsuccessful because it was imposed by the World Health Organization without taking into account the national needs of the context. Shamim (2011) refers to Brock-Utne (2007) in emphasizing that ideas without any indigenous needs analysis can never be successful in solving the language education issues in any country. Thus, any externally imposed plans that do not consider the needs of the individuals in the context in question, the society, and the organizations that are directly to be impacted upon by those plans can seldom result in effective educational reforms.

Role of Lecturers in the Change Process

The lecturers in my study indicated strong feelings about the change. They believed that it was politically instigated as only bureaucrats, politicians, and representatives from the elite institutions were involved in decision-making. The curriculum change, they believed, was imposed on public college lecturers without any consideration of their views and situation.

This highlights the significant yet ineffective top-down approach towards curriculum change. Weber (2008) in an analysis of curriculum change in South Africa found similar results and emphasizes that for change proposals to become reality, even if they emanate from powerful sources such as the state, the teachers must be directly involved so that they can develop ownership. Sieburth (1992: 191) too, in a review of curriculum change in developing countries such as Papua New Guinea and Israel, discovered that, 'effective and innovative practices are those that promote teacher directed curriculum change and management'. Spillane et al. (2002) add that when teachers do not participate in planning the curriculum change, it results in inappropriate classroom implementation as they lack the knowledge, understanding, and skills required for the successful execution of reforms.

It is no exaggeration to state that participants in this study felt strongly marginalized and considered themselves passive recipients of the orders of the powerful curriculum change planners. Findings thus highlight that for lasting and successful curriculum change teachers should not be treated as technicians merely executing orders. They should instead be included in the decision-making process as professional decision-makers so that they can own the curriculum.

Readiness of the Systems for the Change

Participants in this study felt that the curriculum change in their context was hurriedly implemented without proper planning or groundwork. As one participant states, '*it's not about changing books and increasing the years (required to study). Everything is different…the examination system, the way of teaching*'.

They also perceived the universities affiliating with the curriculum change to be highly inefficient and ill-equipped for this change. They were precipitously compelled to affiliate and manage three to four colleges with a large population. As the systems were not prepared, it led to confusion and inadequacy among teachers and students. Participants argued that the success of any educational change depends on how ready its systems, institutions, and stakeholders are, and when the system itself is unprepared for change, the standards fail to rise.

The lecturers in this research did not resist but they seemed dissatisfied for many reasons, which have been discussed in this study. These findings raise an important issue, that if an educational reform has to show lasting positive results to fulfill the purpose for which it is introduced, then there should be long-term planning based on a formal needs and situation analysis. Policies and changes implemented in haste without any groundwork are likely to result in inefficiency and wastefulness of both human and economic resources.

Student Readiness for Change

Participants in my study believed that public college students, who hailed from backgrounds of Urdu medium instruction, were ill-prepared for a curriculum reform as they lacked adequate English language skills that were required to be able to meet the demands of the new curriculum. Previous research also shows that the English language proficiency level of undergraduate learners in Pakistani public colleges is generally quite low (Malik, 1996; Siddiqui, 2007). Mansoor (2005), in her nationwide research of public and private higher education institutes, found that students in public sector colleges faced severe difficulties in English language. This low language proficiency negatively affects curriculum change implementation. Li (2002) reported similar effects of curriculum reform on students with low English proficiency in Hong Kong. Karavas-Doukas (1995) also discovered that teachers of Greek students with low proficiency in English found it challenging to implement communicative language teaching.

Hence, it is clear that this complex issue calls into question, not only the feasibility of curriculum change but also the whole process of curriculum planning and implementation. The discord between curriculum aims and students' level of English language proficiency might be due to the curriculum designers' ignorance of the level of learners. In this case, the very basis of change becomes questionable implying whether there was an underlying political agenda that drove the intended change. It also raises concerns about whether teachers themselves are over comfortable with the existing curriculum and may have found it difficult to cope with the new one, which is why curriculum planners are being blamed for being inconsiderate. There could be multiple reasons for this, including contextual limitations, and this warrants deeper research into the origins as well as the implementation of the curriculum reform.

There is additional complexity in the fact that despite the starkly different English language proficiency levels of the public sector colleges and elite private colleges, all students are required to follow the same curriculum. This disparity between Urdu and English medium educated students creates complications in the implementation of expected changes for both students as well as teachers. Mansoor (2004) has also pointed out the diversity of educational backgrounds that typically characterize Pakistani students at the university level. Wang (2008) who found similar differences in the level of students in China also identified similar negative effects on the curriculum implementation in Chinese institutions. Her teacher participants from average Chinese universities believed that teachers in the top universities had an advantage over them due to the higher proficiency students.

The concerns of participants in this study appeared justified owing to the situation in Pakistan where elite universities plan and draft courses. These courses are then implemented in their universities and the affiliated colleges where the proficiency levels of students are quite different. Elite universities are thus seen as insensitive to these differences because of which public sector students and teachers tend to suffer.

Teacher Readiness for the Change

Teacher preparedness also surfaced as a strong concern among participants in my study. Findings confirmed that if teachers lack the required skills, expertise, and information, they would be less confident to put the change successfully into practice. Cohen and Hills (2001) also note this issue and state that when teachers are expected to embrace new instructional approaches without sufficient training and information about the importance of change, it often results in inadequate adoption of the curriculum mandate, which in turn affects its practical success. Moreover, the absence of such provision might result in anxiety and thus the teaching and learning process suffers. The ultimate victims are the students.

Participants in my study found themselves unprepared for the change. They were expected to change their teaching methodology, introduce new and the latest techniques, and were supposed to work in a semester system that they were unfamiliar with. These circumstances exposed them to undue stress, and they were worried

about the impact of the situation on their students. All participants were of the view that they should have been properly trained before the implementation of change.

Prospects of Sustainability

An important perception that surfaced was the participating lecturers' skepticism about the viability of a major curriculum change within the constraints caused by political instability in the country. They felt that the social and financial instability of the country along with the lack of planning might bring the curriculum change initiative to a sudden end, a fate similar to many other initiatives taken by governments in the past. They cited this in view of the fact that in Pakistan it is customary for succeeding governments to ensure that any ambitious educational programs launched by preceding governments are disrupted or made redundant. It was feared that the lecturers' hard work might go to waste if a new government suddenly brainstormed another change.

There was also mention of financial constraints caused by political instability which could negatively affect the success of the reform and could even lead to its suspension altogether. Undoubtedly, the political scenario in Pakistan is quite volatile and creates uncertainties about governmental policies. Many governments in the past 68 years have been overthrown in an untimely manner and a number of reforms initiated by them have been reversed by their successors. Aly (2007: 2) states that rather than continuing the policies for the larger interest of the people, the government in power acts on what he calls, 'dominant political paradigm and compulsions of the day'. Jamil (2009) has a similar opinion that curriculum changes are politically instigated, and their continuation is greatly dependent on the political conditions in the country. Often as a result of the continuous political turmoil and successive changes in the top-most levels of government offices, reform policies are generally hurriedly imposed without having clear and well-researched implementation plans. Therefore, ordinances rarely complete the period necessary to bring the expected results. Ali (2006: 4) verifies that the educational policies, plans, and programs of 1970, 1972, 1979, and 1992 all failed to varying degrees to fully achieve their desired objectives. Thus, it seems quite understandable that there is always a possibility in the minds of the lecturers that things might be terminated suddenly, and this feeling of uncertainty is quite harmful to teacher motivation and enthusiasm. However, the curriculum change explored in this study is almost in the tenth year of its implementation, and despite the change in government, so far there are no signs of any plans to revoke the curriculum. Therefore, the fear of unsustainability in the present situation so far seems to be allayed and it is hoped that this change will stay.

Additional interesting details that emerged in this study include participants regarding the new curriculum as theoretically impressive yet overly ambitious and impractical due to a lack of planning and resources and the absence of proper teacher training. The lecturers, perceiving the change as unfeasible in their context, stressed the necessity of needs analysis. They also found themselves quite unprepared to take up the challenge.

This study thus highlights several critical issues related to curriculum change. It stresses the importance of the implementation stage of a new curriculum and the significance of teachers' role in the decision-making process about educational change and reform. It also emphasizes the value of teacher education and teacher preparedness for the success of any curriculum change. Realizing the fact that such a major curriculum change would be highly consequential for the higher education system of Pakistan, and would have far-reaching effects on it, I believe that this reform and its impact need to be investigated further on a larger scale. There is also a need for more research on the classroom implementation of change and the factors that affect teachers' implementation of these reforms. It is hoped that these issues will be examined at length in a future research study.

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Part V
ESL Writing

Chapter 12
ESL Writing Courses: Perspectives of Pakistani Graduates at a University in the United States

Iftikhar Haider

Abstract This study explores the learning experiences of 23 Pakistani graduates and their perceptions about the effectiveness of ESL writing courses that they are enrolled in. Data collected through an online survey is the basis of this chapter, along with follow-up interviews with participating students and their course instructors. To examine how different mediums of instruction influence participants' perceptions about ESL writing courses, their backgrounds were explicitly explored. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to categorize and analyze data. This study reveals that the varying educational backgrounds of Pakistani students affect their proficiency in English language, which in turn leads them to develop different perceptions about ESL courses.

Keywords ESL writing · Mediums of instruction · Pakistani ESL learners

Introduction

Amidst the existence of many languages in Pakistan, Urdu exists as the national language while English remains the undeclared official language. Higher education is often offered in both these languages with English, however, being at the top of the hierarchy of different regional languages (Rahman, 2004). Communication among individuals belonging to the educated class is generally in the medium of Urdu and English. Proficiency in writing skills is regarded as an important indicator of high literacy and having received a quality education, and it is an essential white-collar job skill in Pakistan. For instance, the Central Superior Services (CSS) examination that qualifies individuals intending to work in top-ranking bureaucratic roles is administered in English. Writing skills in English language are even more crucial for Pakistani students who intend to continue their higher studies in English-speaking countries such as the United States.

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Most Pakistani graduates complete their basic education in Pakistan and then travel to the United States for advanced degrees where they often first enroll in ESL writing courses offered by universities. There is, however, little known research on how Pakistani students enrolled in ESL courses offered at US universities develop proficiency in ESL writing skills and whether their medium of education in Pakistan has any impact on their language skills development at university. Hence, there is a need to explore the ESL writing needs of linguistically diverse Pakistani students studying at US universities and the process of writing skills development among them. It is likely that their ESL writing needs are different from students of other nationalities who are studying in the same context.

In the Pakistani society, both English and Urdu are equally important particularly when it comes to academic discourse (Rahman, 2005). In recent years, English language proficiency, particularly in writing skills, has become a crucial factor in employment. Effective writing skills in English are now seen as more than a communication tool; they are a necessary means of employment for individuals, families, and communities. In addition to that, Pakistani students who join schools, colleges, or universities in the United States require English language proficiency to be able to communicate with faculty as well as to be able to write academic papers. Given that most communication is through emails and that academic projects are in the form of research papers, there is a need to develop effective business and academic writing skills in the English language.

Pakistani Students and ESL Writing Course-Related Research in the United States

The demographics in American higher educational institutions have rapidly changed over the last four decades. This is due to the increased enrollment of ESL students and children of immigrants who do not quite fall into the category of either mainstream students or ESL students (Harklau et al., 1999; Matsuda, 1998, 1999, 2006). Although university composition programs are mainly designed for students whose first language is English (L1 students), those students whose first language is not English (L2 students) are also continually enrolled in these programs. This group of L2 students includes both international visa students and children of immigrants. This indicates that the boundary between ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) is increasingly diminishing. The English language is now no longer perceived as a foreign language by international university students who have grown up interacting with the language through a variety of social and technological media prior to joining university. This is a significant shift from the experiences and exposure of L2 students who came to study in the United States during the 1960s and 1970s.

Pakistani students in both public and private schools are exposed to English as a subject from their early years, thus exposing them to writing in English. While

English-medium schools start education in English from the outset, schools where Urdu is the medium of instruction often introduce English from grades 5 or 6 onwards (depending on federal policies in place at a given time).

This study is focused on the cultural differences and varying educational experiences among students graduating from Urdu and English medium schools in Pakistan. As highlighted in this chapter, there is a dearth of research and literature that explores the language needs or perceptions of Pakistani students studying in ESL courses offered by universities in the United States. Most existing studies (Bosher, 1998; Nelson & Carson, 1998; Sullivan & Lindgren, 2006; Hyland, 2003, 2008, 2013a, 2013b) involving foreign or second language students focus on the connection between English language proficiency of learners and their achievements, the problems faced by international students owing to their low level of English language proficiency, and the impact of cultural backgrounds of international students on their English language learning experiences in Western universities.

Pakistani students who come from different areas of Pakistan tend to have a range of different English language proficiency levels. This is owing to their starkly varying basic educational backgrounds in Pakistan that include English-medium schools, Urdu-medium schools, and the religious schools called ‘madrassas’ which offer free education, boarding, and lodging to their students (Rahman, 2002).

ESL Courses in the Researched Context

At the time of this study, the university which forms part of the researched context offered two ESL courses in their graduate course curriculum.

ESL 500

This is an oral and written communication course that introduces students to group discussions and formal oral presentations. It also focuses on paragraph development and organization of American academic writing. Oral skills development is a unique feature of ESL 500 that is described on the university’s website as follows:

> *Oral Component:* Students are introduced to the conventions of group discussions and formal oral presentations. They are given extensive practice in large group discussions, small seminar presentations and formal speeches. The students also work on improving fluency by giving impromptu speeches and oral summaries. To develop their ability to interpret and comprehend spoken English, students learn various active listening strategies such as listening for key words, identifying main ideas, taking notes and formulating questions. They develop these skills by listening to academic lectures, videotapes of news broadcasts and short segments of films, and presentations by other class members.

ESL 501

This course is a pre-requisite for ESL 500 and has an equal focus on academic speaking involving oral presentations in academic contexts, as well as on academic essay writing. This is described as follows:

> *ESL 501:* Intro to Academic Writing - introduces students to the use of rhetorical modes typical of academic writing; introduction to the research paper; review of strategies for effective and critical reading.

Research Questions

The study focused on investigating the following:

- What do Pakistani graduate students studying in US universities think about the ESL writing courses that they are enrolled in?
- How do they rate the usefulness of ESL writing courses towards their own field of study?

Methodology

A mixed-methods framework was used in this study to gain an in-depth understanding of the research topic. Quantitative data was collected using an online survey while qualitative data was collected through detailed participant narratives in face-to-face interviews. The aim was to explore and describe the perceptions of Pakistani graduate students about the ESL courses that they were studying at their respective universities in the United States at the time of data collection.

Instruments

The online survey questionnaire, which is the primary tool, consisted of three parts and 37 items. Part 1 collected personal demographic information such as:

- Gender
- Age
- Medium of education in Pakistan
- Years of studying English in Pakistan
- Academic background
- Course of study at university in the United States
- ESL courses already studied or currently being studied at university.

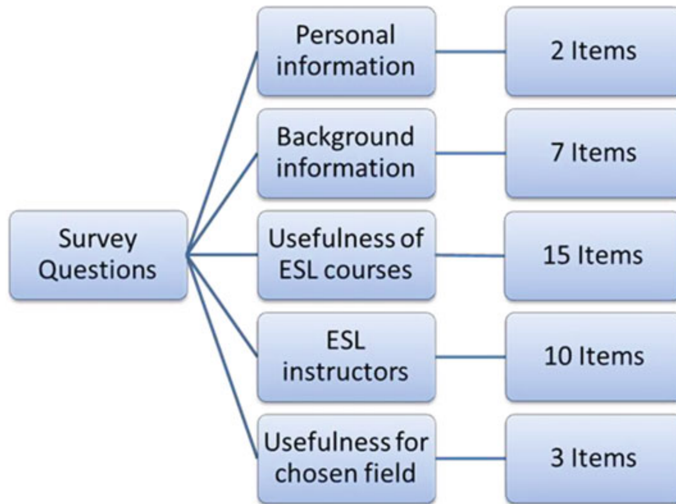

Fig. 12.1 Contents of the questionnaire

Part 2 of the survey included items related to participants' overall experiences in the ESL courses that they had either studied or were currently studying in and their perceptions about whether these courses were helpful or not. Part 3 of the questionnaire explored participants' perceptions about their instructors (see Fig. 12.1).

Participants

Participants in this study exploring perceptions about university-level ESL writing courses were all either Master's or Ph.D. students and ranged from 19 to 31 years of age. Table 12.1 shows the age, gender, academic courses, and ESL program distribution of participants in the study.

Fourteen out of 23 participants were pursuing their Doctoral degrees while the remaining nine were pursuing their Master's degree at the time they participated in this research.

Participants in the study were at varying levels of ESL course completion at the university. Eleven out of 23 participants had completed the two required ESL courses (ESL 500 and ESL 501) while seven had completed ESL 500 and the remaining five had completed ESL 501. Table 12.2 shows participant distribution according to ESL programs.

This information was collected through responses to questions 1 to 6 of the survey that was administered to student participants. The remaining items on the questionnaire are discussed in the following section.

Table 12.1 Age, gender, and academic distribution of participants

Age	Gender	Total	Academic program	ESL program
19	Female	2	(a) Animal Science (b) Crop Sciences	(a) ESL 500 (b) ESL 500
23	Male	1	(a) Computer Science	(a) ESL 501
24	Male	1	(a) Mathematics	(a) ESL 500 and ESL 501
25	Male	2	(a) Business Studies (b) Animal Sciences	(a) ESL 501 (b) ESL 500 and ESL 501
	Female	1	(a) Computer Science	(a) ESL 501
26	Male	2	(a) Actuarial Sciences (b) Atmospheric Sciences	(a) ESL 500 (b) ESL 500 and ESL 501
27	Male	3	(a) HR Education (b) Computer Science (c) Mechanical Engineering	(a) ESL 500 (b) ESL 500 and ESL 501 (c) ESL 500 and ESL 501
28	Male	3	(a) Civil Engineering (b) Civil Engineering (c) Political Science	(a) ESL 501 (b) ESL 500 and ESL 501 (c) ESL 500
29	Male	3	(a) Animal Sciences (b) Electrical Engineering (c) Human Resources	(a) ESL 500 and ESL 501 (b) ESL 501 (c) ESL 500 and ESL 501
30	Male	2	(a) Communication (b) Civil Engineering	(a)ESL 500 and ESL 501 (b) ESL 500
	Female	1	(a) Crop Sciences	(a) ESL 500 and ESL 501
31	Male	2	(a) Economics (b) Material Sciences	(a) ESL 500 (b) ESL 500 and ESL 501
Total		23		

Table 12.2 ESL program distribution of participants

ESL programs	Number of participants
ESL 500	7
ESL 501	5
Both	11

Results and Discussion

This section presents and discusses the results from items 7 to 20 on the survey questionnaire with the aim to find answers to the two original research questions:

- What do Pakistani graduate students studying in US universities think about the ESL writing courses that they are enrolled in?
- How do they rate the usefulness of ESL writing courses towards their own field of study?

Item 7: Which of the Two Courses ESL 500 and ESL 501 Were More Useful?

Six out of 23 student participants found ESL 500 more useful because of its emphasis on oral communication skills along with writing skills, while nine student participants reported ESL 501 to be more useful because it helped them develop report writing skills that were required for writing research papers. At least eight students reported that both courses had proved to be useful for the following reasons in addition to oral competence and report writing skills:

- Help with paragraph-level writing in the form of five paragraph-essays to fully developed research papers
- Help with micro issues in sentence structure as well as cohesion and coherence in writing.

Item 8: Which Course/s Would You Have Chosen for Improvement of Academic Writing?

Six student participants indicated that given the choice, they would have chosen ESL 500 for improving their academic writing, while eight indicated a preference for choosing ESL 501. On the other hand, nine out of 23 indicated that they would have chosen both courses had they been given the choice.

Item 9: Highest Degree from Pakistan

Thirteen of the student participants had acquired a Master's degree from Pakistan before coming to study at the university in the United States (MA, MSc, or MBBS), while one had a BSc (Hons). Nine out of the 23 participants had either an MS or MPhil, while none had acquired a Ph.D. before joining their university in the United States.

Item 10: Current Program of Study at University

Nine student participants were enrolled to study for a Master's degree (MA/MS), while 14 were enrolled in a Ph.D. program. None of the participants were in a post-doctoral program.

Table 12.3 Current courses and number of participants enrolled in each course

Field of study	Participants	Field of study	Participants
Animal Sciences	3	Mechanical Engineering	1
Crop Sciences	2	Civil Engineering	2
Computer Sciences	3	Political Sciences	1
Mathematics	1	Electrical Engineering	1
Business Studies	1	Communication	1
Actuarial Sciences	1	Crop Sciences	1
Atmospheric Sciences	1	Economics	1
HR Education	2	Material Sciences	1

Item 11: Current Field of Study

The fields of study that students were enrolled in at their university in the United States appear in Table 12.3.

Item 12: Potential Usefulness of ESL Writing Courses

The primary reason for participants to enroll in these courses emerged to be the need to meet the English language proficiency requirements at their university. Some participants also enrolled voluntarily in order to improve their academic writing skills. Generally, participants provided mixed views about how useful they considered the ESL writing courses towards their chosen field of study (Table 12.4).

Table 12.4 The usefulness of ESL writing courses as perceived by students

Perceived usefulness	Strongly agree/agree	Strongly disagree/disagree
Writing better assignments for the chosen academic field	17	9
Career opportunities	16	7
Enabling the use of different sources of information in my chosen area of study	12	11
Participating effectively in my chosen field	14	9

A majority of 17 out of 23 participants (74%) agreed or strongly agreed that the ESL writing courses at university helped them in writing their assignments more effectively and were hence beneficial in terms of writing skills development. Only 2 participants (9%) disagreed about the usefulness of ESL courses at university in helping develop writing skills. A similar trend emerged in the follow-up interviews where a student indicates, '…*in Pakistan I never learned all those techniques of effective academic writing which are now part of my ESL classes*'.

It is necessary to highlight here that the course objectives of ESL500 and ESL501 are not field-specific and are described in the university's online platform as reflective of, 'the common needs of a wide range of academic programs… necessarily varied and subject to change as the composition of the international student population changes'. Hence, it is likely that since writing is an integral part of graduate studies at the university, students enrolled in the ESL courses are likely to perceive these courses as helpful towards their chosen field of study.

Similarly, 16 out 23 (69%) participants agreed/strongly agreed that the ESL writing courses at university enhanced their career opportunities, while 7 out of 23 (30%) disagreed that the courses had helped them in anyway. Interestingly, only 12 out of 23 (52%) participants agreed that the ESL courses were of any help in enabling the use of information sources in their area of study and 14 out of 23 (60%) participants found the courses helpful in participating effectively in their area of study at university. There can be a variety of reasons for this, with one clearly being that ESL course writing practice is not necessarily aligned to the specialized writing conventions that are often used in different disciplines. As one participant elaborates, 'In my ESL classes we only discussed one specific pattern of research paper which is not what we do in our field. In biotechnology, we run experiments, we discuss the significance of particular tools used and then come to the actual discussion and analysis but in ESL classes we used a social sciences model of research paper which is not very helpful for me'. At least one participant who was able to use different sources of information effectively explains that, 'being a Ph.D. student I have to write lot of papers in my area of specialization. In ESL writing courses we work on different aspects of academic writing so there is clear connection between what we do in our ESL classes and the writing I do in my area of specialization'.

Item 13: The ESL Writing Courses Have Taught Me How to Use the Following Resources Well

It is worth noting that majority of the participants perceived that the ESL writing courses helped them effectively utilize the library, electronic resources, and an in-house 'writer's workshop', while very few disagreed with this aspect (Table 12.5).

Table 12.5 Participant perceptions on the ability to use resources

Resources	Strongly agreed/agreed	Strongly disagreed/disagreed
The library	19	4
Electronic resources	17	6
The writer's workshop	15	8

Item 14: The ESL Writing Courses Have Developed My Sense of Personal Worth as an International Student

Twelve out of 23 participants believed (strongly agreed/agreed) that the ESL courses at university had helped them develop an increased sense of personal worth as an international student. On the other hand, seven participants disagreed with this, while four strongly disagreed to having developed a sense of personal worth through ESL courses available at university.

Items 15 and 16: The ESL Writing Courses Have Enhanced my Abilities as An International Student

While there was overall agreement among participants about the helpfulness of ESL courses in improving their writing skills, a great amount of diversity emerged in their responses to the improvement of other skills. This is evident in the responses recorded in Table 12.6.

Table 12.6 Participant perceptions of enhanced abilities and skills

Skills	Strongly agree/agree	Strongly disagree/disagree
Academic writing skills	23	0
Speaking skills	15	8
Listening skills	18	5
Reading skills	19	4
Job applications	9	14
Area of specialization	19	4
Future workplace	18	5

Table 12.7 Participants' perceptions about the application of strategies by ESL instructors in class

Strategy	Strongly agree/agree	Strongly disagree/disagree
Application of group/pair work in class	22	1
Effective preparation for lessons	20	3
Help students develop speaking skills	18	5
Run interesting classes	21	2
Demonstrate interest in learners' opinions	19	3
Provide students with good advice about how to do well in their chosen field	17	6
Help with pronunciation	15	8
Answer students' questions satisfactorily	21	2

Item 17: Instructors in the ESL Courses

Seventeen out of the 23 participants indicated that their instructors were native speakers of English, while only three participants had non-native English-speaking instructors. However, the remaining three student participants were being taught by both native English-speaking and non-native English-speaking instructors at the time of this study.

Item 18: ESL Instructors' Strategies

Participants expressed mixed perceptions about the teaching strategies employed by ESL instructors in class (Table 12.7).

A majority of participants, 22 out of 23 (95%) acknowledged that their ESL instructors applied pair/group work in class, followed by 21 out of 23 (91%) agreeing that the instructors facilitated interesting classes as well as answered their questions satisfactorily. Only 15 out of 23 (65%) participants perceived the instructors' strategies as helpful with pronunciation.

Item 19: Students' Perceptions About the Effectiveness of Instructors

Nine student participants believed that amongst their ESL instructors, native English speakers were most effective, whereas eight perceived their non-native English-speaking instructors to be more effective in teaching. At least six student participants perceived both native English-speaking and non-native English-speaking instructors to be equally effective.

Table 12.8 Ways to make ESL writing courses more effective

Ways	Number of participants
Technical reports	18
Lab reports	15
Research proposal writing	19
Research report writing	21

Item 20: How Can These ESL Writing Courses Be More Effective with Respect to Your Chosen Field of Study?

Participants expressed the following views on how ESL writing courses could be made more effective to suit their respective fields of study (Table 12.8).

Discussion and Conclusion

This study investigated the perceptions of Pakistani students who are studying ESL courses as part of their graduate studies at universities in the United States. The central concern was to explore their perceptions about these courses and the extent to which they regard the ESL writing courses as helpful in their chosen field of study. The study also investigated how the perceptions of Pakistani students about ESL courses could help generate an understanding of their actual needs and perhaps provide feedback into curricular innovations in these courses. In order to find responses to these questions, a 37-item questionnaire was administered to 23 participants.

Participants in this study consisted of both male and female Pakistani graduate students in the age group of 19–31 years. They were all enrolled in two ESL courses at a university in the United States that caters to a large international student population. Purposive sampling was used to identify the participants who would be included in this study. While the initial focus of the study was to investigate factors related to the placement of Pakistani students in different ESL courses at university, it was later decided to expand the scope of the study to include the medium of schooling in Pakistan. This was done because firstly, Pakistani education is offered through both English and Urdu mediums of instruction; and secondly, the medium of instruction is assumed to be a significant variable that influences the placement and perceptions of Pakistani students in ESL courses abroad. The study ultimately revealed that Pakistani students enrolled in the ESL classes came from an array of social classes (both urban and rural), as well as from varying educational backgrounds such as Urdu and English medium schools in Pakistan.

The questionnaire findings revealed that ESL writing courses were largely regarded as useful in improving academic writing. Students coming from Urdu-medium educational backgrounds were expected to take both ESL500 and ESL501, whereas those who had studied in English-medium educational institutions were

required to take only ESL 501. A few students who came from English-medium schools in Pakistan chose to take either one of the courses. Whether this trend prevailed specifically among students coming from English-medium educational backgrounds or among all students needs to be investigated in a separate study. Overall, the primary factors cited as useful in studying the ESL courses at university included helpfulness in writing better assignments, dissertations, and job applications, and developing awareness of other academic resources such as the Writer's workshop at the university and the library resources available (including online resources).

A majority of the participants enrolled in ESL 500 found the unit on presentation skills to be particularly helpful, as they believed that it helped them gain confidence. Participants explained that the ESL classes helped them participate more effectively in their own field of study. Some of them were of the view that additional classes on the study of grammar and presentation skills would be even more beneficial. Students who had graduated from Urdu-medium schools in Pakistan expressed a strong inclination towards the improvement of grammatical errors in their English language rather than studying to improve their academic writing (i.e., structural issues and coherence).

For an overwhelming number of participants, the value of ESL courses at university was mainly in improved academic writing. They also appreciated that these courses helped them with understanding the appropriate citation styles, provided explicit insight into plagiarism, and facilitated their understanding of the academic writing standards expected in American education. The students highlighted that in their educational experiences in Pakistan they received no exposure to the different techniques and sources of citations as discussed in their university ESL classes in the United States. Such training was perceived as helpful in preparing students to do well in their future studies.

Additional skills that Pakistani students found helpful in their graduate ESL classes were speaking, reading, and listening. However, a majority of these respondents were from ESL 500, a course that focuses on both oral and written communication. Interestingly, there was a clear divide on the usefulness of ESL courses in the respective fields of specialization as almost half of the respondents did not perceive the ESL courses to be of any value towards their area of specialization or in their future careers.

Most participants had non-native English-speaking instructors whom they were satisfied with. Generally, instructors were seen as investing immense effort in preparation for the ESL classes they taught. They were also seen as capable of relating to the challenges of ESL writing that Pakistani students experienced. Both native English-speaking and non-native English-speaking ESL instructors were considered as equally helpful, well-prepared, and interested in the learning of their students. However, instructors were seen as lacking sufficient knowledge when it came to offering advice related to writing in specialized fields of study which is why some students suggested that ESL instructors should be from their respective field of study. This would make the ESL courses more relevant for students.

To summarize, Pakistani graduate students who study in universities in the United States regard ESL courses as helpful in improving their academic writing. However, they have some reservations about the potential usefulness of generic ESL courses in facilitating writing skills in their own fields of study. It must be noted that most students who participated in this study were specifically required by their university to take these courses in order to fulfill the required level of English language proficiency. A few students who had received English-medium schooling in Pakistan chose to take these courses even though they were not required to.

Several participants in the study decided to take the elective ESL courses following suggestions from their respective supervisors. They reported thinking about the consequences of this decision, such as the extra time that they would have to spend in ESL classes and on ESL homework. Nevertheless, they reported feeling satisfied with their decision as the ESL courses supported them by improving their writing skills.

Pedagogical Implications

Interviews with instructors who taught these courses revealed that Pakistani students were perceived to experience greater challenges with structural aspects in ESL than with grammatical aspects. This was evident in the research papers they produced. Instructors also believed that students of Pakistani origin experienced greater structural issues in ESL in comparison to other international students, especially those from China, Korea, and Taiwan.

All instructors agreed that students who came from Pakistan required extra efforts in writing accurate citations and that it was necessary for them to work independently to be able to master the citation style used in their respective fields of study. At least two out of the three instructors interviewed were quite satisfied with the grammatical competence demonstrated by students who came from Pakistan citing only a few common errors such as incorrect use of articles, subject-verb disagreement, and lack of mastery in using collocations.

The interviewed ESL instructors suggested that including additional course content on structure and citation work could help make the existing ESL courses more relevant to the needs of Pakistani students. While they confirmed that Pakistani students in their classes came from very diverse backgrounds, the general understanding was that all students struggled to some extent with the structure of their papers and with citations.

Appendix: Participant Survey

Please complete the questionnaire regarding your experience with ESL courses

1. Your gender ○ Male ○ Female

2. Your age

3. Your school in Pakistan was ○ Urdu Medium ○ English Medium ○ Other

4. Which ESL course(s) were you required to take when you enrolled at university?

   ○ ESL 500 ○ ESL 501 ○ Both ESL 500 & ESL 501 ○ None

5. If none, do you think it would have been useful to take any graduate ESL writing course(s). Please briefly explain your preference

6. Which ESL writing course(s) have you taken/are currently taking at university?

   ○ ESL 500 ○ ESL 501 ● Both ESL 500 & ESL 501 ○ None

7. Please answer this question only if you have taken both ESL 500 and 501 courses. Which course did you find more useful? Please explain your choice briefly.

   ○ ESL 500 ○ ESL 501 ○ None

8. Would you have chosen this/these ESL writing course/s to improve your academic writing? Please explain your choice briefly. ○ Yes ○ No

9. What is your highest degree from Pakistan?

○ MA/MSc/BSC(Hon)/MBBS ○ MS/MPhil ○ PhD

10. What are you currently studying?

○ MA/MS ○ PhD ○ Post Doc

11. What is your field of study? [ ]

12. The ESL writing courses are useful in terms of:

Please choose one of the following options:

○ *Strongly Agree* ● *Agree* ○ *Disagree* ○ *Strongly Disagree*

(a) Writing better assignments for my chosen academic field
(b) My career opportunities.
(c) Enabling me to use different sources of information in my chosen area of study
(d) Participating effectively in my chosen field

13. The ESL writing courses have taught me how to use the following resources well.

Please choose one of the following options:

○ *Strongly Agree* ● *Agree* ○ *Disagree* ○ *Strongly Disagree*

(a) The Library
(b) Electronic Resources (Online journals, web searches, etc)
(c) The Writers Workshop

14. The ESL writing courses have developed my sense of personal worth as an International Student.

○ *Strongly Agree* ○ *Agree* ○ *Disagree* ○ *Strongly Disagree*

15. The ESL writing courses have enhanced my abilities as an International Student in the following areas:

Please choose one of the following options:

○ *Strongly Agree* ● *Agree* ○ *Disagree* ○ *Strongly Disagree*

(a) Academic writing skills
(b) Speaking Skills
(c) Listening Skills
(d) Reading Skills
(e) Job Applications

16. The ESL writing courses have affected my ability to do well:

Please choose one of the following options:

● *Strongly Agree* ○ *Agree* ○ *Disagree* ○ *Strongly Disagree*

(a) In my area of specialization
(b) At my future workplace

17. Who were your instructors in the ESL writing courses?

● Native-English Speakers ○ Nonnative-English Speakers ○ Both

18. My ESL writing's Instructor(s)…

Please choose one of the following options:

○ *Strongly Agree* ○ *Agree* ○ *Disagree* ○ *Strongly Disagree*

(a) Apply pair/group work regularly in class
(b) Prepare well for the lessons
(c) Help students develop speaking skills
(d) Run interesting classes
(e) Are interested in their learners' opinions
(f) Provide students with good advice about how to do well in their chosen field
(g) Help students with their pronunciation
(h) Answer students' questions satisfactorily

19. Which kind of instructors is more effective for teaching ESL courses? Please explain your choice briefly.

◉ Native-English Speakers

○ Nonnative-English Speakers

○ Instructors from my field

20. How can these ESL writing courses be more effective with respect to your chosen field of study? Please explain in the space given below.

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Chapter 13
The Impact of Written Corrective Feedback on Second Language Composition in English

Ameena Hassan and Akhtar Abbas

Abstract In recent years, there has been growing interest in investigating the effects of written corrective feedback in the field of English as a Second Language (ESL) (Butt & Rasul, 2014). This study analyzes the effects of written feedback on errors made by ESL students in using 'articles' and 'the simple past tense'. More specifically, the following types of feedback in writing have been explored: direct feedback, indirect feedback, direct/indirect feedback with written and oral meta-linguistic feedback, and no feedback. The study reports on a six-week (1.5 months) research project with 80 students from a local college in Islamabad, which is not only the capital city of Pakistan but also one of its largest cities. Through the application of Schmidt's, (1990) 'noticing' hypothesis and the use of quantitative data analysis tools such as SPSS with ANOVA, the investigation reveals a considerably positive impact of written feedback on ESL students' writing composition. A combination of direct/indirect and meta-linguistic feedback with an overall score of 62.5% proved significantly positive in comparison to direct feedback (37.5%), indirect feedback (42.5%), and no feedback (29%). These results, hence, support earlier findings (Bitchener et al., 2009; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Ferris, 1999, 2002, 2004) that L2 learners perform better when a suitable type of feedback is applied to their written work.

Keywords Corrective feedback · Language accuracy · Meta-linguistic feedback · Written corrective feedback

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Introduction

Writing is one of the most advanced linguistic skills and is a very important component of any language learning course. As a result, it is the last component to be taught in any extensive language course. It is also a skill that comes last in the natural step-by-step process of acquiring language (Butt & Rasul, 2012). Students, especially those in the Pakistani English language teaching (ELT) context, often have negative attitudes towards writing, which makes the already daunting task of teaching and learning to write even more difficult (Fareed et al., 2016). This makes it critical for ESL teachers to provide feedback on written work with extensive care in order to guide students towards improving the quality of their writing.

There is a need for extensive research on the impact of appropriate written corrective feedback (WCF) methods on the development of writing skills among Pakistani ESL learners. For WCF to have a positive effect on learners' writing skills development, it is necessary for teachers to be knowledgeable about adapting prevalent error correction practices according to the needs of their students.

This study investigates the effects of three types of WCF (direct, indirect, and meta-linguistic) on the use of 'articles' and 'the simple past verb tense' by grade 11 and 12 ESL students. The context of the study is a public sector institution in Islamabad, Pakistan. The written work of a control and experimental group is compared by employing similar methods as are used in the work of Bitchener and Knoch (2008) in this area.

Statement of the Problem

Writing in ESL is one of the most important and complicated skills. It is taught in college with the objective of helping students to express their thoughts in a communicative manner and to be able to critically analyze their thoughts. However, the methods employed to teach writing skills in Pakistani public sector colleges do not seem to achieve this goal (Butt & Rasul, 2012). This reveals the need to work on improving the ESL writing skills of college students by helping them notice and correct grammar errors in their own writing following feedback provided by teachers.

There is significant empirical research to suggest that using appropriate methods of WCF can considerably improve students' ESL writing skills (Gascoigne, 2004; Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ashwell, 2000; Lee, 1997; Fathaman & Whalley, 1990; Robb et al., 1986; Lalande, 1982; Sheppard, 1992). This study investigates the differential impact of three types of WCF (direct, indirect, and meta-linguistic) on student writing in the Pakistani college context. It intends to measure possible improvement in students' use of two grammatical items, i.e., articles and simple past verb tense with the aim of gaining useful insight into improving traditional methods of WCF employed by Pakistani college teachers.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the current study are to:

- investigate the impact of three types of WCF (direct, indirect, and meta-linguistic) on improving the accurate use of two grammatical features (articles and simple past verb tense) in students' writing
- analyze the extent to which accuracy of these error types improves in subsequent writing over a period of 6 weeks.

Research Questions

i. How does direct, indirect, and oral/written meta-linguistic CF impact accuracy in the use of 'articles' and 'simple past verb tenses' in L2 composition?
ii. To what extent do these effects vary over a period of 6 weeks in new written work?

Literature Review

Previous studies that explore improvements resulting from error correction by teachers have failed to demonstrate statistical differences between groups of students that received written corrective feedback (WCF) and those who did not (Kepner, 1991; Polio et al., 1998; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992). Some of these studies (Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992) have been criticized for not including a non-feedback receiving control group. A second critique has been that in some of these studies the control group was provided with 'content-comments' feedback which could give students some awareness about their errors. This does not make it a control group in the real sense of the term. Hence, there is a clear need for further research to compare the effects of WCF on students' writings with no feedback on their work at all (Ferris, 2002, 2004; Truscott, 1999).

Other studies (Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001) that report the effectiveness of WCF have been critiqued for disregarding the long-term impact of WCF and limiting findings to L2 learners' writing accuracy improvement over a short time span. This highlights the need for research that explores the effectiveness of WCF over a longer period of time in writing skills development of ESL learners.

Additional studies (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis et al., 2008; and Sheen et al., 2009) demonstrate efforts to avoid these design flaws and to provide reliable evidence for the effectiveness of WCF over extended periods of time. To be considered reliable, these studies are characterized by:

- adopting a quasi-experimental design by including a control group that receives no feedback and by analyzing only one type of error in writing, namely, the use of articles in English
- examining the effect of WCF not only on short-term revisions but also on subsequent writings in the long run.

Evidently, the critique of these studies is that of limiting their focus to one type of grammatical error: the use of English articles. This means that any positive effects of WCF on identifying and correcting one type of error cannot be replicated to WCF on other linguistic features of the English language since different linguistic features are learned through different knowledge domains which involve different processes. This is the reason that all studies which target specific error types (Chaney, 1999; Frantzen & Rissell, 1987; Lalande, 1982; Sheppard, 1992) found that the improvement in students' writing skills depended on the type of error being examined.

Direct feedback is apparently seen as the preferred mode among both teachers and students (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris et al., 2000; Komura, 1999; Rennie, 2000; Roberts, 1999) as it results in improved accuracy in writing over a period of time (Frantzen, 1995; Lalande, 1982; Lee, 1997; Robb et al., 1986).

Keeping in view the limitations that appear in earlier studies, this study includes a control group, which is not given any feedback, in order to create the basis for a comparative analysis of the results of different types of feedback on students' writing skills development over a measured period of time. Lee (1997) and Ferris and Roberts (2001) discovered that groups that received WCF significantly outperformed those that received no feedback as part of the control group. However, it is important to note that these studies investigate text revisions rather than new pieces of writing over a period of time. In order to fill this significant gap, the current study examines new pieces of writing over a period of six weeks.

Bitchener and Knoch (2008, 2009, 2010) conducted multiple studies with varying sample sizes in order to present their case in favor of focused WCF. In their first study, Bitchener and Knoch (2008) selected a sample of 75 low intermediate ESL learners and examined the errors they made in the accurate use of English articles. This study incorporates all the design elements that many previous studies appear to ignore. For instance, it compares the control and experimental groups and employs the 'pre-test/post-test/delayed post-test' design. Findings clearly reveal that the group which received focused WCF improved their accuracy in the use of English articles as compared to the control group that did not receive any feedback. The study also reveals that this accuracy in the use of English articles was retained up to two months later.

The second study (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009) in the series, which is an extension of the first one but with a larger sample size of 144 learners, yields similar results of positive evidence resulting from focused WCF. In their third study, Bitchener and Knoch (2010) analyzed errors in the use of English articles for 63 higher proficiency level ESL learners. Once again, results indicated that focused WCF was more effective. Similar results on the effects of focused WCF are reported in studies by Sheen (2007) and Sheen et al. (2009). However, some of these studies encountered with

criticism also. For example, Ellis et al. (2008) in their investigation of English as a foreign language in an experimental study have faced criticism for not providing equal feedback to both groups (experimental and control). Similarly, Sheen et al. (2009), despite evidencing positive effects of focused WCF, have also received criticism on the grounds that the sample was provided with rather unsystematic WCF where some errors were corrected and others were ignored. Keeping such criticism in mind, it is pertinent to consider developing and/or applying empirical tools with optimum precision in order to address the raised questions on research designs adopted in such studies.

Truscott (1996) argues that no one type of error correction method can help L2 learners master all kinds of linguistic and grammatical features. This raises a significant question as to which errors to correct and which to not correct. To help provide a reliable answer to this question, Ferris (1999) identified a pair of error types, namely treatable and untreatable errors, which Van Beuningen (2011) later classified as rule-governed and non-rule-governed errors. It is observed that up to now most research investigating the effectiveness of WCF has targeted rule-governed grammatical items, namely English articles. Therefore, the application of these findings is limited as they do not shed light on how L2 learners will improve accuracy in their performance on other grammatical structures (Xu, 2009). There is a paramount need to further research the effect of WCF strategies on other error categories too (Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen et al., 2009).

Truscott (1996) argues that WCF is ineffective as it hinders students' ability to use complex linguistic structures because of frequent error correction. Bitchener et al. (2005) also postulate that WCF has two harmful side effects. Firstly, students tend to produce simpler writing for fear of making mistakes in using more complex structures (Van Beuningen et al., 2008). Truscott (2004, 2007) claims that L2 learners in previous studies who reportedly improved their grammatical accuracy following WCF were able to do so because they avoided the use of complex structures for fear of making mistakes. Skehan's (1998) seminal work shows that L2 learners' accuracy in the use of the target language improves when they are willing to experiment with it (Skehan & Foster, 2001).

The second side effect as identified by Bitchener et al. (2005) and also Truscott (1996, 2004) is that far more time and energy is diverted to WCF, while the more productive aspects of teaching writing, such as extensive practice, are neglected (Van Beuningen et al., 2008). There is only one study (Sheen et al., 2009) that investigates the effects of WCF on writing practice and findings from this study counter Truscott's (1996) claim by showing that learners do not benefit any more from writing practice than they do from WCF.

Gul and Rodrigues (2012) analyzed the effect of feedback provided by a female Pakistani English language teacher on four of her female students studying in grade seven. Using observations, interviews, and analyses of student writing samples over a period of three months, they found that the teacher's feedback focused on superficial errors such as grammar and mechanics. It appeared to be the same in all kinds of writing tasks even though the teacher claimed that she focused on different aspects of writing in different writing tasks. Saeed et al. (2015) conducted experimental research

on 46 intermediate-level students whose mother tongue was Urdu. The written work of these students was subject to direct and indirect feedback. It became evident that direct feedback proved to be more beneficial in eliminating errors of verbs, articles, and sentence structure, whereas indirect feedback appeared more suited to errors of noun ending and word choice. This study adopted a significantly rigorous approach as students were given ten tests to track the improvement of writing errors. However, since the study did not involve the use of a control group, it still lacks a final verdict on the effectiveness of direct/indirect WCF.

To summarize, while there has been extensive research into the various aspects of WCF in ELT, there still exist gaps. This study attempts to address some of these gaps in the Pakistani ESL context assuming that giving appropriate WCF is an important part of the ESL teacher's job; hence, teachers should choose a feedback method according to the requirements of their students.

Research Methodology

The study adopted an experimental design with four groups of 20 students each. Of these, one was a control group and the remaining three were experimental groups. Data was collected in the form of students' writing samples comprising three narrative writing tasks of 200 to 250 words each. Students were given 30 min to complete each writing task. These samples were then collected, marked, and returned over a period of 4–5 weeks. The students who participated in this study had already received instruction on writing skills. The methodology adopted for this study is summarized in Tables 13.1 and 13.2.

Data Analysis

All students were awarded half a mark for each correct use of the target linguistic features. The scores were then counted and tabulated. Scores obtained from the pre-test, the immediate post-test, and the delayed post-test were statistically analyzed using SPSS and ANOVA, which assessed the statistical significance of the groups' scores in all three tests.

Theoretical Framework

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories bear numerous implications for classroom practices generally and on the teaching of writing skills more specifically. One of these theories is the 'Noticing Hypothesis' (Schmidt, 1990), which specifically provides theoretical support for written error correction. This hypothesis is defined

Table 13.1 Methodology of the study

Data collection tools	Students' writing samples
Participants	80 students of grades 11 and 12 who have received previous 5.25 h of English language instruction per week
Groups of students	• 4 groups of 20 students each
Feedback per group	• Group 1: direct feedback • Group 2: indirect feedback • Group 3: a combination of direct/indirect feedback with written and oral meta-linguistic feedback • Group 4: no corrective feedback
Errors to be analyzed	• The use of articles and the simple past verb tense
Theoretical framework	• Richard Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990).
Testing instruments *(researcher's own)*	• Pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test
Writing task	• Narrative writing of 200–250 words on assigned topics
Procedure	• Pretest: taken on day 1 • Feedback: 3 days later to groups 1, 2, and 3. Group 4 received no feedback • Immediate post-test: feedback provided and writing task returned within a week • Delayed post-test: administered 5 weeks later
Data analysis	• SPSS with ANOVA

by the notion that carefully guided attention to 'noticing' has a positive influence on the process of learning new features of the target language. Hence, the process of learning a new language is spurred by students' conscious noticing of relevant material in the linguistic data provided within the learning environment.

The primary reason for providing students with WCF is to draw their attention towards the linguistic discrepancies that arise in their written work. Schmidt's noticing hypothesis was chosen, primarily for its efficacy as a tool to help students notice and pay guided attention to the errors committed by them. It also provides a basis for the revision process which is the result of careful noticing and selective attention. Schmidt (1990) conceived this hypothesis while learning a second language himself. Therefore, the intention in using the idea in this study was to help students notice their mistakes, discuss these with the teacher, and also draw comparisons between their work before and after WCF was given.

Results

Results are tabulated showing the effects of different types of WCF on accuracy in the use of 'articles' and the 'simple past verb tense' in students' writing tasks. It also

Table 13.2 Mean performance scores

	Types of corrective feedback							
	Group 1 Direct feedback		Group 2 Indirect feedback		Group 3 Direct/Indirect & Meta-linguistic feedback		Group 4 No feedback	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Pre-test	3.5500	1.35627	3.6500	1.18210	5.2000	0.95145	2.9000	1.37267
Post-test	3.1500	1.03999	4.4000	1.18766	5.9000	0.85224	2.9000	1.37267
Delayed post-test	4.5500	1.39454	4.7500	1.33278	6.2500	0.96655	2.9000	1.37267

Table 13.3 ANOVA results for direct feedback (group 1)

Direct Feedback	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	20.800	2	10.400	6.412	0.003
Within Groups	92.450	57	1.622		
Total	113.250	59			

shows (through the delayed post-test) how far these effects are retained over a period of 6 weeks.

The mean performance depicts significant improvement in students' scores over the three testing periods. These results are further discussed in the discussion section.

Effects of Different Types of Feedback

Direct Feedback

The ANOVA results for group 1 (direct feedback) depicted a substantial difference between the levels of feedback provided. The outcomes attained from the ANOVA tests reveal that ($F (2, 57) = 6.412$, $p = 0.003$) there is a statistically significant difference between the three testing results. Table 13.3 presents the impact of direct feedback on students' performance over the three periods of testing. Figure 13.1 shows the upward linear pattern of students' scores in the three test results (pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test).

Indirect Feedback

The ANOVA results of indirect feedback are presented in Table 13.4. After two days the post-test was conducted. As per the ANOVA outcomes, ($F (2, 57) = 4.134$, p

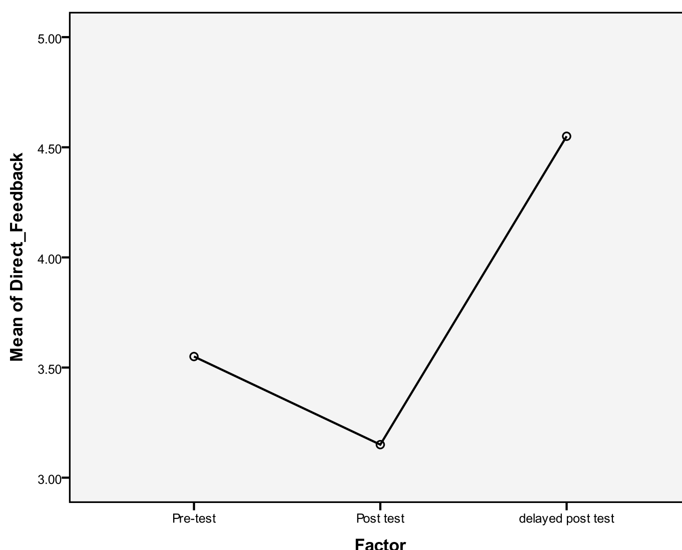

Fig. 13.1 Direct feedback

Table 13.4 ANOVA results for indirect feedback (Group 2)

Indirect feedback	Sum of square	df	Mean square	F	Sig
Between Groups	12.633	2	6.317	4.134	0.021
Within Groups	87.100	57	1.528		
Total	99.733	59			

= 0.021), it is evident that there has been statistically significant difference in the scores over a period of 6 weeks ($p = 0.021$). It can be inferred from these statistics that the results were better and fewer errors surfaced in the use of 'articles' and the 'simple past verb tense'. The overall results of indirect feedback are presented in Fig. 13.2 and Table 13.5.

Oral and Written Meta-Linguistic Feedback

During the sixth week, students were administered tests following oral and written meta-linguistic feedback. Significant improvements became evident in the results where errors in the students' writings appeared to have reduced immensely. The ANOVA results, ($F (2, 57) = 6.684$, $p = 0.002$), are clearly statistically significant over the three periods of test administration. Figure 13.3 represents the results attained from ANOVA.

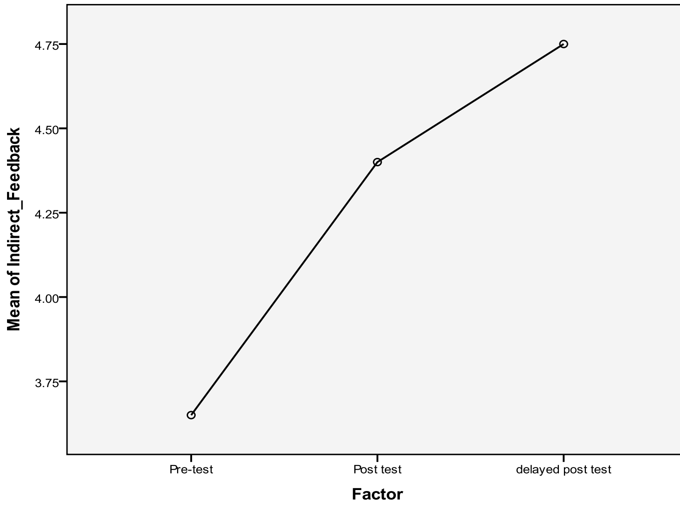

Fig. 13.2 Indirect feedback

Table 13.5 ANOVA results for oral and written meta-linguistic feedback (Group 3)

Oral Meta-Linguistic Feedback	Sum of Square	dF	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	11.433	2	5.717	6.684	0.002
Within Groups	48.750	57	0.855		
Total	60.183	59			

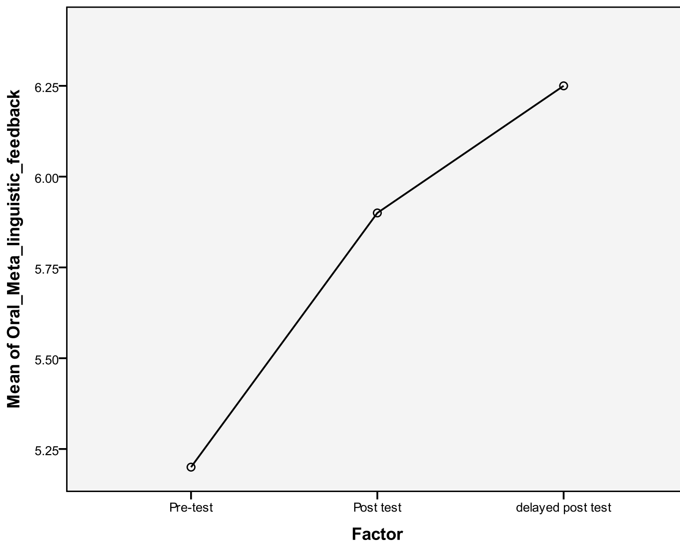

Fig. 13.3 Oral meta-linguistics feedback

No Feedback

Results in this group remained the same following the pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test. The ANOVA results, (F (2, 57) = 000, p = 1.00), are not statistically significant across the three groups as scores remained the same and no improvement whatsoever was seen in accuracy of usage in the target grammatical forms. The linear pattern of results can be seen in Fig. 13.4.

See Table 13.6.

Discussion

The main aim of the study was to observe the effect of three types of feedback (direct, indirect, and oral/written meta-linguistic corrective feedback) on students' accuracy in using two specific grammar forms in L2 composition. Results show that the mean scores of students in groups 1, 2, and 3 increased over the three periods

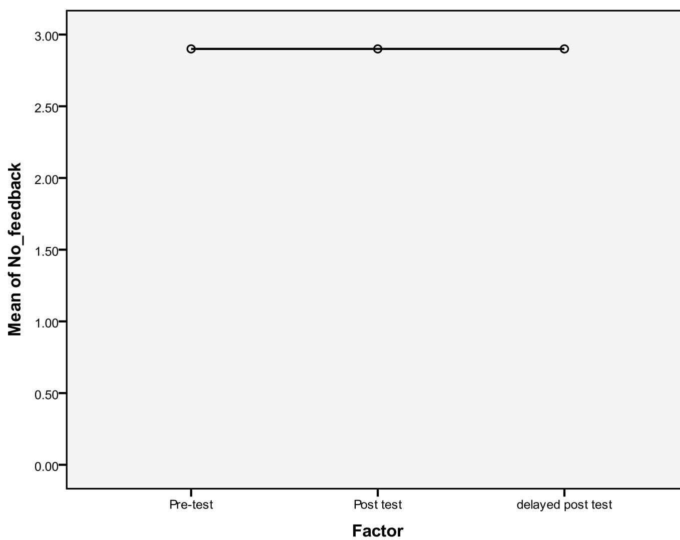

Fig. 13.4 No Feedback Group

Table 13.6 ANOVA results for no feedback (Group 4)

No Feedback	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	0.000	2	0.000	0.000	1.000
Withing groups	107.400	57	1.884		
Total	107.400	59			

of administering the tests. For example, the mean score of group 1 which received direct feedback was 3.5 in the pre-test but moved up to 4.5 in the delayed post-test when students received WCF twice. Similarly, the mean score of group 2 which received indirect feedback also increased from 3.6 to 4.7. The same upward pattern was observed in the results of group 3 which received a combination of direct/indirect and meta-linguistic feedback. Their scores also increased from 5.2 to 6.2. The scores of the control group, however, remained consistent throughout the three periods of administering the test as they did not receive any feedback. This section attempts to discuss findings from the study.

Effect of Different Types of Feedback on Students' Accuracy in Using Target Grammar Forms

In exploring the effect of three different types of WCF on the accuracy levels of target grammar forms, this study investigated the use of articles and the simple past verb tense in written tasks over a period of 6 weeks. Findings revealed that students' accuracy in the target linguistic forms improved considerably following the three types of WCF provided (Images 1, 2, and 3). The control group, on the other hand, received no feedback and consistently performed without any improvement (Fig. 13.4). This is indicative of the fact that firstly, feedback undoubtedly has an impact on student learning and performance; and secondly, the kind of feedback provided has a positive effect on students' ability to notice and correct errors in new pieces of writing.

Direct Feedback

Group 1 received direct WCF on their writing tasks. Table 13.1 indicates the results obtained through one-way ANOVA on students' scores in pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test. It is evident that students' scores improved considerably in the delayed post-test as a result of receiving direct feedback. There is, however, a minor drop in scores during the post-test. This could be attributed to students not getting enough time to notice and correct their errors as this test was administered immediately after the pre-test was returned with the direct feedback. The scores improved considerably in the delayed post-test because they had had enough time in between to register and understand their errors and were, therefore, more prepared to not repeat them in subsequent written drafts.

Direct feedback is the most common approach to feedback employed in Pakistani colleges. This type of feedback is characterized by underlining the error and writing the correct form above the error. Sometimes, students find it difficult to understand this kind of feedback. This could be the reason for a slight decline in the scores

of the immediate post-test. Bitchener and Knoch (2010), Chandler (2003), and Van Beuningen et al. (2008) have all found that direct feedback has a positive effect on the accuracy of students' performance.

Indirect Feedback

Indirect written corrective feedback refers to underlining or encircling the errors in students' writing. It can also be indicated in the margin by providing a correction code on the error type. For example, 'v' for verb errors or 'sp' for spelling errors. In effect and function, this type of feedback is the opposite of direct feedback. Results emerging from providing this type of feedback demonstrate that students' scores improved considerably over the three periods of administering the test. Both articles and simple past verb tense errors appeared to have significantly reduced after feedback was provided.

This improvement in students' post-test scores and delayed post-test scores shows that they understood this type of feedback better and were able to identify and correct their errors in subsequent writings. Due to the exceptionally high number of students in ESL classrooms in Pakistani colleges, teachers find this method less time-consuming while providing feedback to an average of more than 45 students per class.

Researchers such as Ferris (2006) and Lalande (1982) have also reported an advantage in providing indirect WCF in their studies. Indirect feedback can be even more advantageous when used with a smaller group of students. It helps students work independently to identify the error type and then correct it. This approach also promotes the practice of identifying errors, focusing attention on the error type and eventually correcting it independently in subsequent writing assignments.

Written and Oral Meta-Linguistic Feedback

A one-way ANOVA revealed that the group which received written and oral meta-linguistic feedback also showed significant improvement in their scores over the three periods of test administration (Fig. 13.3). This improvement could be attributed to the enriching combination of this type of feedback. Students received descriptive written comments on their errors followed by a one-on-one discussion with the teacher to understand the nature and reasons of the errors they had made. This helped them improve remarkably over the period of 6 weeks. It can be inferred that the ability of students to identify and correct their errors was enhanced by their respective teacher's comments and oral explanation of the errors. Consequently, they experienced a considerable reduction in the number of errors made in using articles and the simple past verb tense.

An additional benefit resulting from administering this type of feedback is that students get a considerable amount of revision in using many other grammatical forms too. This helps them remember how and when to use a particular form which ultimately improves their knowledge of accurately using grammar forms.

There is insufficient research evidence for this type of feedback as not many researchers have attempted to test the effect of written and oral meta-linguistic feedback on students' writings. Bitchener et al. (2005) have found that the oral meta-linguistic explanation by the teacher helps students reduce their linguistic errors considerably. There is, however, a huge need to conduct more research on the effects of providing feedback in this manner. More evidence is required on the effectiveness of written and oral meta-linguistic feedback in different contexts. In the Pakistani ELT context, this kind of feedback could be incorporated into general classroom practices so as to enhance students' long-term learning. There are implications of success based on the fact that this type of feedback has proved to be very effective in improving students' accuracy performance over time (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen et al., 2009).

No Feedback

Students in the group that received no feedback on all three of their writing tasks showed no improvement in their scores. Hence, the consistent linear pattern of their scores is clear in Fig. 13.4. Numerous studies have used a 'no feedback group' and utilized the results to draw comparisons with other groups that received any form of feedback (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008, 2009, 2010; Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis et al., 2008; Ferris, 2006; Sheen, 2007; Truscot & Hsu, 2008; Van Beuningen et al., 2008). Other studies (Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001) have also used 'no feedback groups' to show significant effects on groups that received feedback.

Researchers such as Guénette (2007) argue that it is unrealistic to have a 'no feedback group', as no teacher would have such a group in their actual classrooms. Ferris (2004) believes it is almost unethical to isolate a group and provide no feedback if the study is to be conducted in an actual classroom. On the contrary, Truscott (1996) and Ferris (2004) agree that if a comparison is to be made, we must have a group which receives no feedback at all. For the same purpose, a control group of 20 students was formed to investigate whether providing feedback was effective or not in comparison with not providing any feedback.

In these circumstances, merely having a control group is not enough. The condition is to have a group that is similar to the experimental group in every way; in proficiency levels, writing conditions and instructional context (Guenette, 2007). Only when this condition is met, comparison with the control group can be regarded as informative and supporting the effectiveness of error correction.

The control group in this study was part of an intact English language class. Their proficiency in the target grammar forms was verified by their overall results in the class. Rigorous efforts were made to keep all four groups as homogenous as possible.

Effect of Feedback on Accuracy in Target Grammar Forms over a Period of 6 Weeks

The time-lapse between the writing tasks has been a significant variable in studies related to the effectiveness of corrective feedback. Hence, the current study was spread over a period of 6 weeks. It can be expected that when the time gap between writing tasks is not prolonged, students may remember their errors and try to correct them. Their writing skill improves when they are able to retain the error correction over a period of time. Results of the delayed post-test (Figs. 13.1, 13.2, and 13.3) indicate that there has been substantial improvement in students' accuracy of performance in the two selected error types after 6 weeks. This improvement is also evident in the mean line-graph of all types of feedback provided in Fig. 13.5.

The combined line graph of all three types of feedback following the delayed post-tests shows an upward pattern of improvement. It is also evident in Fig. 13.5 that the scores of the 'no correction group' were uniform through all treatment times. An improvement in scores after a period of 6 weeks suggests that students were able to retain an understanding of their errors and were able to use it to produce

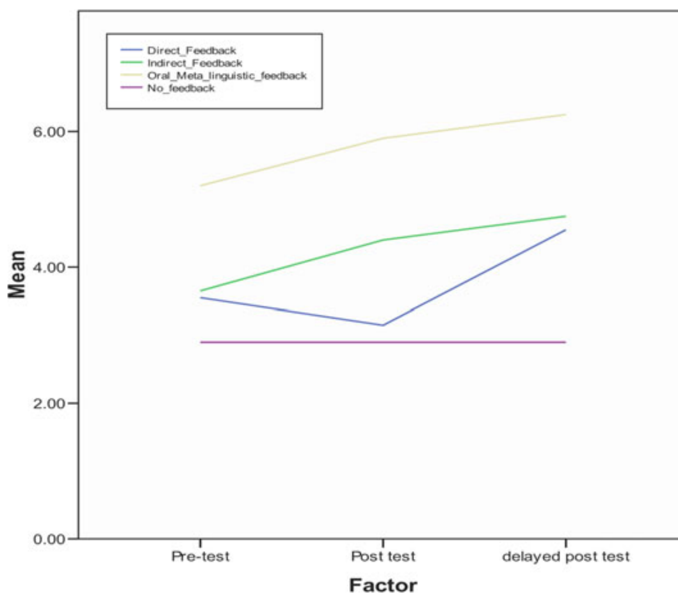

Fig. 13.5 Combined Line Graph of All Types of Feedback

subsequent drafts after a certain period of time. This is also indicative of the fact that the variety of feedback types helped students pay attention to and notice their errors. The remarkable upward pattern of scores in the delayed post-test proves that all three types of feedback were effective over a period of time.

There has been limited research conducted in this domain too. A number of studies measure students' accuracy performance on new pieces of writing over a variety of time intervals (Baker & Bricker, 2010; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008, 2009; Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2008; Ferris, 2006; Hartshorn et al., 2010; Liu, 2008; Sheen, 2007; Sheen et al., 2009; Truscott & Hsu, 2008; Van Beuningen et al., 2008). While feedback was observed to have a positive impact, it will be particularly interesting to investigate whether the students in this study will be able to retain the understanding and correction of their errors over a longer period of time. More studies adopting a longitudinal design are required to prove the effectiveness of feedback in the long term.

The improvements in student scores in the delayed post-test which was administered in the sixth week are in line with most previous research which measures students' accuracy over a short period of time. These results clearly indicate that group 3 (that received written and oral meta-linguistic feedback) secured the highest scores over the three test administration periods. Hence, it is evident that a combined feedback approach proves to be the most effective strategy in improving students' accuracy performance. The line graph of all four groups reveals that although all groups show statistically significant progress in the delayed post-test, the group that received written and oral meta-linguistic feedback outperformed the rest (Fig. 13.5).

For teachers, it is a very significant decision as to which type of feedback would be most suited to the needs of their students. Depending on the motivation of L2 learners, teachers can decide to provide them with a specific type of feedback on every draft of their work. Yet, in some contexts, this is not advisable as students rarely look at the errors marked by teachers. Certain types of feedback are ideal for a class with smaller numbers; yet other types of WCF suit teachers who take classes with an average strength of more than 40 students. In Pakistani colleges, the ESL classroom typically consists of more than 40 students most of whom are not likely to use written English outside the classroom setting. Hence, a WCF provision is not only a tedious task for teachers, but also for students who are rarely motivated to incorporate it after the initial drafts. The question of the best type of feedback is therefore entirely contextual and difficult to answer. Nevertheless, it is evident that meta-linguistic feedback appears to have the most positive effect on students' accuracy performance, yet it can be very time-consuming to provide such a large number of students with this kind of detailed oral and written meta-linguistic feedback. It is also interesting to note that the groups in this study that received direct and indirect WCF also increased grammar accuracy in the delayed post-test, but not as much as the group that received oral and written meta-linguistic WCF. This proves that any type of feedback can be beneficial depending on how and when it is used.

Scope for Future Research

This study was conducted with the aim of finding substantial evidence to prove the effectiveness of a particular type of feedback on students' writing proficiency. Findings are expected to help English language teachers in Pakistani colleges to adapt their feedback methods to suit the needs of their students.

While this study reports data collection and WCF provision over a period of 6 weeks only, there is a need to conduct further research with a longitudinal focus in order to examine the effectiveness of WCF over a complete academic session or a semester. One aim of this study was to counter some design limitations of earlier studies by adopting an experimental design that included a control group (see Table 13.1). Additional research is also needed to measure the gains that WCF brings in other types of complex linguistic error categories, and in implementing both focused and unfocused approaches to WCF.

The investigation in this study confirms that the two treatable errors (simple past tense and articles) were effectively improved upon using a combination of written and oral meta-linguistic feedback. The result is not surprising as it could be expected that after two opportunities of discussing their errors with teachers, L2 learners notice typical errors in their writing and consciously try to reduce those errors in later samples. Therefore, further research is also required to investigate the results of exploring more complex and untreatable error categories such as prepositions, collocations, and word choice (Van Beuningen et al., 2008).

Finally, while this study measured the effect of three different types of corrective feedback on students' writings on two error types, there is a need to separately measure the effectiveness of direct WCF, written meta-linguistic explanation, and oral meta-linguistic explanation on specific error types. This would help determine which type of feedback alone could be more effective than others. It would also be especially beneficial for Pakistani teachers who have to deal with large numbers of students in language classes where only one type of feedback on bulk writing assignments would be a lot easier to handle than a combination of two or three types. Similar studies could also be conducted on larger samples of students and also at school and university levels.

Recommendations

Writing is the most challenging of L2 skills. Therefore, it is recommended to develop a more rigorous and practice-based mechanism for teaching this skill. Considering the findings from this study, the following recommendations are put forward:

- Direct feedback can be combined with meta-linguistic feedback to help students understand their errors in a better way and be able to correct them. Teachers can also employ other feedback methods to suit the needs of their students.

- WCF strategies require a significant amount of time, especially the meta-linguistic type of feedback, which is a combination of the elements of both direct and indirect types. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers should try to accommodate extra time in their regular schedules of teaching, specifically to provide this kind of feedback.
- The number of students in language classrooms in Pakistani colleges has to be reduced. Having more than 30 students in one class makes it very challenging for a teacher to give regular writing tasks to students and then provide satisfactory amounts of feedback. To adjust to this time constraint language teachers can provide weaker students with the meta-linguistic type of feedback, whereas the average and above-average students can receive a combination of direct and indirect feedback. This will save teachers a considerable amount of time and they can give individual attention to students who need it the most.
- Finally, ESL teachers need to be trained sufficiently in the application of corrective feedback methods as this will help them in developing suitable teaching materials which support the use of appropriate feedback methods.

Conclusion

In its aim to contribute to a limited body of research conducted on the effectiveness of WCF in the Pakistani ELT context, this study explored the effects of three types of feedback (direct, indirect, and meta-linguistic) on two specific linguistic errors (simple past verb tense form and articles) in the written work of college students. It also explored the extent to which this effect varies over a period of 6 weeks in new pieces of writing. Furthermore, the study also sought to explain whether students who are given oral and written corrective feedback outperform those who are exposed to only direct and indirect feedback or no feedback at all.

Results clearly show that all three types of feedback had a positive impact on the development of accuracy in students' writing. A significant positive effect was found in using a combination of direct/indirect and meta-linguistic feedback with an overall score of 62.5% as compared to the direct feedback group (37.5%), indirect feedback (42.5%), and no feedback (29%). These significant variations in accuracy across three pieces of writing over a period of time support findings from earlier studies which show that L2 learners perform better when suitable types of feedback are given on their written work. An important question posed by the current study was to what extent the combination of direct/indirect and meta-linguistic types of feedback help students improve their accuracy. Results show that the students who received this type of feedback outperformed the rest of the groups.

A unique feature of this study is that it is set in the Pakistani ELT context which opens the door for future studies to be conducted on investigating the effectiveness of these three types of corrective feedback separately over a more extensive period of time. Although the results of this study have found positive support for the use of WCF, it is important to understand that this evidence is obtained from a specific

population and through investigating the use of only two linguistic features. More research is required to investigate other dimensions of the same study such as larger samples size, more complex error types, teachers' perspectives on the use of WCF, and investigation over an extensive period of time.

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Chapter 14
Prepositional Errors Among Undergraduate ESL Learners in Pakistan

Haroon Shafique and Rashed Mahmood

Abstract Error analysis is an important field of research in countries such as Pakistan where English is taught as a second language (ESL). This mixed methods research study examines the prepositional errors found in English language writing assignments of undergraduate students at the University of Lahore, Gujrat campus. (Corder's 1973). model of error analysis is used to identify prepositional errors with a concentration on the use of prepositions of time, place, direction, and phrasal prepositions among ESL learners. In addition to identifying prepositional errors, the study also looks at the extent and inclination of prepositional errors among learners. The documentary sample consists of 100 written tests collected randomly from undergraduate students of five departments at the university. This study highlights the identification, description, categorization, and explanation of errors emerging from the analyzed data. Findings reveal that L2 (second language) learners frequently commit prepositional errors when using the 'preposition of place', while the dominant prepositional errors are interlingual. The study recommends the need for discovering new teaching strategies to teach tricky or challenging areas in ESL such as prepositions.

Keywords Error analysis · Prepositional errors · Qualitative research · Quantitative research

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Introduction

Error analysis is an invaluable source of information for teachers on students' errors and areas of L2 where students are weak because of which they make those errors. It also helps teachers to correct students' errors and improve the effectiveness of their teaching as well (Richards et al., 1996). Dulay and Burt (1972) identify two core purposes in investigating learners' errors. Firstly, error analysis helps to identify data that affect second language learning. Secondly, it helps instructors and curriculum designers in finding out those areas of L2 in which students experience structural difficulties. Once these challenges are understood, corrective measures can be applied.

What is An Error?

Richards and Schmidt (2002) consider an error as the use of language in such a way that a native speaker interprets inadequate learning. It is a systematic or an organized error of competence, which does not correspond to the standards of the second language (Eun-pyo, 2002). Brown (2000) and Ellis (1996) distinguish between covert and overt errors; covert being those errors that are syntactically correct but not suitable for communication, and overt errors referring to clearly ungrammatical expressions. Norrish (1987) exemplifies an error as a precise non-conformity when a learner has not learned somewhat and reliably fails to understand the situation, thereby resulting in what Cunningsworth (1987) refers to as deliberate deviations from the rules of the second language.

The Difference Between 'Errors' and 'Mistakes'

It is important to differentiate errors from mistakes. Errors are systematic deviations, typically characteristic of second language learners with the likelihood of repeated occurrences resulting from the absence of knowledge in the second language and inadequate awareness of the target language linguistic rules. Ellis (1996) rightly describes errors as gaps in the second language learner's information.

Mistakes, on the other hand, are usually unsystematic, infrequent, and happen arbitrarily, often because a learner fails to perform to his/her aptitude (Corder, 1967). Mistakes are performance occurrences and are usual components of a native speaker's discourse. Ellis (1996) elaborates that mistakes reflect a failure in preparation and are likely to emerge in native-speaker speech, for example, because of memory slips, passionate strain, thoughtlessness, and the absence of automaticity.

The Use of Prepositions in English Language

It is understood that an individual's command over English language can be assessed from the way s/he uses prepositions in written or spoken sentences. Wren and Martin (2006:106) define a preposition as, 'a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show in what relation the thing denoted by it stands in regard to something else'. Hence, prepositions show the connection between two sections of a sentence and make it accurate. The English language has 60–70 prepositions, which is a number higher than other languages (Koffi, 2010). At least half of the prepositions in English are monosyllabic (on, for, to), whereas the other half have two syllables (without, under, behind, without) or more (underneath). Bilal et al. (2013) note that prepositions such as 'with', 'at', 'by', 'to', 'in', 'for', 'from', 'of', and 'on' are among the most utilized in the English language.

Statement of the Problem

English language occupies the position of a second language in Pakistan and the use of the language is packed with errors. Bilal et al. (2013) claim that a dominant number of Pakistani students appear to commit prepositional errors when using the English language. This study attempts to verify the claim by examining prepositional errors that exist in the writing assignments of ESL undergraduate students.

Significance of the Research

This study explores the identification, description, categorization, and explanation of prepositional errors among undergraduate ESL learners at the University of Lahore, Gujrat Campus in the Punjab province of Pakistan. Findings from the study are expected to reveal possible reasons for prepositional errors among Pakistani ESL learners and thereby assist ESL instructors in identifying which prepositions are generally hard to learn and, therefore require more attention, clarification, and practice. The results of this study are expected to raise implications for English teachers to adopt more suitable teaching methods that will eventually decrease the transfer impact of L1 (first language) on the use of prepositions.

Research Questions

The study attempts to answer the following research questions:

i. What are the most common prepositional errors among undergraduate ESL learners in Pakistan?
ii. What kinds of prepositional errors appear most frequently in the written work of undergraduate ESL learners in Pakistan?
iii. Are the errors committed by Pakistani undergraduate ESL learners interlingual or intralingual?

Literature Review

Numerous studies have been carried out in the area of error analysis with a few exploring prepositional errors. Eun-pyo (2002) in his study on investigating English language errors analyzed the writings of 35 pre-medical Korean students who chose to study English writing in their third semester. The aim of this study was to identify the types of errors made by advanced-level students in their writing and the frequency of those errors. An analysis of writing samples revealed that 26% of errors were due to L1 interference (interlingual errors), 16% of errors resulted from the incorrect use of words, while a further 15% were prepositional errors and 14% resulted from the incorrect use of articles.

In another study, Yin and Ung (2001) examined errors in the written work of low proficiency English language learners. In their attempt to analyze and describe cross-linguistic influences, both researchers collected written essays of 50 students. The writings were analyzed for errors in lexis, syntax, and grammar revealing that a maximum number of errors were due to L1 interference (interlingual errors) while only a few were due to low proficiency levels in the target language.

Kao (1999) conducted a quantitative study to investigate errors in the writings of Taiwanese EFL learners. His analysis of 169 compositions obtained from 53 college students revealed a total of 928 errors altogether in the writing samples, including errors dealing with grammar, semantics, and lexicon. All grammatical errors amounted to 66% of the total number of errors, while semantic errors were 18% and lexical errors were 16%.

Lin (2002) investigated 26 written essays from the same Taiwanese EFL college students and concluded that 30% of the errors were due to incorrect sentence structure, 21% were due to incorrect use of verb forms, 16% were due to sentence fragments, and another 16% of the errors were caused by incorrect use of prepositions.

In similar research, Muto-Humphery (2006) examined the writings of 36 Japanese university freshmen and identified three types of errors: unnecessary insertion of articles, confusing articles, and omission of articles. The findings of this

study reveal that most students were unable to use articles in a correct manner. He concluded that these errors were made because language articles do not exist in the Japanese language.

Randall's (2005) study highlights the spelling errors made by learners in a Singaporean primary school when target language (English) words were dictated to them. The aim of this study was to determine whether these errors happened due to L1 interference (interlingual) or due to the complex system of the target language (intralingual). Randall (2005) concluded that spelling errors found in the work of primary class learners were influenced by phonology and were due to Singaporean English.

These studies not only present the ways in which learners learn L2 and the factors that affect their learning process but also provide a baseline for this study in discovering some errors that Pakistani learners commit while learning L2.

Research Approach

A mixed-methods approach combining quantitative as well as qualitative data collection methods was employed to investigate answers to the following research questions:

i. What are the most common prepositional errors among undergraduate ESL learners in Pakistan?
ii. What kinds of prepositional errors appear most frequently in the written work of undergraduate ESL learners in Pakistan?
iii. Are the errors committed by Pakistani undergraduate ESL learners interlingual or intralingual?

Quantitative data was collected in the form of questionnaire responses to answer the first two research questions of this study. Open-ended interview data was collected to answer the third research question. Participants were asked to categorize the types of errors they made (interlingual or intralingual) and give reasons for the categorization. The data thus represents both qualitative and quantitative elements of the study. All participants who were administered the questionnaire were interviewed about the responses they chose.

Research Instruments

A questionnaire consisting of 20 multiple-choice items was administered to 100 participants in the study to investigate the types of errors that participants made. Items on the questionnaire were prepositional sentences taken from Wren and Martin's (2006) text, '*English Grammar & Composition*'. These items were based

on prepositions of time, place, direction, and phrasal prepositions. Each kind of preposition was distributed over five multiple-choice questions. Every multiple-choice question contained three options (distractors) to fill in the blanks. The questionnaire also included close-ended questions that were aimed at collecting demographic information such as age, gender, grade, and place of residence. Items on the questionnaire were translated into Urdu with the help of three English instructors so that the most appropriate Urdu translation could be exemplified in the data analysis section.

Face-to-face interviews were recorded using a personal Samsung Galaxy mobile phone.

Sample Population

The target population in this study is all undergraduate students at the University of Lahore, Gujrat campus. Overall, 100 male and female respondents were randomly selected from four departments at the university and were asked to fill in the questionnaire. The rationale for selecting freshmen students was that they were in the initial semesters of their degree programs, and the assumption was that they were not yet in the practice of using prepositions accurately.

Data Collection

The questionnaire was first distributed to 100 students studying in the following departments:

- Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA)
- Bachelor of Science in Computer Science (BSCS)
- Bachelor of Science in Software Engineering (BSSE)
- Bachelor of Science in Civil Technology (BSCT)

To ensure adherence to research ethics during data collection, all students were informed that they were to participate in a study focused on identifying English prepositional errors. They were asked to sign an informed consent form before attempting the questionnaire. Participants were given 20 min to complete the multiple-choice test. The response rate recorded was 100%.

Data Analysis and Discussion

Data collected from the multiple-choice questionnaire was examined and calculated in terms of averages and percentages. Microsoft Excel was used for calculating average scores while simple percentages were calculated manually. The actual data was analyzed and classified as follows:

i. Kinds of errors
ii. Frequency of errors
iii. Description of errors

To determine the percentage of interlingual and intralingual errors, all students who undertook the initial multiple-choice questionnaire were interviewed. Every student was given approximately ten minutes to explain why he or she chose the particular prepositional option.

Corder's (1973) two-stage model for error analysis was used to identify prepositional errors in participants' work. In the first stage, a technical procedure was used to detect, identify, and then describe the errors. It also included the interpretation of errors in context. The second stage involved interpretation of participants' intentions about what they wanted to convey. This technique was used to categorize their interlingual and intralingual errors as either authoritative or plausible. This process helped to identify the most common prepositional errors, the most frequent kind of errors, and whether the errors were interlingual or intralingual.

Correct Responses

Table 14.1 shows participants' responses measuring four kinds of prepositions.

The preposition '*by*' (phrasal preposition) has the highest correct responses with 96%. This means that 96 participants selected the preposition '*by*' as a correct option. The prepositions '*at*' and '*in*' (prepositions of time) and the prepositions '*for*' and '*against*' (phrasal prepositions) have 88% correct responses, thus being the second most chosen options. A total of 88 students selected these four prepositions as the correct options. The third-highest percentage of correct responses emerged in the use of '*in*' (preposition of time) at 80%.

Some common prepositional errors also emerged with '*about*' (phrasal preposition) being the most common. An overall of 80% of participants was unable to select the correct option. Among other common prepositions, a total of 76 participants were unable to identify the correct use of '*of*' (phrasal preposition) and about 60 participants were unable to identify the correct use of '*into*' (preposition of direction). Hence, data revealed 76% of errors in the use of '*of*' and 60% errors in the use of '*into*'.

Table 14.1 Participants' responses of four kinds of prepositions

Four kinds of prepositions	Prepositions	Correct responses	Averages	Percentages
1. Prepositions of time	at	88/100	0.88	88
	in	80/100	0.80	80
	on	76/100	0.76	76
	at	76/100	0.76	76
	in	88/100	0.88	88
2. Prepositions of place	on	52/100	0.52	52
	in	68/100	0.68	68
	into	76/100	0.76	76
	at, in	48/100	0.48	48
	under	60/100	0.60	60
3. Prepositions of direction	to	76/100	0.76	76
	into	40/100	0.40	40
	on	78/100	0.76	76
	toward	68/100	0.68	68
	on	64/100	0.64	64
4. Phrasal prepositions	about	20/100	0.20	20
	of	24/100	0.24	24
	for	88/100	0.88	88
	against	88/100	0.88	88
	by	96/100	0.96	96

52% of errors were identified in the use of *'at'* and *'in'* (prepositions of place). These two prepositions are problematic for students along with the preposition '*on'* (preposition of place) which only 52 participants could use correctly. The percentage of incorrect use of this preposition is 48%.

Based on the data collected and emergent trends, the six prepositions, '*of*', '*about*', '*into*', '*at*', '*in*' and '*on*', are often found to be tricky and confusing for undergraduate students.

Incorrect Responses

Table 14.2 reflects the overall percentages of incorrect responses in the use of four kinds of prepositions.

Data from the multiple-choice questionnaire revealed that the most frequent errors occurred in the use of prepositions of place. A total of 196 incorrect responses were recorded in the use of prepositions of place, which is 39.2% of all the errors recorded.

Table 14.2 Overall percentages and averages of incorrect responses of four kinds of prepositions

Four kinds of prepositions	Prepositions	Incorrect responses	Averages	Percentages	Collective percentages
1. Prepositions of time	at in	12 20	0.12 0.20	12 20	18.4%
	on	24	0.24	24	
	at	24	0.24	24	
	in	12	0.12	12	
2. Prepositions of place	on	48	0.48	48	39.2%
	in	32	0.32	32	
	into	24	0.24	24	
	at, in	52	0.52	52	
	under	40	0.4	40	
3. Prepositions of direction	to	24	0.24	24	35.2%
	into	60	0.6	60	
	on	24	0.24	24	
	toward	32	0.32	32	
	on	36	0.36	36	
4. Phrasal prepositions	about	80	0.8	80	36.8%
	of	76	0.76	76	
	for	12	0.12	12	
	against	12	0.12	12	
	by	4	0.04	4%	

Interlingual and Intralingual Errors

Table 14.3 depicts the categorization of participants' errors into interlingual and intralingual, along with the frequency and percentages of these errors.

Participants were interviewed about the responses they chose in the multiple-choice questionnaire in order to understand if the resultant errors were

Table 14.3 Categorization of learners' errors into interlingual and intralingual

Categories of errors	Frequency	Averages	Percentages
1. Interlingual errors			
Direct translation	448	0.68	68.29%
2. Intralingual errors			
Mis-selected preposition	180	0.27	27.43%
Incomplete knowledge	28	0.04	4.26%
Total errors	**656**		

interlingual or intralingual. It appears that participants committed approximately 448 prepositional errors (interlingual) due to L1 interference through direct translation. This makes up about 68.29% of the total errors recorded.

The frequency of intralingual prepositional errors is 208. Under the category of intralingual errors, participants committed 180 prepositional errors (27.43%) due to the mis-selection of prepositions and 28 prepositional errors (4.26%) due to incomplete knowledge of rules. The overall number of prepositional errors recorded is 656.

Interlingual Errors

It is evident from the information in Table 14.3 that almost 68.3% of the prepositional errors are interlingual, i.e., are ‘mother-tongue influenced’, as James (1998) highlights. This usually happens when there is an interference of L1 in the use of L2 and learners indulge in literal translation from L1 to L2. Table 14.4 depicts some interlingual errors identified in the data collected for this study.

The prepositional structure of Urdu is different from English, but students try to apply their L1 rules to the L2, i.e., English. For instance, in the first example that appears in Table 14.4, many students have placed the preposition ‘*on’* instead of ‘*at’* to indicate the meeting time. Hence, the sentence ‘*I have a meeting on 9 am’* is the direct literal translation of the Urdu (L1) sentence, “نو بجے میری ایک میٹنگ ہے۔” (*9 am baje meri meeting hay*).

Similarly, the remaining sentences illustrate the interference of L1 (Urdu) prepositions in L2.

Table 14.4 Explanation of errors due to direct translation found in collected data

Direct translated sentences (L2)	Urdu literal translation (L1) with transliteration
I have a meeting **on** 9 am. (at)	نو بجے میری ایک میٹنگ ہے۔ 9 Baje meri aik meeting hai
Her birthday is **at** 20 November. (on)	اس کی سالگرہ ۲۰ نومبر کو ہے۔ us ki salgirah 20 november ko hai
We finished the test **on the same time.** (at)	ہم نے بیک وقت امتحان ختم کیا۔ Ham ne bayek waqt imtehan khatam kiya
Anna has returned **in/at** her hometown. (to)	اینا اپنے آبائی شہر واپس آگئی ہے۔ Anna apne abai shahar wapis aa gai hai
This song reminds me **about/for** my last holidays in Lahore. (of)	یہ گیت لاہور میں میری آخری چھٹیوں کی یاد دلاتا ہے Ye geet Lahore mein meri akhri chuttiyon ki yad dilata hai

Intralingual Errors

Intralingual errors, as James (1998) identifies, are the result of mis-selection of prepositions, incomplete rule application, exploiting redundancy, and over co-occurrence restriction errors. Such errors occur within a language when the rules of the language in question are complex.

Mis-selected Prepositions

Table 14.5 explains mis-selected prepositions that emerged from the data collected.

The correct prepositions appear in parentheses at the end of each sentence. It is evident that almost 27.4% of the intralingual errors occur due to mis-selected prepositions. Within the complex system of the target language itself, these errors are due to the polysemous nature of prepositions and can lead a learner towards mis-selection of prepositions (James, 1998).

Incomplete Application of Rules

Table 14.6 presents the results of intralingual errors caused by the incomplete application of rules.

The correct prepositions appear in parentheses at the end of each sentence. About 4% of the participants (see Table 14.3) failed to use appropriate prepositions in phrases or in certain idiomatic terms.

Table 14.5 Explanation of mis-selected prepositions found in the data collected

Mis-selected prepositions
1. In England, it often snows **on** December. (in)
2. Do you think we will go to Jupiter **at/on** the future? (in)
3. The woman is putting something **in** the oven. (into)
4. Lee and Sarah took the bus that was heading **to** the university. (toward)
5. Thomas fell **in** the floor. (on)
6. This novel is not written **of** Henry James. (by)

Table 14.6 Explanation of errors due to incomplete application of rules found in collected data

Incomplete Application of Rules
1. Don't worry I'll pay **of** the tickets. (for)
2. I have no complaint **about/for** him. (against)

Conclusion

In its attempt to highlight the prepositional errors made by Pakistani undergraduates in ESL writing, this study has revealed a matter of serious concern for ESL learners and teachers in Pakistan. Results depict that undergraduate ESL students commit errors in prepositions of place more frequently than other domains, such as prepositions of time, direction, and phrasal prepositions.

It is also revealed that most of these errors are interlingual or influenced by the L1. Among these, the commonly recurrent errors that require attention are in the use of prepositions such as, 'on', 'at', 'in', 'into', 'about', and 'of'.

Recommendations

This study has investigated the most frequent kind of prepositional errors and the most common prepositional errors in ESL writing of undergraduate Pakistani students. Considering the findings of this study, the following recommendations are presented:

- Students and teachers should concentrate on prepositions of place, as these kinds of errors are found most frequently in the data collected for this study.
- Prepositions such as 'on', 'at', 'in', 'into', 'about', and 'of' feature as the most challenging to use accurately. Hence, teachers must instruct students on the correct use of these prepositions.
- Since most prepositional errors identified are caused by L1 interference, it is imperative to minimize the use of the mother tongue while teaching and the medium of instruction should be the target language.

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Chapter 15
Using Portfolios to Formatively Assess the Writing Skills of Undergraduate ESL/EFL Students

Rabail Qayyum

Abstract This action research traced the development of a portfolio model for formative assessment in a remedial writing skills course. The context of the study was a private institute of higher education in the city of Karachi in Pakistan. The study attempted to gain insight into the various ways in which portfolios are used along with the associated benefits and challenges. This chapter, however, only reports on the benefits of portfolios which emerged from a thematic analysis of data collected from multiple sources. Findings revealed that portfolios enhanced the writing abilities of students helping them produce paragraphs with better organization and clearer sentences, encouraging them to cite evidence for arguments, and enabling them to demonstrate awareness of metacognitive strategies. Portfolios also allowed students to develop a focus on critical thinking skills rather than merely reproducing content knowledge, and fostered creativity. The chapter concludes with pedagogical suggestions for improving the portfolio model along with recommendations for stakeholders.

Keywords Portfolios · Writing skills · Formative assessment · Undergraduate ESL/EFL students · Action research

Introduction

Considering that conceptual understanding in any subject in higher education is mainly assessed using written tests, the ability of students to express themselves in writing also influences their performance in other subjects (Hu, 2007). Hence, it is imperative for learners to possess excellent writing skills. However, in my experience of teaching academic writing to undergraduate students in Karachi, it appears that at this level high-stakes summative assessment is greatly emphasized, where often the fear of failure drives students' learning. Other factors include lack of training, motivation, time constraints, or heavy workloads.

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Portfolios are an excellent way of assessing writing skills especially because they demonstrate the development of skills and metacognitive abilities (Kathpalia & Heah, 2008; McDonald, 2012), promote students' active participation and self-assessment (Lam, 2010; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007), and enable them to become empowered learners (McDonald, 2012). It is, therefore, both interesting and imperative to explore how portfolios are utilized in Pakistani settings.

Most existing studies on the use of portfolios in ESL/EFL settings are quantitative in nature (e.g., Moradan & Hedayati, 2011; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007; Qinghua, 2010; Tabatabaei & Assefi, 2012), and do not reflect how the use of portfolios for assessment purposes suits contextual needs. This research study employs action research, a methodology which helped me improve my teaching practices, thereby catering to my students' needs more effectively. It is expected that this study will also enable other English language teachers to better understand the successful implementation of portfolios for assessment in their classrooms.

Statement of the Problem

In Pakistan, the assessment of English writing skills in higher education institutions typically involves traditional timed writing tests which may or may not adequately capture students' varying proficiency and their interest in English (Yazedjian & Kolkhorst, 2007). Writing under time-bound situations can create duress, thereby hindering students' writing abilities. McDonald (2012) argues that this traditional testing is often not authentic in addition to the fact that teacher-constructed tests can have reliability issues. Thus, the lack of provision for reflection, self-assessment, and authenticity mars traditional assessment and does not encourage deep learning.

Iqbal et al. (2009) investigated the assessment practices of teachers in higher education institutions in Pakistan and discovered limited use of assessment techniques by teachers. While teachers believed that the tasks they set were not based on factual information alone, students felt that most of the exam questions required recall of factual information. The researchers felt that teachers did not make use of portfolios which could lead to 'active learning and enhancement of quality' (Iqbal et al., 2009: 52).

Thus, to assess students' learning more effectively, it is imperative to investigate alternative assessment strategies. Portfolios being one of the most popular assessment tools in an ELT context (Lo, 2010) make an apt case for action research.

Rationale of the Study

There is a three-fold rationale for action research. Firstly, due to limitations in traditional assessment techniques, there is a need to explore alternative assessment strategies (McDonald, 2012; Rodrigues, 2007; Sahakian, 2009). This research study aims

to fill the gap by using portfolios for the assessment of writing skills. Secondly, most of the studies on portfolio assessment in ESL/EFL settings employ experimental design methodology or involve quantitative analysis (e.g., Moradan & Hedayati, 2011; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007; Qinghua, 2010; Tabatabaei & Assefi, 2012). There is hence a dearth of literature in portfolio assessment using action research methodology in particular. Thirdly, in Pakistan, relatively few scholarly studies investigate portfolio assessment in the context of higher education, where it is crucial for students to become self-regulated learners in order to promote the notion of lifelong learning (Van der Schaaf et al., 2012). Since portfolios help monitor development over time and encourage learners to engage in self-directed learning thereby empowering them (McDonald, 2012), it is imperative to see how portfolios are used in this setting.

Significance of the Study

There is clearly a need to increase teachers' repertoire of assessment strategies (Iqbal et al., 2009). It is believed that through this action research project, participating teacher-researchers will increase their knowledge about this alternative tool of assessment. For students participating in this study, this will be a new way of assessment that will promote and enrich new ways of learning. For the wider community, a study like this will facilitate ESL/EFL teachers in developing a richer understanding of implementing writing skills portfolio assessment in higher education. Additionally, the portfolio model described in this study is expected to be of help to other teachers who may design their own portfolio models. This study will offer pedagogical suggestions on implementing portfolio assessments in writing skills classes to assist teachers in reshaping their assessment practices to promote optimal student learning.

Literature Review

This action research project was conceptualized considering existing educational theories, assessment functions, assessment types, and instructional approaches to writing. Figure 15.1 depicts the overall conceptual framework of the research.

Portfolio assessment, with its focus on learner-centric classrooms, has close links with the constructivist approach and is characterized by students' independence (Gülbahar & Tinmaz, 2006; Jones, 2012). According to Dysthe and Engelsen (2011), the fundamental elements of collection, selection, and reflection in portfolio development are linked to cognitive and constructivist perspectives.

Traditional assessment focuses primarily on evaluating a student's factual knowledge, whereas contemporary alternative assessment which 'favours the integration of assessment, teaching, and learning' (Struyven et al., 2008:70) subscribes

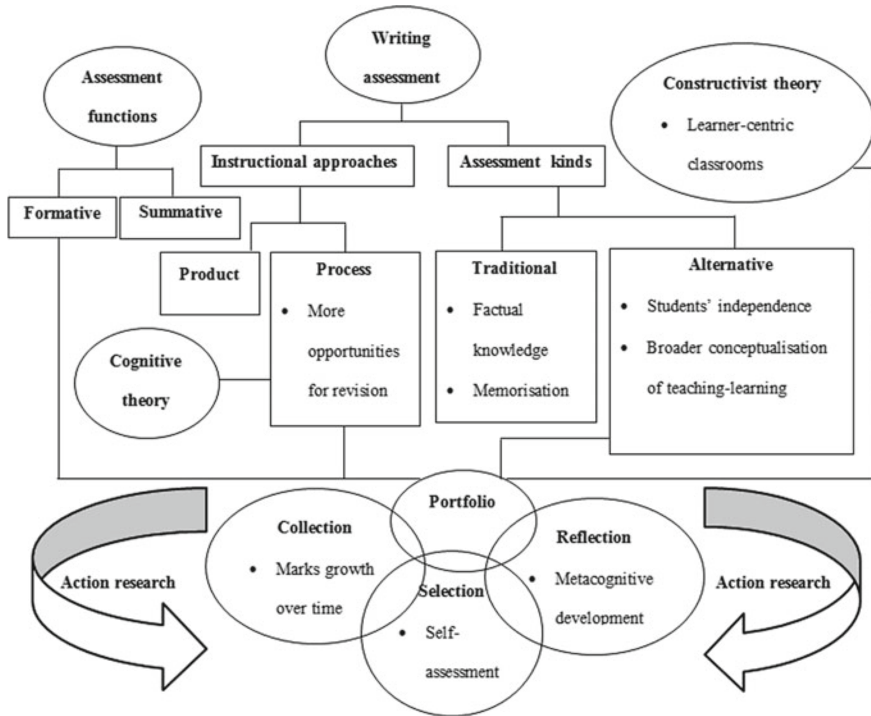


Fig. 15.1 The conceptual framework

to promoting broader student learning (Gillett & Hammond, 2009; Webber & Tschepikow, 2013).

Alternative forms of assessment thus have the flexibility to cater to students' culture, learning style, interests, and learning pace, which makes them more relevant indicators of an individual student's learning and performance (Solórzano, 2008; Webber & Tschepikow, 2013). Such assessments evoke a broad conceptualization of what is involved in teaching and include a range of activities/products such as observations, peer-assessment, interviews, simulations, self-assessment, oral presentations, debates, or videotapes of performances (Lynch & Shaw, 2005). Among these tools, portfolios have been widely used in ELT since the 1980s (Duong et al., 2011; Hessler et al., 2009; and, Lo, 2010).

Assessment of Writing Skills

Writing skills assessments are seen to be effective when they focus on the 'global aspects' or macro-level skills, i.e., content and organization, as well as 'formal aspects' or micro-level skills, i.e., grammar and punctuation (Nezakatgoo, 2011).

There is criticism of approaches that disregard global aspects in teaching writing and do not expose students to varying rhetorical contexts that sufficiently inform them about the writing purpose, audience, and writer's role.

Peterson et al. (2012: 426) stress that the 'goal of writing assessment, according to advocates of process writing approaches, should be students' growth as writers, a goal more likely to be achieved when students are provided opportunities to revise their writing after receiving feedback'. Thus, multiple drafts and feedback are important for effective writing assessment.

Developing Writing Skills Through a Process Approach

The shift in assessment practices from traditional to alternative has been accompanied by a shift in instructional practices leading to more focus on a process approach to writing rather than the product approach (Duong et al., 2011; Qinghua, 2010). This is seen to produce a better-quality end product through individual endeavor.

The use of portfolios complements the process approach because it promotes students' active participation and self-assessment (Lam, 2010; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007; Rodrigues, 2012) and helps develop metacognitive skills (Kathpalia & Heah, 2008; McDonald, 2012). Considering the advantages, this study employs a process approach to writing when using portfolios to document, maintain, and monitor students' writing progress.

Definition, Content and Types of Portfolios

According to Paulson et al. (as cited in Duong et al., 2011), portfolio development is characterized by the process of collection, selection, and reflection. To consider portfolios as tools for alternative assessment, Lynch and Shaw (2005) argue that portfolios should embed

- active participation of students.
- students' reflection.
- peer and self-assessment.
- students' involvement in deciding and selecting criteria for evaluation.

The academic domain categorizes portfolios into two broad categories: professional and non-professional (Dysthe & Engelsen, 2011). Professional portfolios are, for example, widely used in teacher education to document teachers' professional development, while the other non-professional academic use is for students' learning. Within these two categories, there are two major subdivisions defined by the purpose for which portfolios are used (Jones, 2012; Lombardi, 2008; McDonald, 2012)

- product or showcase portfolio—which contains only the best work.
- process or learning portfolio—which documents development over time.

Using Portfolios in ESL/EFL Settings

The role of portfolios in developing students' writing skills in an ESL/EFL context is well-established. Tabatabaei and Assefi (2012) examined the writing performance of 40 Iranian EFL teachers to identify the effect of portfolios as a teaching, learning, and assessment tool. Writing sub-skills such as focus, organization, elaboration, vocabulary, and conventions were also taken into account. A statistical analysis of results revealed that students whose portfolios were assessed outperformed those who were assessed in a traditional manner. The research thus concluded that portfolios play a positive role in developing students' writing skills.

Qinghua (2010), on the other hand, discovered that portfolio-based assessments of writing skills generated limited growth in accuracy and coherence among Chinese students of English at university. The drawback in this study is that students' performance was analyzed on two timed essays that were administered within a short time span which is perceived to be insufficient to demonstrate any real improvement in portfolio development or assessment.

Among other research, Öztürk and Çeçen (2007) investigated the effects of portfolios on anxiety associated with writing among Turkish ESL students and discovered that maintaining portfolios helped overcome this anxiety. Lam and Lee (2010) investigated the formative function of portfolio assessment in an EFL writing classroom of 31 Cantonese-speaking students and two instructors. Through a quantitative analysis of student questionnaires and qualitative analysis of both student and teacher interviews, they discovered that while students responded positively to the formative aspects of portfolio assessment, they still preferred summative grading and perceived grades as the best way to inform their current standards of writing. These findings are indicative of students' pre-occupation with grades and relate closely to the Pakistani context while also emphasizing the need for concerted efforts from teachers to initiate change. It is evident then that most research on portfolio assessment highlights the benefits of portfolios in ESL/EFL settings.

Methodology

Kemmis and McTaggart's (2000) model of action research involving planning, acting, observing, and reflecting was employed as the methodology for the following reasons:

- It helped link research with practice (Bryant & Bates, 2010).
- Action research is commonly regarded as a tool for professional development (Halai, 2012).

- There is a dearth of studies that employ action research to investigate the use of portfolio assessment. Most studies in ESL/EFL settings employ experimental design methodology or involve quantitative analysis (e.g., Moradan & Hedayati, 2011; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007; Qinghua, 2010; Tabatabaei & Assefi, 2012).
- Action research methodology that focuses on implementing the process of portfolio assessment will actively demonstrate the effectiveness of portfolio assessment in assessing writing skills.

Context

The study was conducted in a private institute of higher education in Karachi, Pakistan. The institution offers Bachelor's and Master's programs in Education and uses English as the medium of instruction.

Course Profile

The course under study is *Purposeful English*,[1] a non-credit-bearing remedial course for B.Ed. (Bachelor's in Education) students who have low proficiency in English. The writing skills components in this course feature academic writing, active and passive voice, paragraph writing, and avoiding plagiarism which are taught through activities such as free writing, group discussions, brainstorming, peer reviewing, and editing among others. Teachers frequently use multimedia to present information.

Research Participants

The institute independently selected twenty students for the course based on the results of a placement test that was designed and conducted by the institute's administration. Of these, six research participants were identified to participate in the research based on their active academic involvement. All student participants were assigned pseudonyms: Ahmed, Farzana, Felicity, Rozina, Saad, and Zoya. Their level of participation, performance, and academic ability varied considerably and added depth to the findings.

[1] A pseudonym.

Stages of Action Research

Data collection in this study spanned over a period of six months and included three stages—reconnaissance, intervention, and post-intervention—each of which is described below.

Reconnaissance

Reconnaissance involves gathering information about students' background and needs through conversations with other teachers on site, a pre-course questionnaire for needs analysis, and a writing task. The pre-course questionnaire was aimed at determining students' backgrounds, future writing needs, and their preferred way of working. The writing task on the other hand intended to assess their current writing abilities. These instruments helped me in drafting the course plan and designing the model of portfolio that would be incorporated into the research study.

Intervention

Intervention involves redesigning the existing course plan in order to:

- align the course with my research aims.
- ensure that I would be able to complete data collection within the specified time frame.
- ascertain that I would be able to teach the selected topics in a connected, and meaningful way.

I decided to keep the scale of the intervention small owing to time constraints associated with this research and therefore started with a lesson on writing for research purposes which focused on giving students an overview and some input on mechanics. I began with basic information about the writing process and then limited my focus to writing effective paragraphs, dealing with individual grammar needs only as they arose.

The intervention phase of my action research project involved three cycles, each of which was based on tasks assigned to students in keeping with the course contents. Portfolios were collected at the end of each cycle. Cycle one included an introduction to the course and the concept of a portfolio. Any misconceptions associated with the use of portfolios were clarified at this stage. Subsequent lessons in this cycle included the writing process, reflective writing, and basic structuring of the paragraph. The second cycle was planned based on students' portfolios developed during the first cycle. At this stage, input was provided on argumentative writing and problems encountered in employing portfolios were dealt with. The third cycle included one final portfolio-related task. At this stage, I also dealt with the challenges in implementing portfolios.

Post-Intervention

This stage involved a semi-structured focus group discussion with participant students.

Data Collection Tools

Data was collected through reflective notes, student portfolios, exit slips, field notes, lesson plans, teaching resources, a focus group discussion, and document analysis.

Reflections

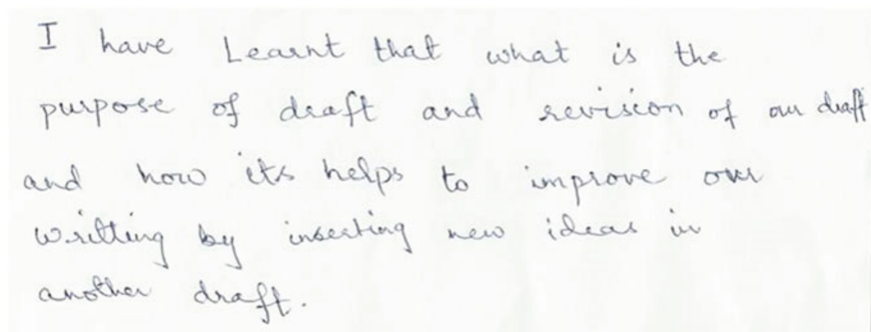
This refers to my own notes on critical incidents in class, taken after every lesson and any other time when possible.

Students' Portfolios

These were used as evidence of development (if any) of students' writing skills, and to identify the benefits associated with the use of portfolios.

Exit Slips

Writing comments anonymously on pieces of paper at the end of each lesson yielded quick, open-ended feedback from students who participated in my research and encouraged them to indicate general feelings about any aspect of the course (see Fig. 15.2). Future lessons were also planned based on these comments.



I have Learnt that what is the purpose of draft and revision of our draft and how its helps to improve our writting by inserting new ideas in another draft.

Fig. 15.2 Sample 'Exit Slip'

Field Notes

These included diary notes on any incident or interaction that I found interesting and relevant to my work.

Lesson Plans and Teaching Materials

These included handouts that I received as an M.Ed. student, free online resources, task sheets created or adapted from books, and a book chapter (Connelly, 2010).

Focus Group Discussion

At the post-intervention stage, a semi-structured Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was conducted to gauge participants' experience of creating their own portfolios, and the extent to which this experience enabled them to achieve the course aims. By asking participants to provide examples for the claims they made, I mitigated the risk of biased feedback and thereby ensured that reliable data was generated.

Document Analysis

This included attendance sheets, a pre-course questionnaire, the syllabus provided by the administration, and other records such as the student list that helped me keep track of portfolio submissions.

Data Analysis

Data was coded for themes that cut across the different data collection tools (Miles & Huberman, 1994), as shown in Table 15.1.

All coded data were compared to identify similarities and differences which generated themes that helped identify recurrent patterns. These patterns indicated students' and teachers' general perceptions about the value of portfolio assessment. All data was repeatedly reviewed to sort information into meaningful categories and to distill and construct major themes. Information was triangulated to double-check the interpretation of the data and to ensure validity. Analyzing students' writing samples helped me to assess any improvements in writing and to understand what each student was learning.

Table 15.1 Coding themes from different data sources

Research Questions			
Data Collection Tools	Model	Benefits	Challenges
Reflections	• Characteristics of portfolios	• Improvement in writing skills	• Students not submitting the portfolios on time
Students' portfolios		• Improvement in writing skills • Fostering students' creativity	• Students not maintaining the portfolio in the right order
Focus group discussion		• Improvement in writing skills • Clear means of monitoring progress • Fostering students' creativity	• Students' views about not submitting the portfolios on time • Students' concerns regarding the revision and incorporating feedback
Exit slips		• Improvement in writing skills	
Field notes			• Views of other teachers about students' work ethics
Lesson plans and resources	• Helping students organize portfolios • Lack of focus on presentation of work from the point of view of creativity		
Other documents	• Students' preference for group work		• Poor rate of submission of students' portfolios

Findings

The Reconnaissance Stage

This stage included conversations with teachers, a pre-course questionnaire for needs analysis and a writing task that was administered to students. The needs analysis findings revealed that all students participating in this study recognized the importance of developing writing skills and were ready to put in the effort required in maintaining portfolios. When asked about what they intended to achieve at the end of the course, most students stated that they wanted to:

- write better in non-academic contexts,
- become better English teachers,
- improve their general proficiency.

In the writing task aimed at assessing students' current writing abilities, they demonstrated lack of awareness of paragraph organization and took quite a bit of time to compose a single paragraph, which indicated lack of fluency in writing. It also emerged that students who participated in my study had received no previous instruction in reflective writing and had no prior experience in using portfolios.

Portfolio Analysis from the Intervention Stage

The goal of portfolio incorporation was set to improve students' writing skills through a process writing approach. Hence, a process portfolio was selected (Jones, 2012; Lombardi, 2008; McDonald, 2012), which included only those pieces of writing that reflected how students were acquiring and consolidating their writing skills.

The three key characteristics of the portfolio as identified by (Paulson et al. as cited in Duong et al., 2011) are:

i. Collection, which refers to the content of the portfolios, the individual entries contributed by the students gathered in one place, which can be a file or a folder for a paper portfolio (which was the case in the present study) or an online portal in case of an e-portfolio.
ii. Selection, which refers to the process of students identifying topics of choice to write a paragraph on.
iii. Reflection, which 'helps students to combine experience and knowledge together to produce new learning' (Kathpalia & Heah, 2008: 301). Given the professional value placed on reflective writing, students were assigned two reflective writing tasks along with specific instructions on how to approach the assignments.

Table 15.2 gives an overview of the tasks included in the writing portfolio. These were selected as the course progressed.

These tasks reflected how students comprehended the course content and what areas needed greater focus during teaching. I deliberately included a small number of tasks in order to limit my workload. Due to time constraints associated with this study, I could only cover argumentative paragraph writing. In tasks 3 and 4 (as indicated in Table 15.2), students were asked to include brainstorming, the first draft, and the final draft as evidence of having employed the process writing approach. I also felt that any plagiarism in the final draft could easily be detected by comparing the different stages of development of the final written piece.

Table 15.2 Portfolio contents

S. No.	Task	Description	Submission
1.	Letter of introduction	A biographical writing piece giving a brief introduction of the student in terms of their educational background, family and personality to set students' work in the context of their past academic experiences	First
2.	Reflective essay on the writing process	A metacognitive reflection giving students' understanding of the writing process and the change they have noticed in their way of attempting academic writing tasks	
3.	Paragraph on Facebook	A paragraph demonstrating a satisfactory level of achievement on the rubric	
4.	Argumentative paragraph	A paragraph demonstrating the characteristics of argumentative writing	Second
5.	Rationale for selection of task	A brief reflective piece mentioning one task in the portfolio that the learner liked best giving reasons for their choice and suggesting ways of further improving it	Third

Establishing Assessment Criteria

I devised scoring criteria mainly dealing with the organization of portfolio work instead of a rubric (see Table 15.3) to evaluate the overall portfolio.

Students' work was marked based on a comparative analysis of their performance. For example, since Farzana submitted her portfolio all three times, her work was marked as outstanding. In contrast, Rozina could only submit her work once—her portfolio lacked one entry and was not in the prescribed order. Therefore, her portfolio was marked as fair.

Table 15.3 Portfolio scoring criteria

Criteria	Outstanding	Good	Fair	Poor
Overall portfolio is neatly organized				
All the tasks are submitted				
Appropriate rationale for selection of tasks				
Carries table of contents				
Letter of introduction by the learner				

The components of self- and peer-assessment of individual work were built-in within the tasks. However, the portfolio scoring criteria did not effectively meet the requirements of the portfolio as is documented in my reflection (see excerpt below).

> 'Regarding the scoring criteria of portfolios… I see some problems with it, now that I am checking the portfolios … One, there are some elements in it which I think could be simply 'yes' and 'no' things, e.g., 'All the tasks are submitted' ... Two, it could have a 'Revise work' column, where I could write which task the student has to re-write, since portfolios were supposed to be formative assessment. Three, it could also have a 'Suggestions' or an 'Overall Comment' column ... Four, it didn't need to have 'Appropriate rationale' criteria. This and 'Letter of introduction by the learner' were tasks inside the portfolio and it seems inconsistent to assess only two tasks inside the portfolio like this and not others. For other tasks (like paragraphs and reflective pieces) I am following separate rubrics. Still, I wasn't sure whether I should have a new grid for the third submission or keep the old one for consistency's sake. I decided to stay with this one ...' (*Reflection, February 21, 2014*).

Students generally found the scoring criteria useful in compiling their portfolios. However, they did not feel the same way about the rubrics applied to individual tasks. There was little evidence of students following it, and this seemed so mainly because they were unaccustomed to using them. For example, in the rubric for Tasks 2 and 5, they were not familiar with 'stylistically sophisticated language'. This highlighted the need for orienting students to the appropriate use of rubrics and self-evaluation (Andrade et al., 2010; Farooq, 2013; Rahimi, 2013).

There is also the need to avoid 'inappropriate borrowing' of language from rubrics so that students can understand the language used. Terms such as 'exhibiting', 'hinder' or 'notable' might be complicated for students to understand. This calls for improving on the current standards for evaluating portfolios (in addition to the traditional paper and file format).

Teacher Feedback and Revision

The formative function of the portfolio revolved around feedback and revision. Figure 15.3 indicates how this feedback mechanism worked systematically.

Individual feedback was given through students' portfolio work and collective feedback was provided through PowerPoint presentations, explaining major shortcomings such as misunderstanding the task or poor organization of the portfolio. Both formal and global aspects of writing were focused upon. I tried to engage with students' work as much as possible, and to help them realize that writing was a recursive process.

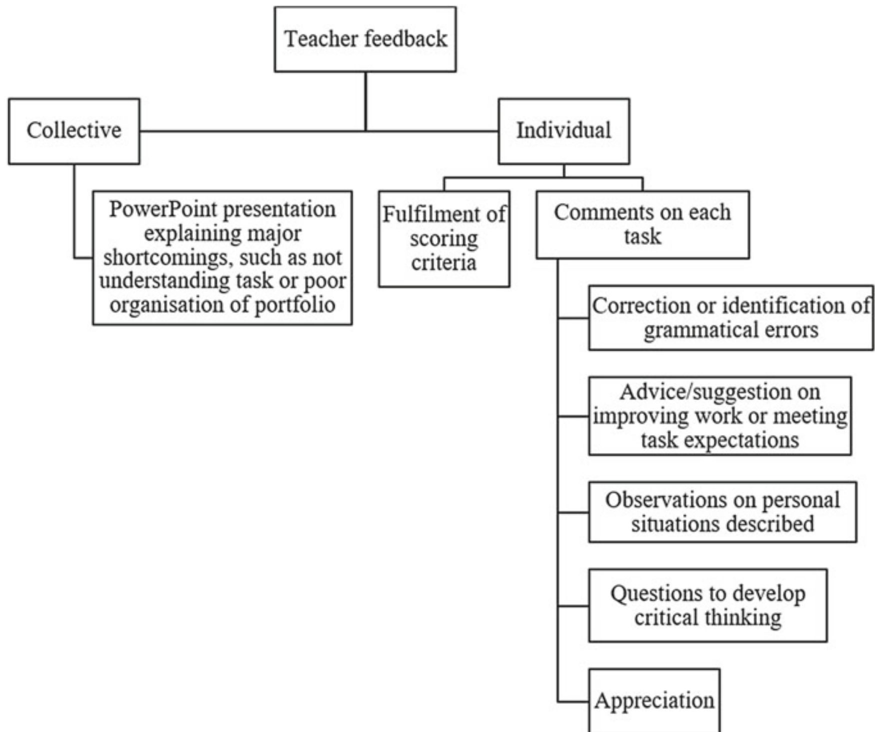


Fig. 15.3 Teacher feedback on portfolios

Perceived Benefits of Using Portfolios

Improvement in Writing Skills

Most students perceived the use of portfolios as beneficial in developing writing skills and showed marked improvement in four areas: organizing of ideas, writing simple and clear sentences, providing evidence for arguments, and awareness of metacognitive strategies. It was evident from their work that they were able to achieve the course objectives. For example, Saad's performance on Task 5 (Fig. 15.4) captured his understanding of what 'good writing' actually entailed.

Saad understood that logical progression of ideas (what he termed 'sequential writing') was an important characteristic of good writing. He also realized that writing 'simple and clear sentences' made it easier for the readers to understand the main idea. This understanding was evident in his writing too. He also provided a word count since this task carried a word limit, which suggested that he was now aware of the importance of meeting task requirements. All this demonstrated his metacognitive abilities.

Favorite piece of writing: The piece of writing I liked most is "Letter to Introduction". My reason for liking this piece of writing is that I find it quite a sequential writing such as it starts with little bit of my family background, my personal introduction and then it ends with what I am today as a grown man. It provides the readers with clear understanding of me.

Source of developing my writing skills: It is a famous phrase, "practice makes man perfect". My understanding of this phrase is that when we practicing anything makes us skillful. Similarly, after having attended some sessions on writing skills at Notre Dame Institute of Education I developed my skill of writing. It gave me sense how a good piece of writing is formed. After having practiced the writing skills, I wrote a letter to self-introduction which was first task on my writing skills. In short I would say that this writing of mine was in simple and clear sentences, explored the topic in details and to some extent it was organized well.

How to improve? There is always space for improvement in any area of life. I see that this piece of writing could have been improved in better way such as practicing more on writing skills and concentrating more on developing my grammar skills. Generating clear and meaningful sentences is also a skill which can be improved more with practice. In short, I would say that by writing more on different topics the skills of writing can be improved more.

Total Words: 266

Fig. 15.4 Saad's task 5

Role of Teacher's Feedback

Students found my feedback very helpful in revising their work, and their writing in turn helped me identify their learning needs. For instance, when I observed that students were having difficulty in comprehending task aims even after submitting tasks a second time (Task 2, Table 15.3), I provided them with a classmate's essay as a sample to help them. I also gave them a rubric for reflective writing. Overall, their work helped me ascertain the effectiveness of my previous instruction and guided my future instruction.

Focus on Critical Thinking Rather Than Content Knowledge

Having no exams at the end of the course allowed students to focus freely on skills development. Saad noted that a portfolio 'requires lot of thinking and reflection based on collections, so it develops our … thinking level' (FGD, February 28, 2014), thus suggesting that portfolios assess overall critical thinking skills and not content knowledge.

Fostering Students' Creativity

I left it up to the students to decide how to display work in their portfolios and was surprised to find colored or decorated pages inside which allowed them to be creative. Ahmed noted that one of his peers developed interest in portfolios only after she saw his decorated portfolio, especially since she was keen on arts and crafts (FGD, February 28, 2014). Hence, portfolios allowed students to be creative and thereby become more interested and motivated in their work. Another observation is that the use of portfolios encompassed different learning styles of individual students which is believed to help them become more effective learners and facilitate the activation of a learner-centered philosophy (Bedir & Onkuzu, 2014).

Discussion and Conclusion

Model of the Portfolio

I adopted the principle of maximum flexibility in my portfolio model, particularly because this was formative assessment. Figure 15.5 depicts how I developed a model that firmly revolved around a context that embraced the different facets of the teaching–learning process; students' backgrounds and needs; and my own knowledge and abilities as a teacher and researcher. This model was thus informed by research and depicts how portfolios provide authentic assessment.

Van Tartwijk et al. (2007) assert that there needs to be alignment between the purpose of using a portfolio, the portfolio content and structure, as well as the educational context in which the portfolio is used. They believe that these factors are important in successfully implementing portfolios. I attempted to use a model that served the needs of the context in which the research was conducted. It is imperative to note that on several occasions my personal beliefs, ways of working, knowledge and understanding of portfolios, and my assumptions about the students who participated in the study influenced the entire process. This emphasizes the need for teachers to possess the requisite professional skills and knowledge, particularly the skill of systematic documentation and the ability to create their own model of portfolios (Chen & Cheng, 2011).

In addition to these factors, I would briefly discuss two major areas of improvement in the portfolio model used in this study.

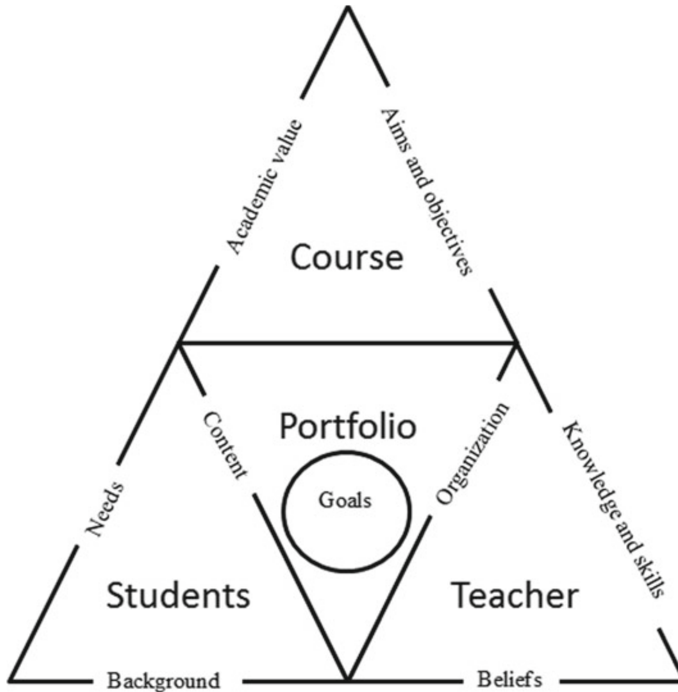


Fig. 15.5 Conceptualisation of the model of portfolio development

Question of Student Autonomy

The characteristic of 'selection' in my portfolio model was two-fold: (a) students would choose a topic of their own to write a paragraph on, and (b) I would select the tasks that students would complete for the portfolio.

Initially, it was not possible for me to cover a range of course content areas with students that might have given them enough options to select from. Since most of the students did not have prior experience in using portfolios, I felt I was already introducing a big change and, therefore, wanted to attempt it in smaller phases that students could handle and also experience a sense of achievement. It is also possible that since students had a low level of proficiency, they may have struggled with task/topic selection at a time when they were already struggling with maintaining their portfolios in the right order. I wanted them to instead focus more on revising their work and, thereby, enhancing their writing skills. This, however, raises questions about student autonomy. Selecting their own work allows students to actively engage in their learning, develop critical thinking skills, and have an opportunity to self-assess their work (Jones, 2012). This also raises the question of how much decision-making can be allowed to students keeping in mind their limited experience of using portfolios. Both these questions linger.

Overall, this finding highlights the need to take a closer look at the characteristic of 'selection' in portfolios, and the associated difficulty of applying theoretical concepts in actual practice. Lo (2010: 79) also concludes that 'Asian contexts might… present challenges for teachers attempting to use portfolios to promote autonomous language learning'. The reasons for this are both cultural and environmental, since in these contexts teachers are considered as figures of authority and students generally exercise little autonomy as learners. Hence, it was a challenge for me to strike a balance between the given reality and my intentions of what I wanted to do.

Judging Performance in a Formative Context

There is a need to improve the scoring criteria used in portfolio assessment. In her model, Bahous (2008) assessed individual tasks first and then the overall portfolio. This distinction should be maintained. Researchers also emphasize that students should be involved in selecting the criteria for portfolio evaluation (Lynch & Shaw, 2005; McDonald, 2012; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). The model implemented in this study did not engage students in the process; hence, there is an opportunity to explore this aspect in future research in the context.

Perceived Benefits of Portfolios

Findings from this study add to the current body of literature which suggests that portfolios improve the writing skills of ESL/EFL students (Bahous, 2008; Farooq, 2013; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007; Tabatabaei & Assefi, 2012). This improvement was mainly due to the constant revision that students were required to do along with the feedback that was provided. Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) believe that feedback interacts with motivation and beliefs. Providing a model of good writing also helped students in producing better-quality work, which is in line with previous findings (Andrade et al., 2010).

Perceived benefits associated with the use of portfolios that existing research has established were evident in this study. This includes focusing on critical thinking skills rather than reproducing content knowledge (Gillett & Hammond, 2009; Webber & Tschepikow, 2013), fostering students' creativity (Bahous, 2008; McDonald, 2012), and developing metacognitive skills (Kathpalia & Heah, 2008; McDonald, 2012). These benefits are quite unique to portfolios and are rarely found in traditional assessment (Sahakian, 2009). Hence, the study validates the view that alternative assessment practices can help fill the gap created by traditional assessments that emphasize content knowledge (Shamim, 2011). In this way, this research study adds to the current literature on the benefits of portfolios.

Recommendations

Currently, many questions are raised over the quality of English language instruction imparted at the higher education level (Iqbal et al., 2009) which raises the need for policy makers to focus on keeping teachers up-to-date with innovative assessment tools, in order to improve their assessment practices and to improve the quality of teaching and learning (Shamatov, 2007). Such capacity building exercises must tap into the potential of action research (Halai, 2012). Policymakers must also take steps to encourage portfolio assessment in particular and alternative assessment in general to dilute the impact of an exam-oriented culture.

Teachers need to be aware of their context, both in terms of course requirements, and the background and writing needs of their learners because interventions 'which are based on analysis of the knowledge, experience and needs of UUTs (untrained or undertrained teachers) in the contexts in which they work are more likely to result in positive outcomes' (Orr et al., 2013: 6). Moreover, teachers must bring a great deal of knowledge and analytic ability to the task of implementing portfolios (Chen & Cheng, 2011). Students should believe in the intrinsic value of education, rather than focus on getting good grades alone. At the higher education level, they should learn to self-regulate their learning, which requires discipline and self-motivation.

Conclusion

This action research study was aimed at examining the use of a context-specific portfolio model for formative assessment in a non-credit remedial writing skills' course at a private higher education institute in Karachi. It investigated the perceived benefits and the challenges experienced by students and the teacher-researcher involved in this process. This model was developed considering the aims, objectives, and academic worth of the course; students' background and needs; and my own knowledge and abilities as a teacher-researcher. Findings revealed that portfolios largely achieved their goal of improving students' writing skills, specifically, in terms of organizing ideas, writing simple and clear sentences, providing evidence for arguments, and developing metacognitive skills. In addition, portfolios allowed students to focus on their critical thinking skills rather than content knowledge, and fostered students' creativity. Hence, this study adds to the current body of literature on the benefits of portfolios. Some suggestions have been offered for improving the model of portfolio presented in this study along with implications for English language teachers in higher education to implement this assessment tool by contextualizing it in their local settings.

Appendix A: Needs Analysis Questionnaire

Name: ________________________________.

1. How long have you been learning English? (number of years).
2. Do you speak English outside the class? If yes, list all places.
3. How do you rate your writing abilities? ☐Very well ☐ Well ☐ Fair ☐ Not very well.
4. Do you find it important to learn to write well in English? ☐Yes ☐ No.
5. Do you keep a journal or a diary?☐Yes☐ No.
6. Do you enjoy writing? ☐Yes☐ No.
7. How difficult do you find the following areas of writing?
   (a) Vocabulary ☐ Very difficult ☐ Ok ☐ Easy
   (b) Style ☐ Very difficult ☐ Ok ☐ Easy
   (c) Spelling ☐ Very difficult ☐ Ok ☐ Easy
   (d) Grammar ☐ Very difficult ☐ Ok ☐ Easy
   (e) Punctuation ☐ Very difficult ☐ Ok ☐ Easy
   (f) Generating ideas ☐ Very difficult ☐ Ok ☐ Easy
   (g) Organizing ideas ☐ Very difficult ☐ Ok ☐ Easy
8. How would you like to learn English in this course? Rank your choices from 1 (most important) to 3 (least important)
   (a) in groups
   (b) by reading
   (c) thinking by myself
   (d) being told by the teacher
   (e) by rote
9. What do you wish to be able to do after finishing this course on writing skills?

Appendix B: Writing Task

Writing Task

What is the one thing you are good at?

Write a response of 200-250 words in the space provided below.

You have 25 minutes for this task.

I'm good at winning heart & dancing
I like to do dancing & its forms jazz,
Samba, rumba, Salsa, contempery, belly,
I know all forms, since my childhood
I used to do dance in any function.
I did practise, so its increasing interest
in my self that practise makes prefect.
But I'm not prefect, But have much knowledge
to relate it. & I think its also exercise, its
makes fit. after dancing I feel relax,
through dance I can make others feel
good, I entertain them to make them fresh
what ever they are going through,
In the end, I would like to conclude
that whenever you dance donot feel
shy its releif you tention, & gives you
relaxation.

Appendix C

Post-Intervention Semi-Structured Focus Group Discussion with the Students' Guide

Your detailed feedback about your experiences of using portfolios will help me to make changes (if needed) for implementing this approach in the future.

1. Please state your name.
2. Did you have any prior experience of using portfolios? What did it involve? Did it involve merely putting all entries together in a file/folder? If yes, then do you now view portfolios differently? Or did your experience of portfolios lead you to dismiss this intervention because of perhaps not having a deeper understanding of the purpose behind portfolios other than an added task for you?
3. How did you feel when you were told that you will be assessed through portfolios?
4. How do you feel now about using portfolios? Have your feelings changed?
5. What were some of the challenges you faced when working on your portfolios? Can you give specific examples? [provide counter-examples]
6. Many of you did not meet the portfolio submission deadline. Why do you think that was so? Were you not interested in portfolios? Or not motivated to use them? Did you feel it did not help to develop your writing skills? Can you share specific examples of feedback that helped you?
7. How did the teacher's feedback on portfolios help you develop your writing skills?
8. There were some occasions where I felt that some of you had trouble following my instructions, e.g., when I gave you deadlines, some of you didn't understand those deadlines, why was this confusion? How could it be addressed?
9. I felt that some of you left things till the last minute and that is why you couldn't meet the deadline. Was that the case? Why?
10. How did not having a regular teacher hinder you? Why wasn't email beneficial?
11. If you have to pick portfolios or exams which one will you choose and why?
12. What were some of the advantages you think portfolios had for you in developing your writing skills?
13. Do you think portfolios helped you in terms of improving your writing skills? Can you share any anecdotes or specific instances / examples?

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Part VI
Contextual Pedagogy and Methodology

Chapter 16
English Language Learning Strategies in Higher Secondary Education

Asma Shahid Kazi, Hafiz Muhammad Iqbal, and Shagufta Moghal

Abstract The importance of English in the educational system of Pakistan, both as a medium of instruction and the language of the Internet, is undeniable. Being a second or foreign language for the people of Pakistan in different contexts, it is imperative for students to be aware of the various language learning strategies (LLS), both inside the classroom and outside it. While extensive research has been conducted internationally regarding the use and awareness of second language learning strategies, there is little evidence of such research in Pakistan. This chapter will provide an overview of the use of English LLS in the Pakistani higher secondary school context, as investigated through a series of studies carried out from 2010 to 2017. Metacognitive, cognitive, and social affective LLS will be explored and analyzed for similarities and differences among higher secondary (matriculation) students of commerce, sciences, and humanities. Learner variables that influence the frequency, choice, and mastery of LLS, such as age, gender, grade level, choice of academic major, public or private sector schooling, learner mother tongue, years of formally learning English at school, learners' medium of instruction at the secondary or matriculation level, and exposure to English outside the classroom are among the factors covered in this chapter. An understanding of learners' preferred LLS will inform curriculum designers and teachers about how to improve English language learning at the higher secondary level in Pakistan.

Keywords Language learning strategies · Learner variables · Second language learning strategies

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Background

English language occupies a very important place in the Pakistani education system. It is the medium of instruction (MOI) not only in elite private schools but in various other categories of schools being run under the state's patronage (Rahman, 2001). Commenting on the status and elitist nature of English in the Pakistani society, Baumgardner (1993, as cited in Ghani et al., 2008: 3) states, 'English in Pakistan is used as an official and second language. It is spoken and used by a relatively small but extremely influential portion of the country's population in the domain of government administration, law, the military, the higher education, commerce and mass media'. English language has thus gained a special status among the privileged classes and ruling elite which has resulted in the establishment of two parallel systems of contemporary education in the country (Rahman, 2004); one for the elite and the other for lower classes. These are in addition to the third prevalent system of education, that is, the 'madrassahs', which offer free of charge religious/Islamic education (Coleman, 2010). The impact of these multiple systems of education is documented in 'Vision 2030' (Government of Pakistan, 2007), as follows:

> The second reality is the divide between the prevalent school structure and differences in levels of infrastructure and facilities, media of instruction, emolument of teachers, and even examination systems between public and private sectors. The rich send their children to private run English medium schools which offer foreign curricula and examination systems; the public schools enrol those who are too poor to do so (Government of Pakistan, 2007: 74).

The Education Policy of 2009 observes that this divide has resulted in social stratification between the elite and the non-elite thereby leaving fewer employment opportunities for the latter, as such opportunities are associated with proficiency in the English language (Government of Pakistan, 2009). To minimize the gap between the two systems and to enhance employment opportunities for students graduating from public schools, the government decided to provide them with opportunities for developing English language skills. Hence, the Education policy of 2009 (Government of Pakistan, 2009), recommends that English language learning opportunities would not be restricted to the elite only; instead, the curriculum from grade one onwards is to include English as a subject for all children, including those studying in public schools.

English Language Capabilities of Pakistani Learners

Despite being a mandatory subject to study in primary school and despite being linked to increased employment opportunities, the performance and proficiency of students at all levels remain far from satisfactory. While they may perform well in other subjects, students are likely to fail or perform poorly in the compulsory English language component in their higher secondary years (matriculation), intermediate

and graduation examinations. Consequently, they either must repeat a year, or miss out on their choice of career options.

In addition to that, the state of English language teaching (ELT) is substandard and insufficient to meet language learning needs of these learners. For most teachers, the preferred method of teaching a foreign language is through grammar translation (Warsi, 2004). Students are expected to memorize vocabulary and to translate text from Urdu to English or vice versa.

Among other causes that Warsi (2004) lists as leading to ineffective teaching of the English language are vague curricular objectives, inexperienced/untrained teachers, faulty textbooks, insufficient language teaching aids, and teaching materials. Non-availability of professionally trained or certified language teachers further aggravates the situation. A cumulative effect of all these factors is likely to be learners becoming passive and using the least effective strategies in learning the language.

Conceptualizing Language Learning Strategies

Language Learning Strategies (LLS) are viewed by Chamot (2005: 112) as 'procedures that facilitate a learning task'. According to Scarcella and Oxford (1992, as cited in Oxford, 2003), LLS are 'specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques—such as seeking out conversation partners or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task—used by students to enhance their own learning'. Similarly, O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 1) describe LLS as 'the particular thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information'.

For a strategy to be useful, it should relate to the task undertaken, be compatible with the learning style of the user, and work in cohesion with other related strategies (Oxford, 2003). Fulfilling these conditions makes learning 'easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations' (Oxford, 1990: 8). It is understood that LLS are affected by learning style, gender, nationality, age, and learner beliefs among others, and are essential for effective communication.

Initial work on LLS strategies sparked a great deal of interest in the field of second language learning and many taxonomies of language learning followed suit. Behaviors and actions have been classified by researchers such as Rubin (1981, as cited in Oxford, 1992), Bialystok (1978, as cited in Lan, 2005), and Oxford (1990) under many different taxonomies.

One of the earliest and most comprehensive research studies on second language learning was conducted by O' Malley et al. (1985) who identified twenty-six LLS. This study had a descriptive as well as a training component and was distinct from previous work in the field as it classified LLS under cognitive, metacognitive, and social affective categories. Studies prior to this had been conducted in de-contextualized settings. In later research, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) investigated and found additional ten strategies used by native English speakers who were engaged in learning other foreign languages. Table 16.1 depicts O'Malley and

Table 16.1 Learning Strategies identified by O' Malley & Chamot, (1990: 137–139)

A. **Metacognitive Strategies** involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned. These include: • planning • directed attention • selective attention • self-management • self-monitoring • problem identification • self-evaluation	B. **Cognitive Strategies** involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task. These include: • repetition • resourcing • grouping • note taking • deduction/induction • substitution • elaboration • summarizing • translation • transfer • inferencing
C. Social and Affective Strategies involve interacting with another person to assist learning or using affective control to assist a learning task. These include: • questioning for clarification • cooperation • self-talk • self-reinforcement	

Chamot's (1990) classification of LLS.

O' Malley and Chamot (1990) consider second language as a complex cognitive skill that requires continuous research on ways of improving second language learning ability, as well as the development and use of LLS in language instruction. Many variables affect the choice of LLS among language learners. Ehrman et al. (2003: 313) emphasize that language learning is influenced by learner differences, which they broadly classify as 'learning styles, learning strategies and affective variables'. Other areas of individual differences identified by them are age, gender, culture, learning aptitude, and other demographic variables.

Sadeghi et al. (2014) view approaches to language learning as being defined by corresponding paradigms in psychology, sociology, and linguistics. More recent and alternative approaches place learners in a more central, active, and creative role, with acknowledgement of diverse needs and capabilities. Teachers are considered as facilitators, counselors, and needs analysts. Tseng et al. (2006: 78) believe that 'learners with strategic knowledge of language learning, compared with those without, become more efficient, resourceful, and flexible, thus acquiring a language more easily'. Chamot (2004, as cited in Balci, 2017) explicates 'strategic learners' as possessing the metacognitive knowledge about their individual learning processes and strengths, which entails the ability to use strategies properly and in a timely manner.

Research on English LLS in Pakistan

The descriptive research in this chapter investigates the use of LLS employed by students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) studying in public and private institutions within the Pakistani city of Lahore. The focus is on higher secondary students with the aim to examine variables that influence their choice/implementation of LLS in learning EFL. Amongst the variables examined are the following:

- gender
- year of study
- time spent on learning English outside of class
- medium of instruction in matriculation

A sample of 3000 higher secondary students was identified from both public and private schools in Lahore through multistage sampling. This was achieved using the following two questionnaires:

- the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ)
- the Language Learning Strategies Inventory (LLSI)

The IBQ, adapted from Hong (2006) and Pawapatcharaudom (2007), was used to gain information about participants' demographic background. The LLSI was originally developed by Chamot (1987); however, this research employed a version of the questionnaire adapted from Liyanage (2004).

The questionnaires were translated into Urdu prior to simultaneously administering both the English and Urdu versions to student participants. Different statistical procedures were then carried out to analyze and interpret the results. It must be acknowledged that the results of this study cannot be generalized beyond the higher secondary classes representing the public and private schools in the city of Lahore, Pakistan.

Strategies Used by Pakistani Students: Research Findings

It was discovered that both public and private sector students employed a variety of LLS, mostly metacognitive, followed by cognitive and social affective strategies. Other studies in EFL contexts (Aliakbari & Hayatzadah, 2008; Aziz & Shah, 2017; Hong, 2006; Riazi & Rahimi, 2005; Shmais, 2003) also report similar findings about the use of metacognitive strategies.

Metacognitive Strategies

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define these as strategies that involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned. These include:

- planning
- directed attention
- selective attention
- self-management
- self-monitoring
- problem identification
- self-evaluation

The following metacognitive strategies emerged to be in use by both public and private sector higher secondary students in Lahore.

Directed Attention

Students from public sector schools reported using this LLS which implies selectively listening to what the teacher talks about in general rather than to specific words and details. Using this strategy indicates learners' lack of proficiency in the language and a mechanism to cope with their inadequacies by ignoring what they perceived to be irrelevant distractions.

Selective Attention

This was reported as the most highly used LLS where students listen for words or phrases that they already know in order to help them understand what is going on in each conversation. The use of selective attention reflects the typical method of teaching in Pakistan where students are not proficient in the language and must rely on guessing in order to understand what is being said in English. It is also indicative of the fact that students in Pakistan generally have few opportunities of listening to English being spoken in their school environment where teachers use translation and the vernacular language to teach in English language classes.

Self-Management

This emerged as the most preferred LLS in use by private sector students. Using this technique learners try to answer all questions mentally even when the teacher is addressing someone else. High preference for this strategy demonstrates learners' keen interest in actively learning and improving their language skills.

Self-Monitoring

Learners preferred to listen carefully to themselves while speaking and then correcting themselves when they made a mistake. It is interesting to note that although students reported being unaware of mistakes made whilst speaking, yet they made a conscious effort to correct themselves through self-monitoring. This shows that they were keen to learn the language and overcome their shortcomings.

Problem Identification

Almost half of the student population that participated in this research appeared to be generally unaware of any mistakes that they made while speaking in English, thus showcasing lack of proficiency and insufficient knowledge about the use of English language.

Self-Evaluation

This emerged to be another highly used LLS using which learners carefully read what they had written in order to ensure that no mistakes were made. This again reflects the product-based nature of teaching, where emphasis is on correct work along with high expectations of teachers from their pupils.

A significant percentage of higher secondary students from both the public as well as private sector schools reported that they did not volunteer to answer the questions asked by their respective teachers in class so that they could avoid practising the use of English in class. This implies a lack of confidence in speaking out aloud in the presence of teachers and classmates. They may know the right answer yet choose not to speak.

Cognitive Strategies

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) identify cognitive LLS as strategies that involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task. These include:

- repetition
- resourcing
- grouping
- note taking
- deduction/induction
- substitution
- elaboration

- summarizing
- translation
- transfer
- inferencing

While O'Malley and Chamot (1990) identify cognitive strategies as the most used and most preferred among language learners, it emerged that only some of these are preferred in the Pakistani context of higher secondary EFL learners.

Repetition

Using this LLS, learners attempt to copy or imitate the teacher's or speaker's pronunciation each time they hear new words. The auditory representation technique is commonly used by public sector students in Pakistan who learn and remember new words by listening and then by either playing these back in their minds or by repeating/imitating them. Owing to limited exposure to spoken English, they make a conscious effort to retain all what they hear in the target language. Since students in Pakistan have limited opportunities to listen for new words in English, they emulate their teachers to not only expand their vocabulary, but also to improve their pronunciation.

Another technique revolving around repetition is that of trying to remember the meaning of a new word by reading it repeatedly. This strategy is reflective of the traditionally teacher dominated teaching methodology prevalent in Pakistani schools where rote memorization by students is highly encouraged. Tseng (2005) reports a similar trend among Indian students who prefer memorization strategies. Arellano (2017) also reports that students in Hungary, Italy, and Spain who learn English as a Foreign Language in vocational studies prefer using memory strategies.

Resourcing and Note Taking

It is worth noting that cognitive strategies such as note taking and resourcing which entail listing new words that are heard or using a dictionary or other resource materials are amongst the least preferred/used LLS among public sector students and are held in medium preference by private sector students. This makes it clear that students in Pakistan are more comfortable in resorting to guessing word meanings rather than looking up words in a dictionary or consulting resource materials.

Inferencing

Interestingly, to some extent, private school students in Pakistan indicate a preference for inferencing, a cognitive strategy used when if they don't completely understand what the other person has said, they consider the words that were comprehensible and

try to guess what was said. However, this strategy ranks as the fourth most preferred among public sector students.

Imagery

One of the most frequently used strategies by private sector students is imagery, which is when students visualize what they read.

Translation

Public sector students prefer translation while speaking as they first think in Urdu of what is to be said before translating it into English as it is said. A stronger preference for this LLS is reflective of the fact that students in Pakistani public schools get insufficient speaking practice in their classes and therefore resort to translation techniques before speaking.

Cognitive strategies such as transferring, and inferencing are the least preferred among both public and private sector students. Students appear to not assume that a new English word which sounds like an Urdu word would also have a similar meaning. Similarly, they do not use their knowledge of prefixes and suffixes to guess unfamiliar words. A reason for the lack of use of suffixes and prefixes is that it is not taught in class in as much detail, and therefore students are not too familiar with their usage.

Social Affective Strategies

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define social affective strategies as LLS that involve interacting with another person to assist learning or using affective control to assist a learning task. These include:

- questioning for clarification
- cooperation
- self-talk
- self-reinforcement

Social affective strategies emerge as the least preferred and least in use by students of both public and private sector schools.

Questioning for Clarification

The use of questioning for clarification is most frequent among private sector students especially when they do not understand what is said by the teacher. At times students

also ask the speaker to either slow down their speech, or to simply state what is said in another way so that the meaning is clear.

Cooperation

This LLS involves asking a friend or peer to read over written work for help with language accuracy. Getting help from classmates is the most preferred among public sector students especially when they do not understand the teacher or what is said in class.

Often in higher education, public sector students tend to ask native speakers for help with explanation and the correct way to say things. It is indicative of their desire to be able to speak correctly and with accurate pronunciation because there is a lack of input in their classes at school.

Self-Talk

Private sector students demonstrated a preference for self-talk to reduce anxiety. For example, to prepare for a class presentation they mentally practice the talk before they actually do it. The use of this strategy also highlights the difference between the public and private sector, as students in the public sector are not given any practice in spoken tasks. However, since schooling is mostly exam oriented, little emphasis is placed on teaching areas that are not a requisite of the course examination.

Self-Reinforcement

This LLS involves engagement with a task prior to completion of an assigned reading and writing task. It appears to be the least preferred social affective strategy among public sector students as pre-teaching tasks are culturally uncommon for students in this region.

Riazi and Rahimi (2005) in their study on EFL learners in Iran also report that social strategies were amongst the least preferred by Iranian learners of English, whereas affective strategies were highly favored by them. They attribute less use of social strategies to the lack of opportunities to use the language and the lack of people who are proficient in the language. The reason why Pakistani students also report using questioning for clarification could be attributed to a similar learning environment. Hong (2006) also reported that students in ESL contexts demonstrate more use of social strategies, whereas EFL learners do not show a preference for these strategies.

Overall, participants in this study demonstrated a greater preference for metacognitive strategies which puts them in the category of higher-level language learners (O' Malley & Chamot, 1990). It is clear then that students with better language ability

tend to use metacognitive and cognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990) rather than social affective strategies.

Effects of Demographic Variables on the Use of LLS in Pakistan

The following demographic variables were investigated to identify their effect on the use of LLS among Pakistani higher secondary students in public and private schools:

- gender
- year of study
- time spent on learning English outside of class
- medium of instruction in matriculation

Gender

Research revealed that female students from both public and private sector schools in Pakistan demonstrate a greater use of LLS in comparison to male students at the same level. Similar results are echoed in other studies conducted in EFL contexts where researchers have reported greater use of LLS by female learners as compared to male learners (Chang et al., 2007; Ehrman & Oxford, 1988; Green & Oxford, 1995; Lee & Oxford, 2008; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Sheorey, 1999).

The Year of Study

Higher secondary study in Pakistan consists of two years. Findings from this study revealed that public sector students in the second year of their study demonstrated higher use of LLS as compared to first-year students. This is particularly indicative among students studying the arts (non-science) subjects and can be attributed to the fact that in the final year of higher secondary education students feel compelled to achieve grades that will help them secure admissions into degree programs. As a result, they apply increased LLS to perform better on their English language exams.

Time Spent on Studying English Outside the Class

A significant impact was revealed in terms of time spent on studying English outside school or class. This was evident among both private and public sector students. Students studying in the public sector who spent one to two hours studying English outside class hours demonstrated greater use of LLS, followed by those who spent approximately half an hour.

Among private sector students, significant differences were seen among students who spent one to two hours and two to three hours on learning English, with the latter demonstrating higher usage of LLS. This proves that additional time spent in understanding and improving the language outside of school hours results in increased use of LLS. This also indicates that students need to spend extra time on studying EFL not only to improve their language skills, but also to improve their grades in the final exams.

Medium of Instruction

An investigation into the effect of medium of instruction (MOI) on the use of LLS revealed a statistically significant difference between students educated in Urdu medium institutions and those educated in English during their higher secondary school years (matriculation level). Students from both public and private education sectors who had Urdu as the MOI during higher secondary years or at the matriculation level demonstrated more extensive use of LLS as compared to those who had English as the MOI.

A Comparison Between Public and Private Schools

This study reveals that students hailing from both the public and private sector schools in Pakistan use a variety of LLS while learning English. Of these the most preferred or more frequently used LLS are metacognitive strategies. Public sector students lack the resources due to which they have to make additional efforts to use and learn English. As a result, they demonstrate greater use of LLS as compared to private sector students.

Private schools and colleges charge a higher fee and claim to provide a better language input environment to their pupils, which is reflected in the comparatively less use of LLS among students than their public sector counterparts.

Although the participants of this study indicated the use of both metacognitive and cognitive strategies together, they did not report the frequent use of cognitive strategies such as note taking and analyzing. There appeared to be a greater preference among students for employing translation and repetition as cognitive LLS, and not so much preference for applying social affective LLS. This highlights the nature of language teaching in Pakistan where teaching methods are dated and increasingly dependent on the grammar translation method.

Liyanage (2004: 218) points out that in countries with a colonial past, where English is not the native language, English language teaching is 'product oriented, deductive, formal and teacher centered'. However, in native English-speaking countries, communicative language teaching methodologies are in practice and lead to higher use of social affective skills.

Implications

The socio-cultural implications of this study point to the fact that Pakistani EFL learners are different from other EFL learners around the world in that they have a unique background as compared to other Asian students in the neighboring countries. The use of LLS by students in schools situated in rural areas needs to be explored along with other factors that influence language learning.

Findings from this study imply that curriculum designers and EFL teacher educators need to keep in mind the heterogeneous, multilingual background of Pakistani learners and their respective school contexts while developing the curricula for learners and while providing professional development courses to EFL teachers.

A maximum number of students (70%) who participated in this study reported learning English as an important prerequisite for their future career. Thus, there is the need to focus on developing the academic skills of learners. To enhance the language skills of students, it is essential to understand learner motivation and the LLS that learners employ when developing teaching methodologies and the curriculum.

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Chapter 17
Mediated Learning in an Exam-Oriented Environment

Naziha Ali Raza

Abstract This study investigates the awareness and practice of mediated learning as reported by EFL teachers at a Pakistani high school in the UAE. It also reports the views of high school students on the importance of EFL teachers playing the role of mediators within the classroom as well as the actual practice of facilitated learning as experienced by students. Using mixed methodology (interviews and questionnaires), the views of 4 sections of grade 11 female students (16–18 years) were investigated and compared with those of 9 high school EFL teachers. The study is based on Feuerstein' 12 key aspects of mediation and their presence or absence in the EFL classroom as perceived by participants and with regard to the cultural context of the study. While results show some similarity between the importance given to mediation, there are differences between the actual practice of teachers as reported by students and the way in which teachers view their own practice.

Keywords Mediated learning · Pakistani high schools · Exam-focused learning · Mediation

Background

Though English is an important part of the curriculum in English medium Pakistani schools based in the UAE, it is not taught as a second language. Instead, it is a subject taught using English. A standard textbook prescribed by the Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (FBISE) is used to teach English. EFL teachers encourage students to memorize textbook content, grammar concepts, creative writing content, answers to reading comprehension, dialog writing and story writing content, and train them to reproduce it in exams. This teaching methodology inhibits 'experienced' EFL teachers from playing the role of facilitators as described by Feuerstein (1991) and they become 'one-way' direct transmitters of knowledge.

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Having taught in this context for a while, my experience is that such an environment produces 'text-dependent' learners who, though successful in their own system, lack exposure to interaction in the target language. This enormously impacts on the way learners at different levels view language learning. Concentrating on text retention for scoring in the external exam makes teachers devote teaching time to preparing students for examinations thus allowing little or no room for tasks that encourage authentic use of the language.

Based on the hypothesis that teachers in the context engage in little or no mediation and that there has been no investigation of this subject in Pakistani schools in the UAE, this study attempts to investigate the presence or absence of mediated language learning in a Pakistani high school in the UAE.

Perspectives on the Teaching–Learning Process

Social Interactionist Views

Cognitive psychologists emphasize the learner's active involvement in making sense of their language input and its impact on language teaching methodology. Humanistic approaches propagate the individual's search for personal meaning, and regard whole-person involvement in learning as important (Williams & Burden, 2007). Both perspectives are encompassed in the social interactionist framework that maintains children are born into a social world where they learn and make their own sense of the world through daily interactions with other people (Feuerstein, 1991). This underpins the communicative approach to language teaching and learning suggesting that language is learnt through meaningful interactions with other people (Williams & Burden, 2007).

Mediated Learning Experiences

Mediation is the part played by other significant people in the learners' lives, who enhance their learning by selecting and shaping the learning experiences presented to them (Feuerstein et al., 1980). These Mediated Learning Experiences (MLE) make learning more effective through meaningful social interaction with knowledgeable adults who scaffold learners beyond their capability (Gredler, 2009). This process of helping learners is called mediation while the next layer of knowledge, understanding, or skill that learners are scaffolded into is known as the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978 in Kozulin, 1998).

The principle of ZPD implies that when learners are 'stuck' at any stage in their learning, teachers can help or mediate by setting tasks that are at a level just beyond

that at which the learners are currently capable of functioning and teach principles that will enable them to take the next step unassisted (Williams & Burden, 2007).

Feuerstein (Blagg, 1991) believes that people continue to develop cognitively throughout their lives, and that anyone can become a fully effective learner since no one ever achieves the full extent of their learning potential. He argues that students fail in tests not because they are incapable of learning, but because they do not have the skills of how to learn, and it is the responsibility of educators to foster such knowledge (Williams & Burden, 1999). This highlights the role of teachers as mediators who can create meaningful interaction between learners and their environment, thereby enhancing their capacity to learn. The MLE is thus seen as offering a framework for interaction in which mediators and learners co-construct a ZPD (Miller, 2011).

Feuerstein developed the MLE theory in his work with intellectually challenged children some of whom could not benefit from direct exposure to stimuli and needed to ‘learn to learn’ via human mediation (Feuerstein et al, 1991). He also introduced the concept of ‘dynamic assessment’, an interactive process where the assessor and the assessed engage in dialogic interaction to find out the learner’s current level of performance on any task and then share possible ways to enhance that performance for subsequent learning (Williams & Burden, 2007).

This reorients assessors as mediators who are interested in the ‘process’ by which learners attempt to solve problems rather than in their ‘ability’ to obtain correct answers (Poehner & Infante, 2017). Their focus is on teaching appropriate learning strategies and observing how effectively and autonomously the learner can transfer these to other aspects of language learning. Thus, MLE is seen to form the basis for ongoing, individualized enrichment and continued targeting of specific abilities in need of development (Feuerstein et al., 2010).

Social Constructivist Views

There is considerable emphasis on the social context where learning occurs, created by ‘parents, teachers and significant adults’, and the significance of MLE where the teacher’s role is to help learners find ways of moving into their ZPD (Williams & Burden, 2007). While these theories predominantly portray the role played by powerful adults, it is equally important to see learners’ contribution as active participants in their MLE which makes it truly interactive.

Williams and Burden (2007) differentiate between the concept of teacher as mediator and teacher as a disseminator of information. The mediating teacher:

- empowers learners with knowledge, skills, and strategies they need to become autonomous.
- interacts with learners making them active participants in the learning process.
- reciprocates intentions between him/herself and learners.
- helps learners to interact with materials in various ways until they become truly self-directed.

Features of Mediation

Feuerstein identifies twelve features of mediation of which the first three (intentionality/reciprocity, transcendence and significance) are essential for all learning tasks to be considered mediated while the other nine are dependent on the situation and culture in which the learning takes place (Kozulin, 1998). These are as follows:

- Intentionality and reciprocity.
- Transcendence.
- Significance.
- Feeling of competence.
- Control of behavior.
- Sharing behavior.
- Individuality.
- Goal setting.
- Challenge.
- Awareness of change.
- Belief in optimistic alternatives.
- Feeling of belonging.

Learning and teaching are affected by cultural values and practices that are transmitted through mediation right from childhood. Hence, the lack of mediation on a socio-cultural plane is often associated with the breakdown of cultural transmission which according to Kozulin (1998) has a two-fold effect on children: deprivation from mediated learning devices that were part of traditional cultural rituals of their parents and abandoning of the role of mediators by parents because they consider the old culture irrelevant whereas the new culture has not yet been mastered.

Adapting to a new culture depends on the group's ability to preserve cultural transmission under the new conditions rather than on the distance between the original and the new culture (Feuerstein, 1991). Though the methods of transmission under the new culture might be different from those accepted in the original culture, it is important for the individual to experience cultural learning and strongly feel cultural identity. Each culture, says Kozulin (1998), has its own MLE-based system of transmission from generation to generation. People who receive adequate MLE in their native culture are expected to develop sufficient learning potential for a relatively eased transition into their new culture, whereas those deprived of MLE in their own culture manifest a reduced learning potential that makes their transition to the new culture and educational system difficult.

Educators must understand that learning in traditional societies occurs in frameworks that are different from those prevalent in modern industrial societies. Hence, the educational problems of learners from traditional societies who are being integrated into modern educational systems are often linked to the absence of their earlier experiences of formal learning. Collignon (1994) gives the example of adult female Hmong refugees in the United States who rejected learning in coeducational ESL classes because they could not conceive of a universal learning context suitable for men and women alike. They also preferred the same imitative type of learning

in ESL classes that corresponded to how they learnt to sew by imitating, copying, correcting mistakes, and copying again. While contemporary teachers viewed this as monotonous and time consuming, Hmong female learners' regarded repetition as a part of their well-developed functional system for learning. It reduced their initial cultural shock and displacement and, subsequently weaned them from traditional learning modes of dependency to autonomous learning (Collignon, 1994, as cited in Kozulin, 1998).

Teachers who have comprehensive familiarity of various social contexts that learners come from can be involved in real social interactionist settings where teachers, learners, tasks, and contexts experience interplay, and learning occurs through social interactions. Adherence to cultural sensitivity is thus important depending on the teaching–learning context.

As there is insufficient literature pertaining to the impact of culture on aspects of mediation in the researched context, I have attempted to describe each aspect (except for intentionality, significance and transcendence) in relation to the culture of Pakistani schools in the UAE based on my own experience of having worked there.

Intentionality and Reciprocity

For effective mediation to take place, teachers should be able to convey clear instructions which are understood and reciprocated by learners who are both willing and able to attempt the task. To develop autonomy, there must be some feedback of understanding from learners so that they approach the task in a focused and self-directed way in addition to teachers transforming any interactive activity to a purposeful one where learners understand that the objective of the learning activity is not the task but their own thinking (Kozulin, 1998).

Transcendence

Learners must be aware of the way in which a learning experience will be relevant to them beyond the immediate time and place. This means that teachers should be aware of and be able to explain to learners how a learning experience will be helpful in other situations. Blagg et al. (1988) suggest that teachers should provide examples in which rules extracted from abstract activities are applied to other problems and learning situations so that learners can make spontaneous generalizations of their own.

Significance

Teachers need to organize lessons where learners are aware of the reasons for something to happen or to be done (Feuerstein et al., 1991). It is the teacher's responsibility to endow learning experiences with purpose, relevance and excitement, whether this

means simply 'do this for me' or 'do this because it will help you…' (Blagg, 1991: 19). In doing so, teachers help learners perceive how the activity is of personal value to them.

Feeling of Competence

When teachers encourage a positive self-image, self-esteem, and self-confidence, learners are more likely to feel competent and capable of learning or tackling any task (Feuerstein, 1991). The absence of a realistically positive self-image might lead to underachieving learners who show erratic behavior in tackling tasks. Hence, for successful learning it is essential that teachers establish in their classrooms a climate where learner confidence is built up by making mistakes without fear and language is used without embarrassment, where all contributions are valued and activities lead to feelings of success, not failure (Williams & Burden, 2007).

Learners in some cultures feel challenged to succeed without the teacher's intervention, while in other cultures collective behavior and working cooperatively is highly valued irrespective of whether the task requires it or not. Pakistani schools in the UAE tend to encourage competition and students continually try to outdo each other in getting higher grades. Feuerstein (1991) advocates the need to mediate a feeling of competence since it helps learners adapt to new situations and readily accept new challenges.

Control of Behavior

Learners should be taught skills and strategies that enable them to take control and responsibility for their own learning. They should be able to break a problem down, gather and assess information, process it, and express results logically. This is particularly important in language classrooms where learners need to be taught strategies to learn languages on their own (Ellis, 1991).

Regulating behavior in the sense of inhibiting impulsiveness and taking initiative varies in different cultural environments. Whereas some cultures inculcate inhibition, delayed gratification, planning, and organization, others encourage responding to meaningful stimuli in an impulsive manner. Pakistani community schools in the UAE, for instance, encourage weak learners to solve multiple-choice questions through guess work rather than using logical strategies. Other contexts, however, train learners to control behavior and take charge of their own learning.

Sharing Behavior

Cooperation and sharing are an important part of social existence and are ways of interacting which need to be taught. However, in many classrooms, competition overtakes interaction which makes it imperative for teachers to prepare learners to contribute to a world where trust, mutual respect, and cooperation are upheld.

Smith et al. (1993) provide strong evidence that working in groups and pairs can be beneficial for all learners. Increased interaction in the target language through group activities such as discussion exercises, group writing, peer editing, and assessing each other in pairs helps to develop language and the ability to work alongside each other in the classroom.

Some cultures emphasize the need to share to an extremely intimate extent while others emphasize the right to total privacy to the extent, for instance, that one is not supposed to be seen when eating. There are instances in the researched context of teachers having to discuss poor performance with parents who in turn engage in extended family discussions to either seek advice or to share the misfortune of having a poorly performing child. Thus, sharing behavior is culturally bound even though it exists as an individual need at the very early stages of development.

Individuality

Learners need to value each other as individuals who develop at a different individual pace. Teachers can encourage this sense of individuality by helping learners develop and exercise their own personality and by making them aware of their own unique place in the learning community. This is possible through tasks that encourage learners to express their opinion using the target language, e.g., keeping a diary, creative writing, or class discussions. Awareness of and respect for the views of other learners is necessary for a smoothly experienced process of individuation. Once individuals are aware of differences between themselves, they can articulate views of self as related to the other.

Non-traditional cultures encourage free expression of opinions and desires to promote inner growth and the individual's self-concept. Any imposition is considered an infringement on individual rights, irrespective of whether the imposers are parents or the community in general. However, some cultures seldom appreciate free expression of opinions and desires. In the Pakistani educational culture, differences are evident between public schools that remain committed to the final word from the teacher and private schools that encourage learners to express opinions through activities such as discussions, creative writing, and journal keeping.

Goal Setting

Learners should be encouraged to set their own learning goals and plan how to achieve them. This will provide them with an aim, sense of direction and help avoid impulsive behavior. Often teachers set goals for learners and decide how and whether the learner has achieved them. Contrary to this, van Werkhoven's (1990) research reveals that learners who are helped with realistic ways of goal setting and achieving in any learning activity are more motivated to achieve these goals rather than the ones that are set for them by teachers. Goals could be long term, for example, 'How many English books can I read this term?' or short term, 'How many new words can I learn tonight?'.

Choosing a goal and planning how to achieve it involves sensitization to the cultural values of a group as well as the capacity of each individual in that group. Pakistani EFL teachers in my study lament the lack of time to 'indulge' in interesting activities like discussing goals with learners.

Challenge

Teachers should be able to provide learners with appropriate challenges by finding tasks which are sufficiently difficult as well as by helping them plan appropriate strategies to meet those challenges. This encourages learners to struggle with challenges and makes them feel that they can always go a step further rather than feeling that their limit has been reached. However, tasks should not be too difficult otherwise learners may become frustrated.

As Pakistani community schools in the UAE run a curriculum advocated by the FBISE in Pakistan, they tend to avoid engaging learners in additional challenges except for ones that prepare them to take the exit examination.

Awareness of Change

Often learners are evaluated on tasks set by teachers and progress is assessed through grades, test results, or verbal praise. However, to produce autonomous learners, it is equally important to foster in them the ability to 'recognize, monitor and assess changes in themselves as they learn' (Williams & Burden, 1993: 22 as cited in Warren, 1995). Identifying positive changes in learners sensitizes them to the active pursuit of development goals. These could be simple tasks such as asking learners to record words that they have learned during the week. When learners become adept at monitoring their own progress, they can recognize personal change as a continuous and lifelong process that is within their own reach.

Teachers need to identify ways in which learners can be helped to become aware of their own progress without requiring feedback from the teacher. However, if the educational aim is merely to finish the course (as is the case with the researched context), teachers might not invest time in teaching learners to become autonomous evaluators of their own progress or encourage activities that require regular feedback to help them understand the value of self-evaluation. For instance, one EFL teacher in my study asked her students to keep a record of the library books they read, and another asked her students to write a journal page daily, but neither had the time to track students' work or to give them feedback.

Belief in Optimistic Alternatives

Learners need to be encouraged to believe that every problem has a solution so that they learn to be persistent in seeking solutions rather than giving up (Warren, 1995).

This belief underpins Feuerstein's theory that, unless we begin with the belief that anyone can become a fully effective learner, no matter what their age or disability, we shall always be setting artificial barriers to learning (Feuerstein et al., 1991). So long as teachers uphold the optimistic belief that everyone can learn a foreign language no matter how difficult it appears to be for some learners, they will continue to look for ways of helping learners to see this (Williams & Burden, 2007). When learners know that something is possible, they become committed to searching for ways to materialize. In contrast, several EFL teachers in my study believed that slow learners were unlikely to ever progress and could only get through the examinations with the help of xeroxed notes to study from.

Feeling of Belonging

Learners need to feel that they belong to a community and teachers should encourage a sense of belonging to this community. However, this impetus must come not only from teachers but from learners as well, for instance, in class projects like designing a class newspaper where everyone contributes, and no one is left out.

Modern technological societies stress the individual's right to privacy that is seldom given up in order to become part of a larger entity. Other traditional societies readily make individuals give up much of their freedom and expression of individuality as the price for belonging to their reference group (Feuerstein et al., 1991). Pakistani educational institutions (including the community school in my study) encourage learning activities based on nationalism to create a sense of belonging among learners.

The ways in which people view different aspects of mediation are likely to vary within different cultural contexts. Once teachers become accustomed to mediation and their classroom cultures, they can find appropriate ways to mediate everything they do in class, and it will become an integral part of their daily work (Williams & Burden, 2007).

The Study

The study followed a mixed methodology approach using surveys and face-to-face interviews to investigate the following:

- High school EFL teachers' perceptions of the importance of mediation in learning.
- The extent to which they perceive that they practice any aspect of mediation.
- High school EFL students' perceptions of the importance of mediated learning.
- Their perceptions of the extent to which their teachers practice any aspect of mediation.

Participants

Four sections of grade 12 female students (n = 77) participated in piloting the student survey while four sections of grade 11 female students (n = 70) and nine EFL teachers participated in the actual study. All participants were affiliated with the same Pakistani school in the United Arab Emirates. All teachers were administered the teacher' survey while five of them were interviewed. Female students were chosen by convenience sampling since they were easily accessible to a female researcher. The school has segregated buildings for girls and boys where girls are taught by female teachers and boys are taught by male teachers only. At the time of this study, most schools in the UAE followed the same pattern as was required by the Ministry of Education.

Initially, the student survey was planned to be followed by focus group interviews with grade 11 students, but this procedure was discarded as students were busy with exit examinations at the time of the study. The teacher survey was administered simultaneously to four male and five female EFL teachers teaching both grades 11 and 12. Following this, face-to-face interviews were conducted with each of the five female teachers by prior appointment during their free hours at the workplace.

Research Instruments

The Williams and Burden mediation questionnaire (2007) based on Feuerstein's twelve key aspects of mediation was adapted and administered to students while teachers were administered the questionnaire as is (Appendix-I). Both surveys had three sections with 12 items each in both parts two and three as follows:

- Personal Information.
- Perceived importance of mediation.
- Actual practice of mediation.

Choices were given on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'very important' to 'not important at all' in part two, and from 'very often' to 'never' in part three. The teacher survey was piloted with colleagues and the student survey was piloted with grade 12 students to counter bias and for any subsequent editing. Interview questions were cross checked for leading questions with the help of colleagues. Since all teachers came from a bilingual background, they spoke in both English and Urdu during the interviews. I transcribed and translated the Urdu conversation to the best of my knowledge since I have advanced level proficiency in both languages. These were double checked with interviewees for inconsistencies.

Ethics and Limitations

Consent forms were signed assuring participants of anonymity and informing them about their role in the study. Interview transcripts and recordings were shared for review of sensitive information. In reporting results, participants were assigned assumed initials. Some limitations that arose in data collection include:

- The possibility of collecting data through student interviews was lost as students were in the middle of exit examinations.
- Classroom observations followed by teachers' evaluation of their practice would have provided valuable reflective feedback on classroom interactions and a comparison with interviews. However, this required additional time to train teachers to evaluate their practice with a focus on mediation.
- Including male students would have added a comparative dimension to the findings. However, that was not possible since the authorities felt uncomfortable in letting a female researcher work in the male wing of the school.

Findings

This section presents the findings from both the student and teacher surveys as well as the interviews.

Survey Findings

Both student and teacher surveys were analyzed based on the following:

Student survey	Teacher survey
Students' perceptions of the importance of mediation in the classroom	Teachers' perceptions of the importance of mediation in the classroom
Students' perceptions of the actual practice of mediation by their teachers	Actual practice of mediation by teachers

While student data was analyzed in percentages ($n = 70$), data collected from teachers was analyzed in actual numbers ($n = 9$). Findings of the pilot study with grade 12 students ($n = 77$) are excluded from this chapter.

Table 17.1 Part 2—Grade 11 students' (n = 70) perceptions of the importance of mediation in the classroom (Presented in percentages with some columns collapsed to appear as one. See Key)

ITEMS	VIP/QIP	N	NVIP/NIPAA	R
1. Share intention	94	5	0	1
2. Significance	76	19	5	0
3. Purpose beyond here and now	76	23	1	0
4. Feeling of competence	82	9	9	0
5. Control of own behavior	93	6	2	0
6. Goal setting and achieving	81	14	5	0
7. Challenges & strategies	76	11	12	1
8. Awareness of change	86	10	1	3
9. Belief in optimistic alternatives	87	6	4	3
10. Sharing	78	11	8	3
11. Individuality	83	10	3	4
12. Belonging	76	9	13	2

Key
VIP—Very Important
QIP—Quite Important
N—Neutral
NVIP—Not Very Important
NIPAA—Not Important at All
R—Redundant

Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Mediation in the Classroom

A very high percentage of students (94%) perceived 'sharing intention', as very important or quite important, followed by 'control of own behavior' (93%) and 'belief in optimistic alternatives' (87%) (Table 17.1).

As many as 13% of the students thought that mediating 'a sense of belonging' was unimportant, while 12% believed that mediation of 'challenge and strategies to tackle those challenges' was unimportant.

Students' Perceptions of the Actual Practice of Mediation by Their Teachers

A marked difference was evident between students' feelings of the importance of mediation and their perceptions of actual practice of mediation by teachers (Table 17.2).

While most students identified 'sharing intention' (94% vs. 57%), 'control of own behavior' (93% vs. 49%), and 'belief in optimistic alternatives' (87% vs. 49%), as very important or quite important aspects of mediation; the actual practice of these

Table 17.2 Part 3—Grade 11 students' (n = 70) perceptions of actual practice of mediation by their teachers (See Key)

ITEMS	VO/QO	S	HE/N	R
1. Share Intention	57	31	11	1
2. Significance	52	21	27	0
3. Purpose beyond here and now	34	29	35	2
4. Feeling of competence	45	27	28	0
5. Control of own behavior	49	14	37	0
6. Goal setting and achieving	34	27	38	1
7. Challenge and strategies	35	23	41	1
8. Awareness of change	40	26	33	1
9. Belief in optimistic alternatives	49	30	21	0
10. Sharing	59	26	15	0
11. Individuality	41	27	31	1
12. Belonging	63	20	16	1

Key
VO—Very Often
QO—Quite Often
S—Sometimes
HE—Hardly Ever
N—Never
R—Redundant

aspects by their teachers was perceived in significantly lower percentages. (See Table 17.3 for comparisons).

Instead, a significant 63% of the students believed that their teachers cultivated a 'sense of belonging' by making them feel part of the classroom community. This was followed by 59% of the students stating that their teachers mediated 'sharing' behavior in class, while only 57% felt that their teachers 'shared intentions' while administering a task. Comparatively, quite a few students felt that their teachers hardly ever or never encouraged them to 'take up challenges and identify strategies for problem-solving independently' (41%), barely engaged them in 'goal setting' (38%), and rarely taught them 'strategies to regulate behavior' (37%).

A comparison between the perceived importance of mediation identified by students and their perceptions of actual practice of mediation by teachers appears in Table 17.3.

A considerable number of students perceived the classroom practice of their teachers as largely lacking in those aspects of mediation which they considered to be highly important for successful learning to take place. The most notable findings in the comparison were as follows:

- *Challenges and strategies:* Only 35% of students reported that their teachers prepared them to tackle challenges using appropriate strategies.

Table 17.3 Comparison between the perceived importance of mediation identified by students and their perceptions of actual practice of mediation by teachers. (Presented using the highest scores for each aspect in percentages)

ITEMS	Perceived importance of mediation (Very/Quite Important)	Actual practice of mediation (Very/Quite Often)
1. Share Intention	94	57
2. Significance	76	52
3. Purpose beyond here and now	76	34
4. Feeling of competence	82	45
5. Control of own behavior	93	49
6. Goal setting and achieving	81	34
7. Challenge and strategies	76	35
8. Awareness of change	86	40
9. Belief in optimistic alternatives	87	49
10. Sharing	78	59
11. Individuality	83	41
12. Belonging	76	63

- *Purpose beyond here and now:* Only 34% of students reported that their teachers helped them ascertain the relevance or purpose of engaging in learning activities beyond the immediate learning context.
- *Goal setting and achieving:* Only 34% of students believed that their teachers helped them set goals and mediated independent strategy making to achieve those goals.

Contrary to this, a relatively higher percentage of students reported 'feeling of belonging' (63%) and 'sharing intention' (57%) as aspects of mediation that were practiced by their teachers.

Teachers' Perceptions of the Importance of Mediation in the Language Classroom

Results from part 2 of the teacher survey appear quite consistent since the majority of the teachers perceived all aspects of mediation as significant (very or quite important) (Table 17.4).

Nearly all teachers regarded all twelve aspects of mediation as very important especially 'sharing intention', 'purpose beyond here and now', and 'control of behavior' (n = 9). At least one teacher observed that 'goal setting' and 'sharing behavior' were impractical in their context because the curriculum did not require

Table 17.4 Part 2—Teachers' perceptions of the importance of mediation in the language classroom (n = 9 with some columns collapsed to appear as one. See Key)

ITEM	VIP/QIP	N	NVIP/NIPAA	R
1. Share intention	9	0	0	0
2. Significance	8	1	0	0
3. Purpose beyond here and now	8	1	0	0
4. Feeling of competence	9	0	0	0
5. Control of own behavior	9	0	0	0
6. Goal setting and achieving	6	2	0	1
7. Challenges and strategies	7	2	0	0
8. Awareness of change	6	3	0	0
9. Belief in optimistic alternatives	7	2	0	0
10. Sharing behavior	8	0	0	1
11. Individuality	8	1	0	0
12. Feeling of belonging	7	2	0	0

Key
VIP—Very Important
QIP—Quite Important
N—Neutral
NVIP—Not Very Important
NIPAA—Not Important at All
R—Redundant

students to set any kind of learning goals nor work cooperatively on any task. Overall, none of the teachers perceived any aspect of mediation as unimportant.

Despite consistent results, there were some differences between perceptions of mediation held by male and female teachers in the school which could become the basis of another study on a larger scale. Since the sample population for this survey was small (n = 9), the gender-based differences are not reported here.

Actual Practice of Mediation as Revealed by Teachers

Results from part 3 of the teacher survey were not much different from part 2, i.e., just as the majority of teachers perceived all aspects of mediation as very important, similarly, most teachers stated that they almost always practiced all aspects of mediation in their classrooms. Details of the results are shown in Table 17.5.

All teachers stated that they always or almost always 'shared intentions', 'conveyed purpose beyond here and now', 'encouraged feelings of competence', and inculcated 'individuality' among learners. However, one teacher felt that teaching 'sharing behavior' was inapplicable to their context since the curriculum did not call for such activities that required shared behavior.

Table 17.5 Part 3—Actual practice of mediation by teachers *(n = 9)*

Items	Very/Quite often	Sometimes	Hardly ever/Never	Redundant
1. Share intention	9	0	0	0
2. Significance	8	1	0	0
3. Purpose beyond here and now	9	0	0	0
4. Feeling of competence	9	0	0	0
5. Control of own behavior	6	3	0	0
6. Goal setting and achieving	5	4	0	0
7. Challenges and strategies	5	4	0	0
8. Awareness of change	5	4	0	0
9. Belief in optimistic alternatives	7	2	0	0
10. Sharing behavior	7	1	0	1
11. Individuality	9	0	0	0
12. Feeling of belonging	8	1	0	0

Comparing Students' and Teachers' Perceptions

A comparison between students' and teachers' results revealed marked differences between students' perceptions of whether mediation was practiced by their teachers and teachers' beliefs of their own classroom practices. It is evident from Table 17.6 that all teachers (n = 9) reported 'sharing intention', 'purpose beyond here and now', 'feelings of competence' and, 'individuality' as the highest in practice.

However, students reported the practice of all these aspects (except 'sharing intention') in significantly lower percentages. Instead, they reported the following aspects highest in practice by their teachers:

- Sense of belonging to community (63%).
- Sharing behavior (59%).
- Sharing intention (57%).

While none of the teachers reported any aspect of mediation as not in practice, at least 41% of students reported 'challenges and strategies', 30% reported 'goal setting' and 37% of students reported 'control of behavior' as hardly practiced by their teachers.

Table 17.6 Comparison between percentages of actual practice of mediation as reported by teachers and students' perceptions of actual practice by their teachers. (The highest results from both teachers and students are presented in percentages)

Items	Teachers	Students
1. Share intention	100	57
2. Significance	89	52
3. Purpose beyond here and now	100	34
4. Feeling of competence	100	45
5. Control of own behavior	67	49
6. Goal setting and achieving	56	34
7. Challenges and strategies	56	35
8. Awareness of change	56	40
9. Belief in optimistic alternatives	78	49
10. Sharing behavior	78	59
11. Individuality	100	41
12. Feeling of belonging	89	63

Interview Findings

Teachers in the context believed that learners were categorized in different class sections according to their IQ levels—i.e., brighter students in science sections, weaker ones in commerce, and the weakest students in the arts sections. This verifies Feuerstein' perception (1991) that people generally believe intelligence to be unaffected by any kind of mediation.

Most teachers felt that the students who were '*quite weak in English*', also lacked initiative and imagination:

> '*If I tell them to write about 'a morning walk' and the paragraph that they read has masculine pronouns, they will copy it with masculine pronouns… I have stopped feeling that they can write good paragraphs.*' (R)

Teachers' views on the practice or lack of practice of mediation and their justifications for doing so have been analyzed and discussed under three themes (See Appendix II for interview schedule):

- understanding purpose.
- taking control of one's own learning.
- learning to become individuals functioning within society.

Understanding Purpose

Shared intention. Teachers mostly did not feel the need to check for understanding of instructions because they followed 'set patterns' such as giving photocopied 'easy notes' to learn from, dictating accurate texts, and sharing handouts, which they felt were sufficient guidance. As one teacher elaborates,

'*... in a class of 44 students... If I tell you that my instructions are followed by questions... No! We've got a pattern ...*' (PQ)

Clearly, teachers needed to concentrate on finishing the course without 'indulging' in other activities.

Significance: Most teachers felt that teaching time could not be spent over stressing the relevance of tasks because,

'*... the syllabus is always on our minds... we must finish it...*' (PQ)

Only one teacher thought,

'*... if students know why they are doing something they would be able to channelize themselves better as compared to when they just have to do something...*' (MJ)

Purpose beyond here and now: Some teachers thought that students would seldom be interested in the wider significance of learning activities because,

'*... they just have to do it... it's in the syllabus...*' (SN)

Taking Control of one's Own Learning

A sense of competence: Weaker students were given extra coaching during lunch breaks, library lessons, or early morning hours before school started. In exceptional cases, parents were asked to '*arrange for extra coaching*' outside the school (SN). In one instance, a teacher stated:

'*I let them communicate in the language that they are comfortable with... after all English is a second language for us...*' (R)

It is unclear how this strategy encouraged students to feel capable of tackling tasks in the target language or conversing in it. Similarly, it was unclear how students developed writing skills when teachers,

'*...cannot leave the students to do all on their own and have to dictate notes...*' (R)

Another teacher felt that verbal encouragement helped instill a positive self-image and develop a sense of competence:

'*I ask (weak) students to compare their work with the work in the good students' books that I've checked and ask them to find their own mistakes...later while correcting their copies I say, 'why didn't you have the confidence to write on your own?*' (PQ)

At least one teacher was clearly in favor of using appropriate techniques to instill self-confidence in learners:

'*You can't judge one child according to the standards of the other child... This defeats their sense of competence and does not encourage self-awareness.*' (MJ)

Control of own behavior: There was no investment in dispensing skills and strategies that help learners become effective autonomous learners because,

'*… they make so many grammatical mistakes... we have to give them the correct answers.*' (SN)

In doing this, teachers created a sense of dependency among learners which consequently became part of their learning or 'the system'. However, teachers were quite proud of the strategies they employed in training students:

'*We teach them techniques required in attempting the questions asked in the question paper... to enable them to reach the highest standard they are capable of.*' (SK)

Goal setting: Weak students were given ready-made notes that they could memorize to pass exams. With increased teacher dependency, the already low motivation level was further lowered to disinterest:

'*You have to take hold of the book… point out that from here to here is the answer that you have to write in your own words. Some students can't even do that… so we simply make a photocopy of the notes…learning is the only job they have to do after this.*' (SN)

Ironically, some teachers expressed discontent with the teaching methods in the system:

'*… the tragedy of our educational system is we never encourage our students. We just give them a format on which they have to program learning…*' (R)

Challenges and strategies: From the moment they entered high school, students were instilled with the need to acquire appropriate strategies to score pass marks or higher on the board examinations:

'*… you specify topics that they should learn and that's it because this will be there in the exam… This is how we improve them to reach the level of 35%.*' (SN)

Awareness of change: In their exam-based teaching approach, learners were made aware of their own progress through a multitude of tests like weekly tests, monthly tests, term tests, pre-exams, send ups, oral tests, and assignments. All teachers believed this was the best way to encourage students and were proud of the fact that they maintained individual records of such tests.

Learning to Become Individuals Functioning Within Society

Most teachers felt that students were inherently competitive and preferred independent work rather than group or pair work. Teachers, however, felt inclined to encourage group activities that fostered mutual respect. These included debates, discussions, language practice games like 'truth or dare', or working on class projects like newspapers. A weekly 'culture period' was held at the school to inculcate a sense of belonging to the community and students were encouraged to exchange information and individual views over a topic.

Teachers acknowledged that learners learnt according to their individual capability and favored activities that made learners aware of their own individuality:

'*We need to let them know that they have their own minds which they can speak.*' (R)

However, the hindrance was,

'*We have to rush with the syllabus, and can't stop for one child in particular…*' (SN)

The Real Picture

It emerged that despite realizing the importance of mediated learning and teaching, teachers considerably lacked mediation in their practice. They acknowledged this to an extent citing several reasons to support their stance.

High school students lived in constant fear of failure in the external exams. Teachers were preoccupied with lack of time to complete the syllabus which hindered the inclusion of task-based language learning. While there was lip service to innovative ways of making learning interesting, the lack of initiative was justified by an accepted helplessness due to '*lack of time'* (SN).

There is a compulsion to only include activities that are defined by the curriculum although additional activities may help improve language learning skills,

'*…after watching a movie we should give them a questionnaire. But because that is not required by the curricula… so, why put the effort.*' (SN)

Teachers revealed that students were unable to learn grammar tenses despite being 'inundated' with information from the first day in class. While low IQ was presumed to be the reason, it is likely that excessive direct transmission of mundane grammatical concepts appeared tedious to students and affected their retention level. Teachers, on the other hand, did not have the time to pause and check whether their input had been absorbed.

Individual attention and teaching learners how to take control of their own learning was perceived to be impossible in a class of 40–44 students, '*where the teacher is always bothered about how to maintain discipline in the class…'* (PQ).

Learner autonomy and control of behavior came into question in a context where weaker students were constantly given ready-made notes to learn from to keep them up to the class level. Students were not motivated to progress except with the threat of failure on external exams. It is unlikely that they acquired control of their learning with strategies that hindered independent learning. High school appeared to be an exam preparation camp and teachers felt that their primary professional aim was to use teaching methods that would get students through the exams.

A few teachers, however, felt that their potential was not appropriately utilized because they had been practicing the same teaching methodologies for a long time. For example, a Leeds University TEYL (Teaching English to Young Learners) trained teacher had been teaching everything except English language (Pakistan Studies, Commercial Geography, Political Science, Humanities, and Economics) for several years since she joined the institution. Here she expresses that,

'*With the passage of 15 years…I feel rusty because we are teaching the same things over and over again…*' (PQ)

The challenge of handling a class of 40 plus students for 6–7 hours a day coupled with, '*the load of corrections in each class…*' (PQ) was cumbersome. Contrary to this, the vice principal of the school presented a light picture of what a teacher's life was like in this institution,

'*We have a very light time-table; I don't think that's a strain for the teacher.*' (MJ)

To summarize, teachers who participated in my study acknowledged the importance of creating a mediated and task-based meaningful language learning environment. Their inhibition to practice MLE in the classroom resulted from pre-occupation with course completion and exam preparation. Students equally perceived mediated learning as important. However, during informal conversations with a few students (not included in the data) they blamed teachers and the institution for lack of second language proficiency.

This study compares well with a study conducted by Adams and Wallace (1993: 46, as cited in Kozulin, 1998) in black majority South African (post-apartheid) schools where the students' mother tongue was Zulu and English was used as a medium of instruction after grade 4. Teachers had a basic command of English and class sizes were large with a wide range of pupil ability in one class. To solve this problem, teachers engaged in rigid and didactic teaching styles, inducing rote learning reinforced by 'control tests' which required only recall of information given in specific words used by the teacher. Teachers in my study appeared to be in a similar position as despite having advanced level command of the second language, they used similar teaching strategies as were used by South African Zulu teachers. The class sizes were large, comprising of 40 plus students with different abilities and Second Language Instruction was implemented after grade 3.

Conclusions and Implications

In attempting to explore the perceptions of mediated learning held by teachers and female students in a Pakistani high school in the UAE, it became apparent that little actual practice of MLE existed in the school. The focus of analysis rested on data gathered through interviews and questionnaires. The basis of generalization in this small-scale study arises from the fact that the curriculum in question is followed at a national and international level in Pakistani schools. Hence, the implication of following an exam-based teaching approach with strong focus on exam survival is an important consideration.

Differences in students' perceptions and that of teachers arise from the way mediated language learning strategies are expected to be taught and are actually taught. While students feel a lack of any such practice that enables them to become autonomous, teachers feel that they try their best to produce independent learners except that their professional priority lies in finishing the course within a set time.

This gives rise to serious implications of what kind of focus the national (or provincial) curriculum should have regarding imparting second language education in contemporary times. By the time students finish high school they still lack the capacity to make authentic use of the target language. The existing curriculum focuses on sharpening their retention skills and the strategies used by teachers produce text-dependent learners who use these skills to get through the examinations. It does not reflect the traditional tasks of students' everyday life (Serpell, 1993 as cited in Kozulin, 1998). Another consideration is that classroom instruction in this context does not provide students with complex and flexible problem-solving skills that would allow them to succeed in technology-based occupations (Omkhodion, 1989 as cited in Kozulin, 1998), therefore leaving many more aspects to be researched in the wider context.

Appendix I: Teacher Survey

The aim of this questionnaire is to find out your views about things that you might do during lessons.

PART 1: Personal information (Optional)

Name	Age	Gender
Number of years as an EFL teacher		

PART 2: When you teach English language, how important do you think it is to

	Very important (5)	Quite important (4)	Neutral (3)	Not very important (2)	Not important at all (1)
1. Make your instructions clear when you give a task to your learners					
2. Tell your learners why they are to do a particular activity					
3. Explain to your learners how carrying out a learning activity will help them in the future					

(continued)

(continued)

	Very important (5)	Quite important (4)	Neutral (3)	Not very important (2)	Not important at all (1)
4. Teach learners the strategies they need to learn effectively					
5. Teach learners how to set their own goals in learning					
6. Help your learners to set challenges for themselves and to develop strategies to meet those goals					
7. Help your learners to monitor changes in themselves					
8. Help your learners to see that if they keep on trying to solve a problem, they will find a solution					
9. Teach your learners to work cooperatively					
10. Help your learners to develop as individuals					
11. Foster in your learners a sense of belonging to a classroom community					

PART 3: For each question, please choose the score that you think best represents 'how often you carry out this particular activity'

The options to choose from are:

VERY OFTEN (5) QUITE OFTEN (4) SOMETIMES (3) HARDLY EVER (2) NEVER (1)

** This section uses the same items as in PART 2, hence these are not listed here in the appendix*

Appendix—II: Interview Schedule

Share Intention

1. How do you make sure that
   - your instructions are clear?
   - students have understood what to do?

Significance

2. How do you tell your students why they are doing an activity? (E.g., writing an essay on 'recycling paper' because…).
3. How do learners find personal value in the task? (meaningful language in the task?).

Purpose Beyond Here and Now

4. How do you explain to your students the value of the activity to them in the future?
5. Please give examples of how you provide students with learning strategies that might be helpful in other situations.
6. To what extent do you think the language curriculum will be useful to learners in real life in the future? If not, what amendments do you suggest?

Sense of Competence

7. How do you:
   - deal with learners who lack confidence in their ability to learn the language?
   - enhance learners' beliefs in themselves?
   - help learners foster a positive self-image and feeling of self-confidence?

Goal Setting

8. How do you help learners to set goals for themselves?
9. How do students set their own learning goals?

Challenges

10. How do you:
    - help learners to set challenges for themselves? (provide tasks according to their competence).
    - encourage learners to set their own challenges? (create & present their own work)
11. What are the challenges in course completion? How do you overcome these challenges?

Control of Own Behavior

12. Could you share examples of how you teach learners effective learning strategies? (If you do)

Awareness of Change

13. How do you teach learners to be aware of their own progress? (Self-evaluation?)

Belief on Optimistic Alternatives

14. How do you help learners to see that persistence can help solve problems? (not get disheartened by mistakes).

Sharing

15. Could you describe a scenario where you teach learners to work in groups/pairs? How do they feel about this?
16. How do you encourage learners to:
    - help each other?
    - listen to each other?
    - consider the feelings of others?

Individuality

17. How do you help your learners to develop as individuals? (activities).
18. How important is it for learners to develop as individuals? (in/through language classrooms)
19. How significant is the idea of learners developing as individuals (in the curriculum)?

Belonging

20. How do you foster in learners the sense that the classroom is a community and that they are a part of it?

General

21. What changes can you recommend in the language learning environments in your institution?
22. Please share your views on the quality of learners that your institution receives and eventually produces.

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Part VII
Innovative Approaches

Chapter 18
Improving ELT Through Process Enneagram—A Design Research Project

Rabail Qayyum

Abstract This case study reports on a design research model that the author implemented at a small private school in Karachi. It was aimed at improving the teaching and learning of grade 9 students in an English class while exploring alternative learning spaces. Design research is a novel way of conducting research that shares some of its characteristics with ethnographic and action research traditions (Collins et al., 2004). It employs Process Enneagram, which is an innovative and comprehensive tool that was designed by Richard Knowles in 1992 to understand how organizations operate as living systems (Knowles, 2006). In this case study, Process Enneagram was used to analyze the learning system. It revealed weaknesses in the system such as, poor use of technology and library resources, and employing only close-ended tests for language assessment. On the other hand, it also revealed community spirit as a major strength. Using multiple data sources such as interviews, observations, field notes, and photographs, the study reveals how specific interventions introduced even on a small scale can yield positive changes. In this case, these outcomes included increased involvement of students, positive role of the main teacher, and deeper insights of the teacher–researcher into the use of technology. Design research, thus, implies promise in bridging the research–practice chasm.

Keywords Design research · Process Enneagram · English · Alternative learning spaces

Design Research

Design research is defined as a 'way to carry out formative research to test and refine educational designs based on theoretical principles derived from prior research' (Collins et al., 2004: 18). It is a novel way of conducting research that shares some characteristics with ethnographic and action research traditions. The main advantage

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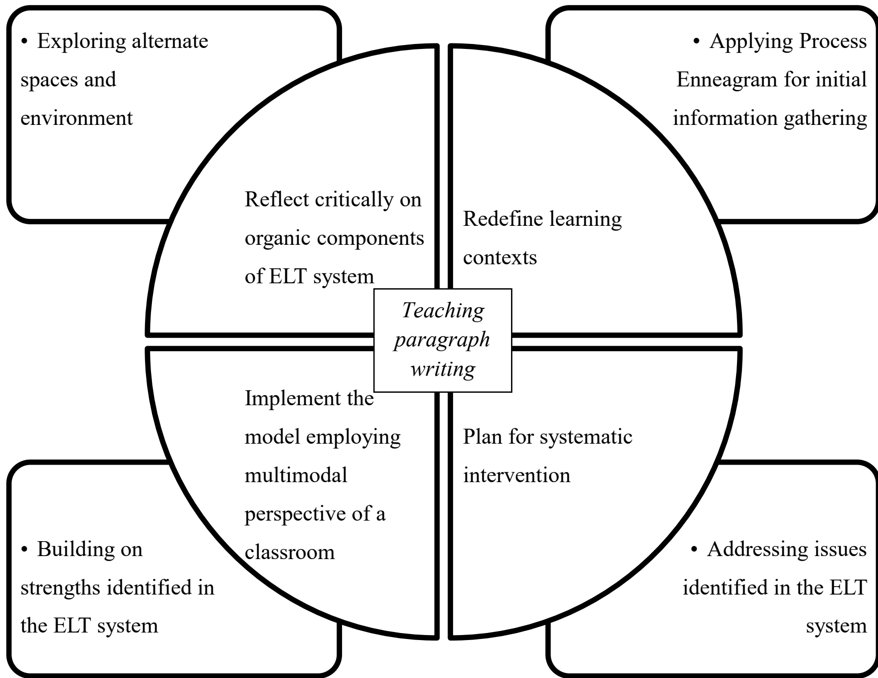

Fig. 18.1 Design of the model implemented

of design research is that it allows researchers to actually work with local communities as opposed to simply studying them.

As Fig. 18.1 indicates, a multilayered, inter-related model was designed for the project that formed part of this research.

The rationale behind this model was to interweave various aspects of the ELT system with the perception of the classroom as a microsystem within which the change and development of one member can instigate change in other members as well. In addition, each person is a part of many microsystems all of which interact with each other, forming mesosystems. Personal characteristics, views, and behaviors are seen to form through the complex, synergistic, interactive effects that happen within these mesosystems.

What is Process Enneagram?

Process Enneagram is an innovative and comprehensive tool that was designed by Richard Knowles in 1992 to understand how organizations operate as living systems (Knowles, 2006). Organizations as living systems are seen to have a life of their own

and experience continuous growth. This idea is in stark contrast with the traditionally held notion of organizations as non-living machines and unveils new ways of understanding the functions and processes of an organization.

The framework of the Process Enneagram consists of understanding nine perspectives that are in continuous interaction with each other. These perspectives are as follows:

i. Identity
ii. Intention
iii. Issues
iv. Relationship
v. Principles and standards
vi. Work information
vii. Learning
viii. Structure and context
ix. new identity.

Analyzing an organization through these nine perspectives (individually and collectively) helps us to understand how they maintain their overall identity and sustainability by constantly interacting with and adapting to environmental changes.

Multimodal Perspective of a Classroom

A multimodal perspective not only refers to communication that is not reliant on words alone but also uses body language or gestures, physical spaces, pictures, materials, etc. to convey a message (Jewitt, 2009). Considering the classroom as a multimodal textual formation means employing all the elements of a classroom in the teaching–learning process. These could include gestures, posters, charts, furniture, physical resources, and physical spaces, all of which offer a broader view of learning. Hence, a multimodal perspective makes both teachers and students realize that learning is not rooted in written texts alone, and that all the resources in the classroom can be utilized in the teaching–learning process. As a result, students experience increased opportunities to interact with texts in novel ways.

Tools for Analysis of the Status Quo

Sources of data collection included field notes, lesson observations, photographs,[1] unstructured interviews, and informal conversations with teachers, students, and administrative staff in the researched context. Emphasis was placed on teachers' perceptions of current practices as well as how they utilized available resources. I

[1] Written and informed consent was obtained from the school administrator.

also had a meeting with the school principal to garner his vision for the school's success. I developed a checklist to apply Process Enneagram to the context during my first visit so that it could be used as the initial step toward analyzing the learning system.

Description of the System

Setting

The school which is the researched context was built on a 400 sq. yard plot, spread over three floors. It was dull, overcrowded, and extremely hot in the summer, especially during the routine power cuts. The building housed classes from grades 4 to 12 (Intermediate) as well as for the Bachelor's in Business Administration classes. The number of students in each classroom from grades 4 to 10 (Matriculation) was between 30 and 35, and a majority of them belonged to lower socio–economic status groups.

Status of Languages

While all the school notices displayed on the bulletin boards were in English, the spoken language on campus was predominantly Urdu. The school prospectus indicated a bilingual medium of instruction. However, in the lessons observed, teachers spoke almost only in English, which was a contrast from the official school policy. It can be assumed that English teachers at the school felt pressurized to assert their job credentials as a result of which they spoke solely in English. However, at least in one instance, the teacher observed resorted to Urdu translation to teach the word 'reindeer'. In hindsight, it would have been quite interesting to explore the school community's perceptions on the use of L1 (first language) in the English classroom, an opportunity that I could not avail of due to time constraints associated with this research.

Issues and Strengths within the System

The complex range of issues and potential strengths that emerged from the data collected proved to be a challenge in identifying elements for sustained attention which a design research project requires. Eventually, I decided to focus on those elements that moved me personally and those that I felt I could do something about.

These included the use of technology, the library, community spirit, and language assessment.

The Use of Technology

E-learning was a key feature of the entire teaching, learning, and assessment system of the school and all the key stakeholders, i.e., teachers, administrative staff and students, took pride in it. Every floor in the building had a computer laboratory, and each classroom had an LCD TV. It must be noted, however, that the LCD was not used in the lessons that I observed, even in instances where it could have been quite useful for vocabulary teaching. Hence, despite the obvious emphasis on modern technology, the pedagogy in practice seemed conventional. For example, the teacher that I observed read aloud from the textbook; and the classroom seating arrangement was traditional lecture style with all the students facing the teacher.

It seemed odd that the school had decided to invest in several LCD TVs, one for each classroom whereas they could have installed common use multimedia equipment in one room. This would have saved immense costs and would have provided students with an opportunity to view learning resources on a singular large screen rather than strain their eyes to view small screens installed in their individual classrooms. Hence, the purpose of installing LCD TV screens in individual classrooms was unclear as these were rarely in use.

Teachers in the classes observed confined themselves to using only online resources for lesson planning. The websites in use drove content selection and organization of the curriculum. Such dependency appeared to stifle the teacher's own imagination and creativity.

Interestingly, students maintained personal accounts on Facebook, a fact proudly mentioned by both teachers and administrators, without realizing that this was against Facebook's policy that clearly states that it is not meant for users under the age of 13.[2] The moral and ethical repercussions of the policy violation were not realized by the stakeholders. The use of technology was evidently both a strength as well as a weakness of the system. The strength lay in the inherent potential of the technology, while the weakness emerged in its misuse or overuse. It was this learning condition that I sought to challenge by adopting measures that maximized the possibilities of e-learning. Hence, I decided to challenge this status quo.

Devaluation of the School Library

The school library, situated on the first floor, was a tiny 15 × 10 ft. room with three shelves lining two walls of the room. The shelves were mostly stocked with books related to either test preparation or storybooks for children. The collection lacked a breadth of disciplines. Some books had accumulated dust indicating lack of use.

[2] See https://www.facebook.com/legal/terms.

Most of the space was taken up by a table in the center of the room with six chairs placed around it. The entire school community's disengagement with this powerful, albeit traditional resource of learning was quite evident. It was apparent in the way teachers and administrators talked about the library. One of the teachers highlighted the prevalent sentiment when she stated, 'What is the point of going to the library when you have the internet?' Such outright rejection made me reflect on how I could help the system rekindle their dying relationship with the library.

I observed a contrast in the space given to modern technology and this traditional resource of learning—the library. Since the extensive emphasis was placed on e-learning, the library was devalued and completely sidelined by the school community. I decided to thus address this issue and work on the affective aspect of the system.

Community Spirit

This was a major strength of the system. In my interviews with the teachers and administrators, I came to know that they all had a minimum of 7 years' association with the school. Their loyalty and affinity seemed remarkable, especially in an era and culture where turnover rates are high. I saw this aspect as full of possibilities and endeavored to promote avenues to reach out to the entire school community.

Language Assessment

Assessment ensures the overall quality of teaching and learning. At the school, I had the opportunity of attending a presentation, which provided a rare insight into the entire assessment system. Online quizzes were administered at the end of every unit, and exams took place at the end of the course. Examinations mostly consisted of close-ended items and did not require extended essay-type answers, and there was little provision for creative problem-solving. In my lesson observations, I did not see the observed teachers employ any classroom-based formative assessment, which 'consists of activities used by the teacher to determine a student's level of knowledge and understanding for the purpose of providing the student with feedback and planning future instruction' (Baroudi, 2007: 38).

English language tests were dominated by multiple choice questions (MCQs). Quellmalz (1984) argues that MCQs are not a valid mode of assessment as they do not present reasonable, realistic writing situations, or determine individual competence, or reflect the achievement of students or the effects of instruction. As a result, MCQ-based testing can have major stifling effects on what and how students learn. Additionally, these tests were limiting in the sense that they did not assess students' speaking skills.

During an interview, a teacher reported that her main challenge was that the students did not understand her when she spoke in English. Perhaps students did not feel the need to learn to speak in English when they were aware that they would not be assessed on it in exams. On the other hand, teachers also maintained that students'

performance in online tests was improving over time. The question arises, how valid is an exam when students clearly lack fluency in language but have good scores in exams? It is likely that the teachers may be confusing students' improvement in computer literacy with language skills. Therefore, I decided to employ classroom-based formative strategies to introduce students to new ways of assessing their skills and knowledge.

Goals and Elements of the Design Model

The school administration provided a great degree of latitude in terms of innovations that I proposed to introduce. This flexibility enabled me to plan with independence. Despite the tacit limitations present in the school's classroom spaces, I began to plan my intervention by largely focusing on the classroom pedagogy. I asked the class teacher to identify what she wanted me to teach because I did not want to disrupt her overall plan. Since at the time of this research she was focusing on writing skills, we mutually agreed to narrow down the lesson aims to paragraph writing.

In designing the model for research, I continually drew upon the following factors:

i. The use of technology in teaching practice
ii. Devaluation of the school library
iii. Community spirit
iv.. Language assessment.

I remained aware that I had chosen to address long-standing issues that would take considerable time and effort to resolve. Throughout the process, I also remained acutely aware of the limitations of my design, and my expectations of them demonstrating immediate results were invariably modest. Nevertheless, I felt confident in the strategies being implementable.

Planning

My lessons as agreed with the class teacher, employed a process approach to writing which views writing as an exploratory, recursive, and generative process and focuses on the strategies adopted by a writer in composing a text. The succession of activities gave students step-by-step practice in paragraph development, starting with group activities and then moving towards individual work, thus following the Vygotskian dictum that students would be able to do alone what they first did with others.

Class Teacher's Involvement

I decided to engage the class teacher as much as I could in the process by developing an observation sheet to collect her feedback in a systematic manner. This was done to introduce some level of sustainability of efforts and provide her with some space for critical reflection. Through this, I hoped that some learning would remain with her and hopefully continue after the project had concluded. I emailed her each of my lesson plans and asked for her feedback. Interestingly, she advised me to include an internet-based task instead of a library task that was part of one of my lesson plans. This reminded me of the daunting challenge that lay ahead in terms of changing long-set beliefs.

Implementation of the Design Model and Its Outcomes

Use of Technology in Teaching Practice

I inserted ideas about paragraph writing and a model paragraph into a PowerPoint presentation that was displayed on the LCD. The ideas were clearly stated in the presentation to make them easy to remember and in their feedback, students appreciated the use of a PowerPoint presentation.

In the session on brainstorming, 'What I like best about my school', the first thing that students mentioned was the facilities. At least one student mentioned the library. It is noteworthy that students regarded the library as separate from 'facilities'. Upon enquiring, it was revealed that by 'facilities' they primarily meant 'technological facilities'. By the end of the lesson, all four groups had written feedback on the use of technology at the school thereby indicating their involvement with this aspect of the system.

Use of Material Resources

Resources that I used for this project include the white board, whiteboard markers, chart papers, paper markers, A3 sheets, double-sided tape, and scissors. By using these inexpensive and reusable resources, I wanted to demonstrate that the class teachers could easily use them too.

In the group brainstorming activity, students were asked to work in groups and write sentences related to their selected aspect of the topic on a chart paper. There were no chart papers on the classroom walls, so this was a completely novel practice in a formal learning space, and one aimed at creating a new learning environment. By asking students to write directly on a piece of chart paper, the objective was to build their confidence as writers. However, in this activity, I miscalculated the space and proportion of the chart paper in use. It turned out that the chart paper sheets

Fig. 18.2 Brainstorming in groups

were too large for the room, and students did not have sufficient space on their tiny desks, which were attached to their chairs to spread them on. I had not anticipated this situation. To deal with this lack of space issue, students sat on the floor (see Fig. 18.2).

Although all this caused us to waste a lot of time, the final outcome, which was 'the Gallery Walk', went quite well (Fig. 18.3).

It is interesting to note that ideas to deal with lack of working space came from students themselves with minimal input from me as I did not suggest that they try sitting on the floor to cope with lack of space. Hence, the way they organized themselves for this task manifested the extent of their involvement.

Effectiveness of the Library Task

After introducing the structure of paragraph writing, I assigned a homework task that was aimed at reinforcing what was learnt through the use of library resources. By locating paragraphs with structures similar to the one discussed in class, students had to apply the knowledge acquired in new contexts. This re-contextualizing of knowledge is a key aspect of multimodality.

In the following lesson, I was a little disappointed to see that only one student had completed the task. The rest of the class stated that they had forgotten to do it. There could be several reasons for this. It could be that students were not motivated enough to complete the task as my lessons were outside their regular class schedule, which led them to believe that they did not need to do the assigned homework. Another

Fig. 18.3 Gallery walk

reason could be that that they did not want to go to the library to do the task. It is difficult for me to say exactly what caused this poor rate of task completion and since I had only one more lesson to do with them, I gave all students a chance to submit this work in the following lesson.

In the final lesson, five students submitted the homework, bringing the total to 6 out of 26 students who completed this task. This time the remaining 20 students said that they had to prepare for a test, which prevented them from doing their homework. Students who completed the homework said that they found the task useful. In my discussion with the class teacher afterward, I was told that one student stayed back after school to search for an appropriate paragraph in the library. Hence, while the overall majority of students may not have done the task, the few students who did it demonstrated motivation and interest in the task, which was heartening for me.

Use of Corridor Space

The final revised drafts of the topic 'What I like best about my school' were pasted on the walls outside the classroom, bringing the lesson to completion (Fig. 18.4).

This was an attempt to bridge the formal and informal space. The activity went well as was evident from students' responses. The topic was locally relevant and, therefore, would be of interest to the school community at large. I hoped that reading these paragraphs would strengthen the community spirit in the school. The composed

Fig. 18.4 Use of corridor walls

texts vividly exhibited various forms of self-expression and the extent to which students engaged imaginatively and sincerely. Through this activity, the contents of learning (the topic: What I like best about my school) and the learning methodology (group work) resonated with the local realities within which the students were situated as individuals and members of their communities.

Different Modes of Assessment

I employed a variety of assessment strategies including self-assessment and peer-assessment. This was a significant departure from conventional practices and opened new doors of learning. In each lesson, I shared the lesson objectives with students and advised them to keep these in mind throughout the lesson. This was another self-assessment strategy. I believe that as teachers we need to provide our students with a variety of options so that they may discover what works best for them.

Outcomes

Students' Involvement

The best thing about these lessons was my positive relationship with students who were bright and talented and took great interest in all the class activities. I got overwhelmingly positive feedback from them. Many students appreciated the 'new way of learning'.

The Positive Role of the Class Teacher

The class teacher's involvement was one of the prominent reasons for the intervention's success. She facilitated me at every step and her willingness to learn was evident in the way she involved herself in the design process. After each lesson, we would sit in the library and she would give me very useful feedback. This open and honest dialogue enabled notable professional growth for both of us. For instance, in my second lesson, students took a lot of time in settling down. I did not know how to tackle that, or whether to give them more time or ask them to hurry. She advised me to push the students a bit as she knew them better than I did. She also gave me suggestions for interesting ice-breaker activities.

Insights Related to Personal Beliefs

This design research project allowed me to explore my own beliefs about the role of technology in education. I am a proponent of the use of technology in classrooms and believe that it can play a central role in the uplifting of the impoverished segments of our society. During this research study, I refined my hitherto simple understanding of matters and tried to articulate what 'the effective use of technology' means. I realized that simply getting the technology is not enough—it also has to be employed in a way to generate meaningful learning. I realized that while the use of technology is beneficial, it should not become a crutch. It should remain *a* mode of teaching and learning and not become *the* mode. It must generate meaningful learning or else it will end up being something that is in fashion. However, my efforts to minimize dependency on technology and to promote other learning resources in the pedagogy were unequivocally not promising.

Challenges and Limitations

I teach at the tertiary level and this was the first time I taught grade 9 students. The experience itself posed its own unique challenges for me. On a few occasions, I miscalculated/overestimated students' developmental stage and capabilities. For example, I tend to take students' written feedback at the end of my lessons, but these students took a long time in writing their feedback.

Due to time constraints, the study could not explore parental involvement in the school community. Besides, these interventions may only offer provisional solutions and are not a long-term panacea.

Conclusion

This case inquiry reports on the design research model that I implemented at a small private school in Karachi to improve the teaching and learning of English among grade 9 students and to explore alternative learning spaces. The study allowed me to accomplish my lesson objectives and enabled me to tackle critical issues that I perceived to be affecting the school. My belief that I could do something about these challenges was no easy undertaking and I encountered several obstacles along the way. Nevertheless, I was successful in understanding an ELT system and was able to introduce some small-scale interventions with a degree of success. Hence, it can be concluded that design research has the potential to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Appendix A: Applying Process Enneagram to an ELT System

Class

Things to observe:	**Overall:**
• Posters • Environment • Teachers • Administrators	• What spaces do they have for learning? • What is the medium of instruction at the institute? • What are the problems related to language teaching and learning? • Is English limited to English class? • Is English imposed by the management?

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Teacher's role:	Student's role:
• What is your teaching methodology? • How is lesson planning done? In collaboration with others? Standardization? • Do you face any problems in teaching? • What do you like about teaching here? • What is your workload? • Are there any professional development opportunities for you? • Are there such journals or books in library? • How do you assess students' learning?	• Do you face any problems in learning English? • Do you think you can speak English fluently?

Appendix B: Lesson Plans

Lesson Plan 1

Time: 50 min	**Resources**: White board, whiteboard markers, LCD, traffic lights, dictionary from library to be used by students if required	**Lesson objective**: By the end of the lesson, students are expected to collectively write a short paragraph of five sentences	**Class size**: 35
Aims	**Rationale**	**Procedure**	**Timing and Interaction**
Stage 1: Ice breaker	• Give students an opportunity to speak in English—get an idea of 'issue'	• Give name tags to students • Tell me one thing you are good at	10 min, whole class
Stage 2: Traffic lights	• Add to the repertoire of assessment strategies	• Explain the use of traffic lights to students • Check for instructions	2 min, whole class
Stage 3: Give input on paragraph structure	• Use of PowerPoint will make the points easy to remember • Topics are selected to build upon community spirit	• See PowerPoint	5 min, whole class

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Stage 4: Pre-writing tasks • Brainstorming • Set a model	• Use of whiteboard to illustrate an example	• Select one topic after voting • Divide the board into two parts (one for brainstorming and the other for writing the paragraph) • Collect data from students on the topic selected in the form of complete sentences	15 min, whole class
Stage 5: Paragraph writing		• After writing 10–11 sentences about the topic, each with a different idea, ask students to choose the most suitable one as a topic sentence that clarifies the main idea • Ask students to choose three detailed sentences, which give more information about the main idea • Then ask students to choose the ending sentence, which has the same idea of the first one but in words • Write all this down on the 'paragraph' section of the board	10 min, whole class

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Stage 6: Post-writing tasks: Library task Reinforce paragraph structure	Get students to explore library space Photostat of paragraph and book details will ensure that the students did the task from library and not online	• Bring photo-stat of one paragraph with the structure discussed in class from any book • Do you know how to reference sources with its title, author's name and year of publication? **Check for instructions**: • What do you have to do? Bring one paragraph with the structure taught • What other details must it carry? Book title, author's name, and year of publication • Is this an individual task? *Yes*	3 min
Stage 7: Students' anonymous feedback	Collect data from students on the effectiveness of intervention	• Give slips to students: (Write three things that you liked about the lesson and three things you would like me to improve)	5 min, individual work

Lesson Plan 2

Time: 50 min	**Resources**: Seven paper charts, markers, UHU tack, plain printer sheets, four sets of crayons, dictionary from library to be used by students if required	**Lesson objective**: By the end of the lesson, students are expected to: 1. write at least eight sentences on a topic in groups 2. draw a picture on the same topic individually	**Class size**: 35 (23 turned up last time)
Aims	**Rationale**	**Procedure**	**Timing and Interaction**
Stage 1 Recap		• Give name tags to students • What did we do in the last class?	5 min, whole class

(continued)

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Stage 2 Check homework—library task	Students' successful completion of task will indicate effectiveness of intervention in terms of students' interest and learning paragraph structures	• Collect students' homework • Elicit informal feedback from whole class • Why did we do this? • Did it help to learn paragraph structure? • Did you find the paragraph easily?	5 min
Stage 3 • Share lesson objective with students • Give students an opportunity in self-assessment		[put up PowerPoint slides]	2 min
Stage 4 • Divide students into groups randomly • Arrange chairs in a circle	Use of classroom space for group task	• Say a number from 1 to 6 or 1 to 4 and remember the number that you say • Who is ….? Wave	3 min

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Stage 5 • Pre-writing: Brainstorming • Give students an opportunity to develop dictionary skills	• Use of paper chart will generate students' interest in task since this is not a common practice • Use of dictionary is to assist students in becoming independent learners. Also, this is the use of library resources	• Model brainstorming areas: teachers, environment etc • Write as many sentences related to the topic as possible on the paper chart. Then stick this paper on the wall. Then we all stand up and go around the room reading each other's work. The group with the most number of good sentences wins a prize. You have 15 minmin. You can use dictionary in case you need help **Check for instructions**: • What do you have to do? *Write sentences related to topic* • Do you have to arrange these sentences in paragraph? *No* • How much time do you have? *15 min* • Is this an individual task? *No* Can you use dictionary? *Yes* What can you use it for? *Checking spellings* • Model how to do the task on the board	15 min, group work
Stage 6 Gallery Walk	Use of classroom walls to display students' ideas	Students will stick the paper charts on the classroom walls and go around the room and read each other's works	10 min, whole class

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Stage 7 • Class work or home task (depending upon time) • Give students an opportunity to express themselves in another mode	Employ multimodality perspective of text	• Give students plain sheets • Tell students to make a drawing on their topic individually • Collect drawings	5 min but depends upon students' completion of earlier tasks, individual work
Stage 8 Students' anonymous feedback	Collect data from students on effectiveness of intervention Anonymous feedback on library task will help triangulate findings from stage 2 above	• Give slips to students • Did you find the library task useful? Why? Why not? • Write three things that you liked about the lesson and three things you would like me to improve	5 min, individual work

Lesson Plan 3

Time: 50 min	**Resources**: Paper chart, large-sized sheets, double-sided tape, scissors, dictionary from library to be used by students if required	**Lesson objective**: By the end of the lesson, students are expected to write a short paragraph in pairs after peer-review	**Class size**: 35
Aims	**Rationale**	**Procedure**	**Timing and Interaction**
Things to do before class begins: • Get dictionary from library • Put up lesson objectives' paper chart on the wall and also students' brainstorming from last class • I hope to conduct this class in the computer lab but am awaiting permission			
Stage 1 Recap		[Give name tags to students] What did we do in the last class? [refer to the charts on the walls]	5 min, whole class

(continued)

(continued)

Stage 2 Check homework—library task	Students' successful completion of task will indicate effectiveness of intervention in terms of students' interest and learning paragraph structures	[Return task with feedback to the one student who did it] Collect students' homework Elicit informal feedback from whole class Why did we do this? Did it help to learn paragraph structure? Did you find the paragraph easily?	5 min, whole class
Stage 3 Share lesson objective with students	Use of paper chart in absence of whiteboard	Write it on a paper chart and put it up on the wall	2 min, whole class
Stage 4 Paragraph writing	Give students an opportunity for peer-assessment	[Make sure that pairs are of even numbers to swap writings for review in the next activity] Write a paragraph in pairs. You have 15 minmin for this task Share oxford website URL with students for dictionary (in case I gain access to computers) http://oald8.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/ **Check for instructions**: What do you have to do? *Write one paragraph related to topic* How much time do you have? *10 min* Is this an individual task? *No* Can you use dictionary? *Yes* What can you use it for? *Checking spellings*	15 min, pair work
Stage 5 Peer-review	Give students an opportunity for peer-assessment	Randomly distribute students' paragraphs Write two good points about the writing (e.g. the paragraph follows the structure taught), and one thing that can be improved (e.g. spellings)	5 min, pair work

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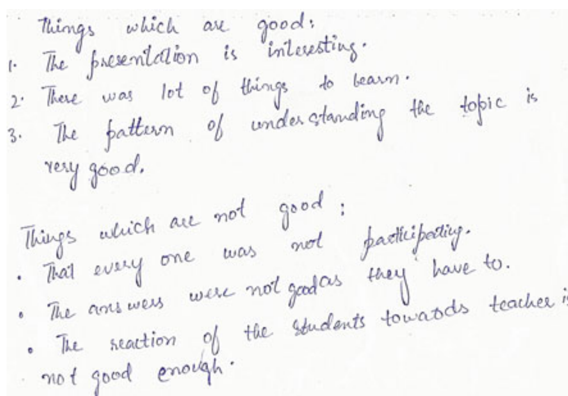
Stage 6 Writing revision To give students exposure in process approach to writing To make students become confident writers	Use corridor space to give students an opportunity to showcase work to rest of school community The topics were selected to generate community spirit. So the school community at large would be interested to read	Re-write paragraphs based on feedback received on large-sized sheets and place them on the wall. You have 10 minmin	10 min, pair work
Stage 7 Students' anonymous feedback	Collect data from students on effectiveness of intervention	Give slips to students. Write three things that you liked about the lesson and three things you would like me to improve	5 min, Individual work
Stage 8 Conclude session		Recap things learned Give email address to students for future correspondence Formally thank students and teacher	3 min, whole class

Appendix C: Students' Feedback



Things which are good:

1. The presentation is interesting.
2. There was lot of things to learn.
3. The pattern of understanding the topic is very good.

Things which are not good:

- That every one was not participating.
- The answers were not good as they have to.
- The reaction of the students towards teacher is not good enough.

Appendix D: Teacher's Feedback

Lesson Observation

Grade 9

Date: 31st-May-2013.

Please give me your detailed feedback on:

1. Use of physical classroom space and material resources (seating arrangement, classroom walls, chart papers)

well organized - properly Used.
all the Malerials/Resources.

2. Achievement of lesson objectives

→ Students clearly understood the concept of Paragraph & Points writing
→ Learning of Sharing, Grouping.
→ Appreciating others.

3. Suggestions for further improvement

→ Add Small Activity
→ Ask More Question's. From Students
→ Need Bit More class Control.

Adapted from British Council English Online Peer Observation Form

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Chapter 19
EFL Teaching and CALL in Higher Education in Pakistan

Abida Ayesha

Abstract The use of computers in language education has been in vogue around the world for several years. In Pakistan, its realization and integration into English language teaching started just over a decade ago. In order to keep up with rapid developments in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) throughout the world and technological innovations in English as a Second Language (ESL)/English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms, the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC) launched an exclusive project named English Language Teaching Reforms (ELTR) in 2004. The project was launched upon the recommendation of the National Committee on English, which was set up in 2003 to assess the state of ELT in Pakistani higher education. This chapter reports on an empirical study that investigates the impact of the ELTR 2004 project on ELT in Pakistan. More specifically, it investigates the practices and attitudes of the English language teachers in higher education institutions in Pakistan. At the time of this study, the HEC was in the process of imparting Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) training to over a hundred English language teachers who were employed in public colleges and universities. A mixed-method design combining quantitative (survey) and qualitative methods (interviews and document analysis) was employed to evaluate the impact of the CALL training on actual teaching practices as well as teachers' perceptions about the use and effectiveness of CALL in EFL classrooms. Findings from this study reveal an overall positive attitude toward the integration of technology in ELT while also highlighting some challenges faced by the teachers. The chapter also presents some guidelines for future practice and research.

Keywords ELT · EFL · CALL · ELTR · Blended learning · Higher education · HEC Pakistan

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Background of ELT in Pakistan

English is taught both as a foreign and second language in Pakistan. Since Pakistan achieved its independence from the British in 1947, English has remained in use as the official language of the country, especially in administration, judiciary, and higher education. Mahboob (2002: 2) reports the knowledge and use of English in Pakistan as 'a passport to entry to high governmental, bureaucratic, military, and social positions'. It is, thus, regarded as the key to success by masses in the country. Shamim (2009) highlights that English language is essential for individual development, success, social mobility, and national progress.

Abbas (1993) believes that the colonial legacy and the absence of a rival foreign language, both account for the power and prestige attached to English language in Pakistan. Hence, it is observed that parents from all social classes prefer sending their children to private English-medium schools instead of government-run Urdu-medium schools. However, despite the prevalent preference for English-medium education, college and university graduates do not really demonstrate an acceptable level of proficiency in English language. The reason behind this, in my observation, is that English is mainly taught as a subject in schools and colleges and not as a vehicle for communication. Another reason is likely to be that teachers follow the direct transmission model of teaching in which they try to 'transmit' the knowledge of English into students' heads.

The National Committee on English (NCE)

The Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan constituted the National Committee on English (NCE) in 2003 to address the concerns pertaining to the declining standards of ELT in higher education. Mansoor's (2005) study investigating the availability and quality of ELT resources in degree-awarding institutions revealed that the students and the teachers were generally dissatisfied with the ELT practices in higher education institutions. This dissatisfaction raised the need to establish English support programs in higher education institutions. She also highlighted the need to develop resources (textbooks and teaching materials) that are aligned to local contextual and cultural needs, update testing and assessment procedures, strengthen research and to set up online and CALL programs in ELT (ELTR 2004 available at www.hec.gov.pk).

The English Language Teaching Reforms Project (ELTR)

ELTR (2004) was the first exclusive English language-based project of Pakistan that was launched by the HEC following the recommendations of the NCE. It was aimed at effective and sustainable teacher development in ELT and research in the Pakistani higher education context. The project was also part of the vision 2020 plans.

The purpose of the ELTR (2004) project as identified by the HEC website is summarized below:

- To impart long/short-term professional development and training to higher education faculty teaching English Language and Literature.
- To provide training on research in order to enhance the research capacity of English faculty.
- To develop CALL expertise among English faculty for integration of information technology in teaching and learning and to set up Self Access Centers (SAC) in public sector universities.
- To train English faculty in designing and administering the latest testing techniques so that they are equipped to meet the demands of ongoing assessments in semester systems.
- To liaise with international experts in learning and assessment and organize their visits to Pakistan for knowledge imparting and facilitating a suitable model for education systems in Pakistan.

Under the banner of this project, several professional development courses, workshops, and seminars along with national and international conferences are regularly organized. Phase 1 of the ELTR project made a significant contribution toward the improvement of ELT and research standards by training 1,398 English language faculty from colleges and universities in the public sector. Faculty development through Continuous Professional Development (CPD) courses of varying durations aimed at the professional development of in-service ELT faculty in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) within Pakistan. Training courses offered through this project included areas such as Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), testing, evaluation, research skills, andragogical/pedagogical skills such as those associated with teaching practicum and communication, and a host of customized programs in areas related to ELT. These included English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP), English as a Second Language (ESL), and English Language Teaching (ELT).

The NCE administered the ELTR project goals through six subcommittees of which one was solely focused on CALL during the first phase of this project.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

The use of computers in the field of language learning is technically referred to as CALL, a term that Levy (1997: 1) defines as, 'the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning'. This early definition implies that computers were rarely used in language learning.

CALL, which can be either individualized or self-paced learning, is learner-centered rather than teacher-centered and focuses on facilitating the language learning process. It has been made possible following the invention and subsequent development of the ever-evolving computer technology. Although computers have been used in the field of ELT since the 1960s, CALL had no significant impact on the field until the advent of the internet, which provides ESL learners with instant access to authentic resources and the global community of English language speakers.

In the contemporary world where human lives are continually impacted by rapidly changing technology from kitchen gadgets to entertainment to travel to business, it is only natural to explore the possibilities to integrate it in the field of teaching and learning both inside and outside the classroom. Traditional teaching in developing countries such as Pakistan mostly entails a *push* or *transmissive* approach. Educational technology has the power to turn this to a *pull* or *constructive* approach to learning.

Language learners and teachers in the twenty-first century have access to a range of technologies that can be used in language learning and teaching. The manner in which various technologies are being implemented in classrooms worldwide has become central to language practice. Digital tools that are central to the field of CALL are now increasingly becoming a core part of ELT in general.

Educators are always keen to explore the impact of technology on the development of pedagogy. Blended Learning has evolved as a key methodology in the world of technology and language learning (Motteram & Sharma, 2009). When handled properly, a blended learning approach can be the best starting point for getting teachers to incorporate technology in their regular teaching practice. Up until 2020, most teachers have worked in physical classrooms. Motteram (2013) suggests that educators start looking into the ways in which classrooms can be supported or supplemented with technology. The pandemic arising in the first quarter of 2020 has been a good starting point not leaving much choice but to integrate technology into learning environments.

Objectives of the NCE's Sub-Committee on CALL

Anniqua Rana, one of the international consultants for the ELTR 2004 project, mentions the objectives of the CALL subcommittee in her CALL Report (Rana, 2007: 3) submitted to HEC. She writes, 'The CALL subcommittee has been working

with national and international experts in the field of integrating technology in language learning/teaching to:

- Provide training courses and workshops to ensure that teachers and students are computer literate and can access and make use of computers for language learning/teaching.
- Evaluate the success of the programs for ongoing improvements and replication in selected higher education institutions.
- Facilitate the provision of SACs with computers and internet facilities in model departments/centers in higher education institutions.
- Develop online ELT teacher training courses in conjunction with the subcommittee on teacher training.
- Provide access to distance/online language learning and testing via authentic language learning websites in coordination with the sub-committees on curriculum development and testing'.

Although all sub-committees including the CALL sub-committee of the NCE were dissolved once the first phase of the ELTR project was completed, the objectives of CALL training imparted during phase-II remained the same.

A Study to Analyze the Impact of the CALL Training Under ELTR (2004)

I embarked on this study at a time when the first phase of the ELTR project had been completed, and the second phase was halfway through. The research question that I had in mind was:

- What is the impact of CALL training on the use of computer technology for English language teaching in higher education institutions in Pakistan?

Research Population

The population of this study included:

- Members of the NCE's CALL sub-committee
- Resource persons of the CALL workshops
- International consultants on the CALL sub-committee as appointed by the HEC
- Teachers of higher education institutions who participated in the CALL workshops
- ELTR project teams.

All individuals who participated in this research were informed adult volunteers. The total number of CALL trainees during ELTR Phase-I (2004–2009) was 91

according to the HEC figures while 92 teachers were trained during Phase-II (2010–2014). This population was scattered across Pakistan since the CALL workshops were conducted in six major cities—Lahore, Karachi, Peshawar, Quetta, Multan, and Islamabad.

This study attempted to identify how technology is used in higher education ELT contexts in Pakistan and highlight some strengths and limitations of teachers in their engagement with CALL.

Research Methodology

A mixed-method research design was employed in this study to collect both quantitative (survey questionnaire) and qualitative (interviews and document analysis) data. One limitation of this study was that only 28 out of the 91 phase-I participants could be reached successfully as the HEC had maintained no contact with them following the training. However, phase-II data collection provided more information as HEC was able to provide the contact details of 64 out of the 92 participants from this phase.

The questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was thus administered to 92 CALL trained participants from both phases, and it was possible to interview a total of seven participants including trainers, consultants, and the ELTR project team members (see Appendix 2 for interview schedule).

The CALL progress report for training during the years 2005–2007 prepared by Anniqua Rana (available with the HEC) was also analyzed to evaluate the effectiveness of the training sessions conducted by the CALL sub-committee that was formed by the NCE during phase-I of the ELTR project. It is imperative to mention here that no such report existed for phase-II of the project.

Findings from the Study

Like all empirical research, this study yielded some positive (encouraging) as well as negative (alarming) findings, which are grouped under achievements and possibilities, challenges and future directions to consider.

Achievements and Possibilities

Teachers are Very Positive About the Place, Role, and Usefulness of CALL in ELT in Pakistan

There was absolutely no doubt among phase-II trainees about this statement. All of them confirmed that CALL indeed facilitates the language teaching and learning process in the class.

English Teachers Believe that CALL Offers Multiple Advantages for Language Learners

Expressing their views on students' autonomy in learning, 65% of the teachers trained in phase-I agreed that CALL makes learners independent and makes learning more student-centered helping them move away from the traditional teacher-centered lecture-based approaches. Participants in phase-II of the ELTR project gave approximately 10% more positive responses than those in phase-I.

Another area of interest that emerged was the usefulness (or otherwise) of CALL in improving the English language skills of students. Interestingly, 89% of the teachers from amongst phase-I participants confirmed that CALL helped their students improve in English language while only 11% were unsure about this. Phase-II participants, however, expressed no doubts about the potential of CALL in helping their students attain a better command of English language skills.

CALL Should Assist Traditional ELT Practice Rather Than Replace It

This study intended to investigate whether teachers desired a complete overhaul of the current ELT processes and practices so that CALL could replace traditional classroom teaching. Findings revealed a strong opposition to CALL replacing traditional English language classroom teaching in Pakistan both by ELTR training participants as well as resource persons. However, the percentage of those disagreeing with the idea of replacing traditional teaching with CALL dropped from 75% in phase-I to 50% in phase-II. This demonstrates the confidence that CALL-trained teachers developed in their ability to use technology for facilitating language learning and teaching.

Similarly, most of the ELTR project team members (except one) were in favor of replacing previous traditional teaching practices with innovative technology-facilitated learning. They indicated the desire to integrate computer technology in the existing English language curricula in Pakistan.

Teachers Are Satisfied with CALL Training Imparted by HEC Under ELTR

Upon investigating their satisfaction with the amount and quality of CALL training received, only 47% of the phase-I participants reported to be satisfied. However, the ratio of positive responses emerged to be a significant 73% among phase-II trainees. This is indicative of the fact that the government and HEC's efforts to train teachers did in fact bring about a positive change with the passage of time.

Challenges

CALL is not a Part of Assessment Procedures in Higher Education

90% of teachers trained in phase-I and 82% of those trained in phase-II confirmed that the final promotional/exit assessment of students was still paper-based at the time of this study. It is understood that there is a need to include a CALL component in the exit assessments for students in order to not neglect CALL in higher education by virtue of it not giving them any benefit in their final grades.

Training Colleagues/Fellow Teachers is not a Common Practice Among CALL Trained Teachers

Teachers who were trained as part of the ELTR project were clearly fortunate considering that it was not possible for HEC to nominate and train every single teacher at the time this project was launched. While there was an unspoken expectation from those who were trained to share their new knowledge with colleagues, the reality was far from satisfactory. Of those trained in phase-I of the project, only 54% had attempted to train colleagues or had shared any knowledge with them. On the other hand, among those trained in phase-II of the project, a mere 42% had actually made that effort toward sharing the knowledge gained with colleagues. It was alarming to note that trained teachers in higher education tended to retain valuable knowledge and skills and took no initiative to share information with fellow teachers.

I can verify this from personal experience at my own university where I was employed at the time and where teachers who had participated in CALL training courses did not share anything with other colleagues including me. Numerous colleagues even kept the fact that they had ever received any training in CALL when their role would have been of great help during the time that I was assigned to teach CALL courses in the postgraduate programs offered by the ELT department at the university. The interesting fact was that their names emerged in the CALL training participant data lists obtained from the HEC for this study.

English Language Classes Are Large, Heterogeneous, and Short in Duration

Large size classes are quite common in higher education contexts in Pakistan. 83% of the participants from phase-I and 72% from phase-II reported to have more than 30 students in each English class. Statistics pertaining to minimum class size verified these claims as 36% of the participants from phase-I and 33% from phase-II, respectively, reported to have more than 30 students as the minimum number.

Large, heterogeneous classes can hinder the effective use of CALL since it is not possible for the teacher to pay individual attention to each student in a class of limited duration. At least 37% of the participants from each phase reported having less than an hour for the English language class, which is clearly insufficient to satisfy the needs of the students using CALL. Hence, it is proven that classes of short duration with large numbers of students prove to be extremely difficult for teachers who can barely go beyond attendance taking and discussing a few points.

Minimal Use of AV Aids and Modern Technological Tools in ELT Classes

All the participants in this study confirmed the use of white/blackboard and marker/chalk as the basic teaching aids in their classes. An insignificant number of teachers made use of other resources such as bookshelves, notice boards, newspapers, handouts or worksheets etc. Less than 50% of the trained teachers employed technological devices such as a tape recorder, overhead projector, computer, internet connection, and multimedia projector. However, 27% of phase-I participants and 34% of phase-II participants, respectively, reported to have decreased the use of older technological tools such as the tape recorder and the overhead projector while phase-II participants definitely reported a slight increase in the use of multimedia projectors.

The use of printers attached to computers was also seen to come down to 14% among phase-II teachers whereas, almost 21% of phase-I teachers continued to use these. At any given time, it is noticeable, that use of the computer and internet connection in the class did not go beyond 50%. These figures are neither too discouraging nor too satisfactory. On average, approximately 21% of the teachers do not use any technological tools in their classes, which clearly demonstrates that they are not practicing CALL. Hence, all the time, energy, and resources spent on training them has not given the desired results so far.

Lack of Technological Resources and Support

An overall decrease was recorded in the on-campus availability of technological resources to phase-II participants, which appears critical given that technology is becoming commonplace with each passing day. Therefore, while these teachers

should have reported an improvement in the technological infrastructure available to them, this did not seem to be the case over the 5 years following their training.

Both trainee participants and trainers on the ELTR project unanimously expressed that there were hindrances in bringing about a substantial change in the field of ELT in Pakistan. Most participants perceived the lack of resources and infrastructure as an obstacle in introducing new trends in ELT. All stakeholders unanimously expressed the absence of financial support and material resources to be a hindrance experienced by learners, teachers, institutions, and HEC alike.

Lack of Institutional Support in Implementing CALL in ELT

In addition to the lack of resources and a decrease in funds received from the government and the HEC, teachers also complained about the lack of institutional support in introducing CALL for teaching English to their students. 50% of the phase-I participants and 61% of the phase-II participants cited a shortage of material resources in their institutions.

Research on CALL is Rare Among English Teachers

The figures pertaining to CALL-related publications are alarming both among phase-I (75%) and phase-II (91%) participants. There appears to be an urgent need to develop a research culture among the teaching faculty of colleges and universities in the country.

The Need for More Training in CALL

An alarming 72% of the respondents among both phase-I and phase-II teachers had participated in only one or two workshops during their entire teaching career. A total of 61% of the participants from phase-I and 25% from phase-II appeared to be unsure about whether they had received sufficient training to fulfill their professional goals and enhance their competence in ELT through CALL. On the other hand, about 7% of the participants in phase-I and 23% in phase-II clearly announced that they did not possess the competence required to be proficient CALL teachers. This large-scale uncertainty calls for more training to be organized both by HEC in its CPD program for English language teachers as well as individual institutions where possible. An overwhelming 100% of the teachers who participated in this research study expressed the need for organizing such training courses on a regular basis for continuity and sustainability.

Future Directions

The objective of this research was to analyze the current situation of CALL in ELT in Pakistani higher educational institutions and to present an unbiased picture of the impact of CALL training courses on ELT in the context. Findings from this study highlight the achievements of the ELTR project in CALL, the benefits of CALL training for English teachers as well as some shortcomings in the researched context.

This section suggests ways to overcome limitations and issues experienced by teachers and teacher trainers in implementing CALL in their ELT classrooms. There are also some suggestions to explore future possibilities of integrating modern computer technology in the field of ELT in Pakistan.

It is proposed that heads of institutions and English departments need to be made aware of the fact that CALL facilitates ELT practices so that they can facilitate their teachers in making use of the CALL training that teachers receive. There is a need to ensure that teachers who are given the opportunity to attend a particular training course are also encouraged to share their knowledge with colleagues to encourage a sustained impact of CALL training courses on a larger scale.

Research findings show that CALL is not a part of annual assessment procedures. It is imperative for courses on English language, literature, and ELT to include an assessment component based on CALL. Both students and teachers are likely to be inclined to take it more seriously when there is promotional weightage in the form of exams.

Computer labs or smart classrooms in proper working order should be available in every college and university. English language learners should be able to access computer labs or smart classrooms with multimedia and have internet facility to use CALL.

The ongoing ELTR project of HEC should provide financial and human resource support for initiating smart classrooms in institutions with limited resources and other infrastructural constraints. Such smart classrooms can act as models for implementing CALL practices in language classrooms with minimum resources. This will positively support the impact of CALL training on ELT.

There is also the need to arrange more training courses in CALL along with ongoing follow-up sessions for teachers. Those teachers who perform well in their institutions after being trained themselves need to be brought forward as 'master trainers' to make up for the shortage of trainers in the field of CALL.

College and university teachers should be encouraged to undertake follow-up training courses to become CALL specialists, based on their personal interest, strength in a discipline, and students' feedback. Universities need to encourage teachers through monetary or other incentives for promoting CALL in ELT.

A strong collaboration among the recipients of training on research methods and CALL is needed. Participants should share the acquired knowledge and skills to help one another. This will help in promoting research and innovation in CALL within ELT in Pakistan.

The HEC needs to maintain a proper database of CALL trained participants with a systematic follow-up on their performance post-training. The ELTR project should have the capacity to verify the impact of CALL practices in English language departments for the improvement of English language teaching and learning. It would help support larger numbers if the HEC, in collaboration with institutions initiated a mechanism to ensure that skills development is not restricted to the few teachers who got trained directly through CALL workshops. The heads of respective institutions should be made responsible to encourage and facilitate trained faculty to share knowledge by conducting short training workshops on campus for their colleagues. There should also be a mechanism for them to report success or otherwise of the process to the HEC.

A regular evaluation of the effectiveness of CALL training programs needs to be carried out to find out the strengths and weaknesses of training programs. Impact analysis reports of training workshops and cascading activities in institutions of higher education regarding CALL should be made public for the benefit of all stakeholders.

A CALL website and online groups need to be launched/activated immediately and teachers need to be informed and encouraged to make use of the resources available there to enhance their competence in CALL. Resource sharing among institutions and at the national level should be encouraged to facilitate post-training follow-up activities as well as the implementation of CALL practices in language classrooms.

More Self-Access Centers catering to the needs of ELTs involved in CALL should be established in higher education institutions across the country. These centers should be able to support CALL training, research and language teaching practices in classrooms.

As part of digital learning strategies for the twenty-first century learners, CALL-related seminars, international conferences, and workshops should be supported by the HEC to boost the impact of CALL teacher training courses. HEC should prepare a policy document to introduce CALL training as part of English language teachers' qualifications for a sustainable impact of CALL training courses.

Conclusion

The ELTR project launched by the HEC in Pakistan was initiated with a strategic mission and vision in 2004 and has come a long way since then. It has set new standards of innovation in English language teaching and learning in Pakistan by introducing CALL in public institutions of the country. This study attempted to highlight both its strengths and shortcomings, appreciating positive outcomes on one hand and suggesting remedial steps to address the limitations on the other. It also highlights the significance of devising a mechanism of regular monitoring and implementation of plans and training so that the efforts of all stakeholders bear results.

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for CALL Training Participants Teachers

Name: ________________________ **Designation: __________________________**

Institution: _____________________ **Training course attended: ________________**

Resource Person: ______________ **Duration and Year: ______________________**

Province: ❑ Islamabad ❑ Sind❑ Punjab ❑ KPK ❑ Balochistan

1. Gender ❑ Female ❑Male
2. Age ❑ 21-25 ❑26-30 ❑ 31-40 ❑41-50 ❑ 51-60 ❑ 61 or above
3. Maximum Class size: ❑ Fewer than 15 ❑ 16-20 ❑ 21-30 ❑ 31-45 ❑ 46-70 ❑ 71-100 ❑ 101-150 ❑ More than 150
4. Minimum class size: ❑ Fewer than 15 ❑ 16-20 ❑ 21-30 ❑ 31-45 ❑ 46-70 ❑ 71-100 ❑ 101-150 ❑ More than 150
5. Class duration: ❑ 45 mins ❑ 50 mins ❑ 60 mins ❑ 90 mins
6. English periods taught per week: ❑ 1-4 ❑ 5-9 ❑ 10-15 ❑ More than 15
7. Which of the following resources do you have in your English classroom? (more than one response is possible): ❑ Black/White board ❑ Chalk/white board marker ❑ Bookshelves/Cupboard ❑ Notice board(s) ❑ Other (Please specify)__________
8. Which educational technologies do you use in your English classroom? (more than one response is possible): ❑ Tape recorder ❑ Overhead projector ❑ Computer ❑ The Internet ❑ Multimedia projector ❑ Computer printer ❑ None of the above ❑ Other (Please Specify)_________
9. Which of the following technology resources do you have access to on your campus? (more than one response is possible): ❑ Photocopier ❑ Internet & World Wide Web ❑ E-mail ❑ Computer lab ❑ Language lab ❑ Video conferencing ❑ Other (Please specify) __________
10. Educational Level: ❑ Phd ❑ M.Phil ❑ M.A/ MSc ❑ Other (please specify)

11. ELT Qualification: ❑ MA/M.Ed ❑ Diploma / Advanced Diploma ❑ Certificate ❑ Other (please specify) _____________

12. Professional memberships: ❑ SPELT ❑ IATEFL ❑ TESOL ❑ Asia TEFL ❑ N/A ❑ Other (please specify) _____________

13. Experience of teaching English language at university level:
❑ 1-5 ❑ 6-10 ❑ 11-20 ❑ 21-30 ❑ 30 or above

14. ELT/CALL conferences attended: ❑ 1-2 ❑ 3-5 ❑more than 5 ❑None

15. CALL Workshops attended: ❑ 1-2 ❑ 3-5 ❑ more than 5 ❑ None

16. Publications related to CALL: ❑ 1-2 ❑ 3-5 ❑ more than 5 ❑ None

17. CALL training influenced my teaching methodology positively:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

18. I am more motivated towards my teaching after getting training in CALL:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

19. CALL training is important for English Language Teachers:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

20. CALL facilitates language teaching and learning process:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

21. I have trained colleagues in my institution after getting training in CALL:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

22. I still assess my students on the basis of written exams only for promotional exams:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

23. CALL training introduced me to new trends in ELT/ESP and Digital Learning:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

24. The traditional classroom teaching is no more needed if CALL is being practiced:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

25. Resources/ infrastructure is an issue in introducing technology in ELT classrooms in Pakistan: ❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

26. My institution supported me in introducing CALL in my ELT classroom/institution:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

27. I am satisfied with the amount and quality of the CALL training that I received at HEC:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

28. I have sufficient training to fulfill my professional goals and enhance my competence in:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

29. There should be more CALL training courses for English language teachers:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

30. There should be more CALL training courses for English language teachers:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

31. CALL helps me assess my students' English language skills:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

32. CALL helps students to improve their English language skills:
❑ Strongly agree ❑ Agree ❑ Unsure ❑ Disagree ❑ Strongly disagree

Appendix 2: Interview Questionnaire for the Resource Persons

Opinion of the Resource Persons and Coordinators of CALL Training Workshops conducted by ELTR Project of Higher Education Commission of Pakistan

Name: ______________________ **Designation:** ________________________

Institution: __________________ **Education:** __________________________

Experience: __________ **Resource Person in CALL Training Courses:** ______

1. How many professional associations are you a member of and since when?
2. How many training courses did you conduct during ELTR Phase-1/II?

3. Are you an active practitioner of CALL yourself?
4. Do you see a need for CALL to replace traditional classroom teaching in Pakistan?
5. When did you conduct CALL training course(s) and where?
6. What is your area of specialization and how did you use it in CALL workshops?
7. What were your objectives as Trainer in CALL workshops? Did you achieve those?
8. What teaching aids or methodology did you use as a resource person to make your course successful? Did you keep any backup of the material you used?
9. What is the feedback of participants during the course and upon completion?
10. Were the elements of the training course compatible with the current provisions of English Language Teaching in Pakistani colleges and universities?
11. Did you face any difficulties in motivating the trainees to use technology for teaching English at their institutions?
12. Do you have any contact with the people you trained? What kind of feedback do you get from the trainees? Are they practicing in their institutions what they learnt through CALL training course(s)?
13. What, in your opinion, are the strengths and limitations of introducing computer technology for improving the standards of English language teaching in Pakistan?

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Chapter 20
The Eclectic Approach in Teaching English for Communication

Fariha Asif and Intakhab Alam Khan

Abstract The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of the eclectic approach in teaching English for communication and for social interaction. A questionnaire was used to identify effective ways of teaching functional communication using communicative activities that form part of the eclectic approach. Data were collected from graduate students and teachers of select universities in Pakistan. Findings reveal that in comparison to other techniques, the eclectic approach is very effective in teaching communicative functions such as presentations, dialogues, and role-plays. The approach also proved to motivate students in both learning the rules as well as using them to communicate with others.

Keywords Communicative functions · Eclectic approach · Techniques in teaching English

Introduction

In Pakistan, English is generally taught using the classical 'grammar translation' approach in which students are made to study literary texts without paying attention to pronunciation and intonation patterns. This method does not follow the natural course of learning, i.e., listening and speaking skills. The students' role is passive, and their oral-aural skills remain quite dormant. This is contrary to the basic aim of learning a foreign language for communication. The real challenge is in preparing students to be able to use the language for communication and social interaction. This situation calls for the application of an appropriate teaching method, such as the eclectic approach, which focuses on developing the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills for enhanced communication.

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In using the eclectic approach, teachers combine the elements of traditional teaching methods with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) strategies. Rao (1996) believes that it is best to reconcile CLT approaches with traditional methods.

The Eclectic Approach in Teaching

Billah (2015) describes the eclectic approach as the label given to a teacher's use of techniques and activities from a range of language teaching approaches and methodologies. It involves the use of a variety of language learning activities, each of which may have very different characteristics and objectives. The different components of language (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, etc.) have no meaning when they are isolated from each other (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Mellow, 2000). The approach thus combines listening, speaking, reading, and writing and may include some practice in the classroom. It is the teacher that decides what methodology or approach to use depending on the aims of the lesson and the learners in the group.

Gao (2011) argues that the eclectic approach is preferred since it is a combination of different methods of teaching and learning, which makes it work for any kind of learners irrespective of age and standard. Learning seems fun and innovative with learners having a clear vision of what they are learning. Multiple tasks, high interaction, lively learning, and fast results are the salient features of this method. The eventual purpose of the eclectic method is to connect real-life experiences to the ideas presented in the learning of the language.

Background to the Study

This study intends to investigate the role of the eclectic approach in teaching English for communication where grammar is viewed not as a set of rules but as a resource for communication. The eclectic approach explores ways in which English grammar enables speakers and writers to represent their experience of the world, to interact with one another, and to create coherent messages. When learners are able to perform the communicative functions that they need, they achieve communicative competence in the language. This means they not only acquire the ability to correctly apply grammatical rules of the language but also the knowledge of when, where, and who to use these rules with.

Statement of the Problem

The objectives of this study are as follows:

i. To elicit information about teaching English for communicative functions through employing the eclectic approach in graduate classes.
ii. To identify the most effective way/s of teaching functional communication and social interaction with the help of communicative activities using the eclectic approach.
iii. To give suggestions and recommendations for improving the use of the eclectic approach in teaching communicative functions.

With this intent, the aim of the study was to explore whether English language teachers in Pakistani universities employed the eclectic approach in teaching English for communication, their awareness of the benefits associated with this approach, and the role of the eclectic approach in teaching English for communicative functions in Pakistani graduate classes.

Literature Review

This section provides an overview of existing literature pertaining to the use of the eclectic approach in ELT, an overview of communicative functions of a language, and some insight into the methods, approaches, and techniques employed in CLT. All these elements are discussed within the realm of ELT for communication.

English Language Teaching Concepts

Methods

Biloon (2016) quite recently investigated the eclectic method and discovered that the specific needs and learning styles of learners were better catered to using this approach. A series of skills assessments revealed that through the use of the eclectic approach, learners were able to internalize, use and remember the information given to them quicker because the method was adapted to their individual learning styles and needs.

In this connection, Li (2012) explains how it is not possible to employ a single approach to successfully teach all the skills or to cater to the individual needs of students. Therefore, it is necessary as a teacher to employ the eclectic approach. ESL students in universities normally do not have a lot of time to learn a foreign language. However, despite investing fewer hours into the language learning process, they generally expect to be as successful as they would be when investing a lot more

time into their language learning. Billah (2015) clarifies that the eclectic method in language teaching allows for this to happen by combining the strengths of different methods, competences, and pedagogies.

The use of the mother tongue or L1 (first language) in learning a foreign language has been successively either emphasized and implemented or required but barely tolerated or even at times banned by institutions. There are as many methods and approaches in practice as there are linguists and pedagogues themselves. These include but may not be limited to the direct method, the natural method, the psychological method, the phonetic method, the reading method, the grammar-translation method, the unit method, the audio-lingual approach, the cognitive method, and, last but not least, the eclectic approach.

Approaches

An approach refers to something like a general theory or research paradigm. Richards and Rodgers (2001) define the term 'approach' as referring to those assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language teaching and language learning, which operate as axiomatic constructs on reference points and provide a theoretical foundation for what language teachers ultimately do with learners in the classroom. Anthony (1963) believes that an 'approach' is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. It is axiomatic and describes the nature of the subject to be taught.

Techniques

A technique refers to the implementation of a particular trick, strategy, or contrivance in the classroom that is used to accomplish an immediate objective. It must be consistent with a method, and therefore, in harmony with an approach as well (Anthony, 1963).

Communicative Language Teaching or CLT

This is an approach used in the teaching of second and foreign languages, which emphasizes interaction as both the means and the goal of learning a language. Richards (2005: 2) advocates a broad set of principles associated with CLT such as:

- learners learn a language when they use it to communicate
- the goal of classroom activities should be authentic and meaningful communication
- fluency is an important dimension of communication
- communication involves the integration of different language skills

- learning is a process of creative construction that involves trial and error.

The Eclectic Approach

This approach does not rigidly hold on to a set of assumptions or conclusions, rather it draws upon multiple theories to gain complementary insights into phenomena or applies only certain theories in particular cases. Both Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Mellow (2000) employ the term ‘principled eclecticism’ to describe a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language teaching. Eclecticism involves the use of a variety of language learning activities, each of which may have very different characteristics and may be motivated by different underlying assumptions.

Within a variety of educational areas, the principled combination of different activities has also been referred to as eclectic. This is summarized in Fig. 20.1.

Yan et al. (2007) reviewed previous studies on principled eclecticism in ELT at universities in China (for example, Wang, 2001). Their case study reveals that eclecticism and principled eclecticism have been widely accepted and practiced with or without the college English teachers’ awareness of the methodological issues and that principled eclecticism in Intensive English Language Programs (IELP) is ‘warmly welcomed by the students and fruitful in effect’ (Yan et al., 2007: 13).

Wali (2009) suggests that teachers should be well prepared for an organized lesson presentation for smooth delivery as they play an active role in the management of learning with learners being actors in the learning process.

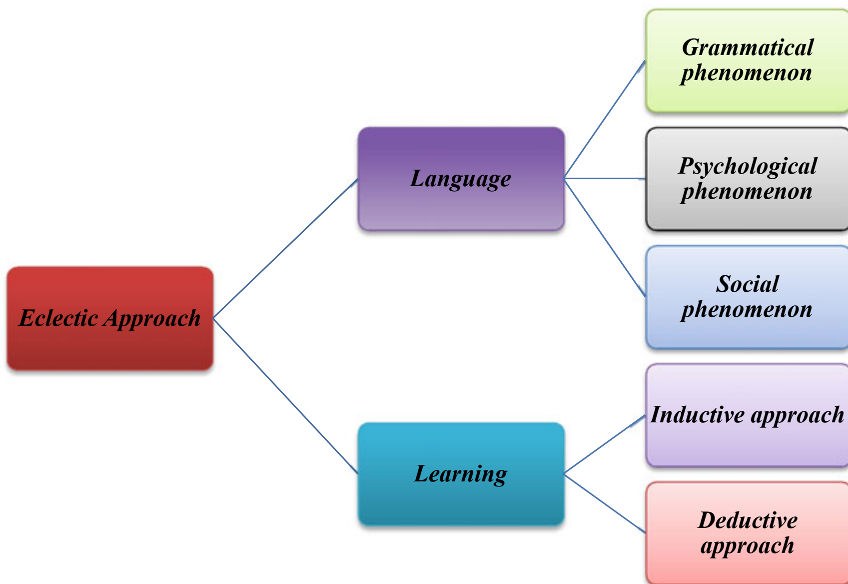

Fig. 20.1 The eclectic approach

Gao (2011) contends that the introduction of the College English Curriculum Requirements (CECR, 2004)—a new mandatory policy for the teaching of English in higher education in China—was aimed at modernizing and improving the quality of ELT. The policy has a focus on student-centered approaches to learning along with technology integration to make the process more effective. Siddiqui (2012) compares the three approaches in ELT—direct, communicative, and eclectic before concluding that the eclectic approach is the most effective approach as it gives teachers the freedom to absorb the best techniques of all the well-known methods and approaches.

Among the advantages of employing the eclectic approach in ELT, Kumar (2013:1–4) mentions the following:

- it is easier for learners to understand the language of the text in its cultural context
- it blends listening, speaking, reading, and writing
- it helps teachers to teach effectively by drawing on the strengths of various methods and by avoiding their weaknesses
- learning is easy due to the use of realistic situations in the classroom.

Qaiser and Ishtiaq (2016) investigated the effect of the eclectic approach in ELT on the academic achievement and retention of students in elementary classes and found it to be more productive, effective, and successful in comparison to traditional learning/teaching approaches. Mwanza (2017) is of the opinion that the eclectic approach to language teaching has become common and fashionable in modern language teaching.

This chapter elaborates on the conceptions of the eclectic approach and discusses some commonly held misconceptions about the method. For instance, one of the misconceptions held by some teachers in this study was that the eclectic approach refers to the simultaneous use of more than one teaching method in a single lesson.

Communicative Functions of a Language

Communicative functions in a language refer to acts of speech that are functionally organized (i.e., an attempt to do something) for a particular situation in relation to a particular topic, including the extent to which a language is used in a community. In the English language, there are fixed formulae to perform communication. For example, in order to acknowledge an introduction, we say, 'How do you do?' We cannot use the expression, 'How does she do?', or 'How did you do?' Such fixed formulae for communication exist in other languages too, however, perhaps in different social situations. Jakobson (1960) distinguishes between six communication functions, each associated with a dimension of the communication process (Fig. 20.2).

Tribus (2017) summarizes communicative functions as involving;

- talking about oneself, asking about the other person, or starting a conversation
- questioning techniques, answering techniques, or probing techniques to gather further information

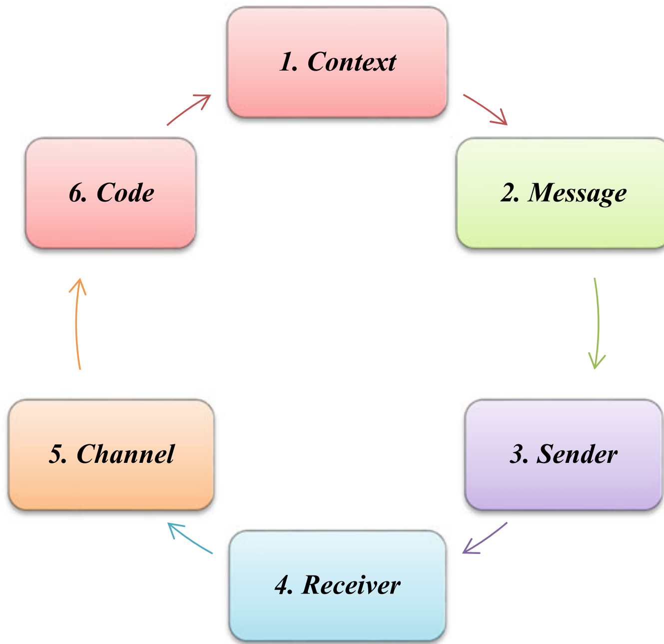

Fig. 20.2 Dimensions of the communication process

- attracting someone's attention or requesting something
- in-conversation techniques such as hesitating, holding the floor, or bringing in another speaker
- describing past experiences
- talking about the future, stating intentions, or discussing the probability
- offering to do something, asking permission, or giving reasons
- giving opinions, or agreeing, or disagreeing with someone's opinion
- describing things, people, and places
- talking about similarities, differences, and/or preferences
- making suggestions, giving advice, or persuading
- complaining or apologizing.

Methodology

This section provides an overview of the research design of the study, the sample, research instruments, and data collection techniques employed.

Research Design

The descriptive research method (Koh & Owen, 2000) was employed in order to collect data and to answer questions concerning the current status of participants in the study.

Sample Population

A group of 50 English language teachers teaching graduate learners at both public and private universities in Lahore, Pakistan formed the sample for this study. Thirty-three of the teachers were female, and 17 were male. All teachers were post-graduates with 5–10 years of experience in teaching graduate students. Sixteen of them were certified post-graduate diploma holders in ELT and TESOL.

Research Instrument and Data Collection

A 14-item survey was designed and administered with the intent of determining the usefulness of the eclectic approach in teaching communicative functions to graduate ESL students. The survey included dichotomous questions that required a yes/no, true/false, or agree/disagree response. It was administered in one sitting to 50 teachers who willingly participated in the study.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

In this section, each question is presented and analyzed to report the percentage of responses received from 50 teachers (Table 20.1).

Responses to the first question revealed that a significant 76% of the teachers were familiar with the 'eclectic approach' while at least 18% had no knowledge of the approach (Table 20.2).

Table 20.1 Familiarity with the eclectic approach

Question 1: Are you familiar with the eclectic approach, which is to take the best from a variety of methodologies and dump the rest?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	38	76
	No	9	18
	To some extent	3	6
	Total	**50**	**100**

Table 20.2 Experience in using the eclectic approach

	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
Question 2: Have you ever taught communicative functions through this approach?	Yes	37	74
	No	10	20
	To some extent	3	6
	Total	**50**	**100**

Table 20.3 Specific activities in use

	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
Question 3: Do you use activities focused on making requests, giving directions, apologizing, congratulating, expressing, etc.?	Yes	40	80
	No	9	18
	To some extent	1	2
	Total	**50**	**100**

Almost 74% of the teachers were already engaged in teaching communicative functions using the eclectic approach, while only 20% of the teachers still used traditional teaching methods (Table 20.3).

An overwhelming 80% of the teachers indicated that they used communicative activities in their lessons to teach specific functions of the English language. On the other hand, only 18% of the teachers indicated that they did not employ communicative activities in teaching English, while a negligible 2% of the teachers employed communicative activities to some extent only (Table 20.4).

It was revealed that a significant 86% of the English language teachers who participated in this study agreed that employing the eclectic approach was useful in teaching communicative language functions. Only 10% of them disagreed while a mere 4% believed that it was not effective all the time (Table 20.5).

Quite significantly, 86% of the teachers surveyed appeared to be in favor of exploiting the communication and social interaction aspects of language learning in order to develop students' skills. Only 10% of the teachers disagreed, which gave higher weightage to affirming language teaching and learning having the potential to build interactions (Table 20.6).

76% of the survey respondents believed that interactive activities such as role-play, presentations, and dialogue practice were effective in enhancing communication

Table 20.4 Perceived effectiveness of the eclectic approach

	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
Question 4: Do you feel that the eclectic approach is effective in teaching these types of communicative functions?	Yes	43	86
	No	5	10
	To some extent	2	4
	Total	**50**	**100**

Table 20.5 Using language as an instrument

Question 5: Do you agree that language should be used as an instrument for communication and social interaction?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	43	86
	No	5	10
	To some extent	2	4
	Total	**50**	**100**

Table 20.6 Improved communication

Question 6: Do activities such as role-play, presentations, and dialogues help to improve communication between students?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	38	76
	No	5	10
	To some extent	7	14
	Total	**50**	**100**

among students. By contrast, only 10% of the respondents appeared to not favor this concept whereas 14% thought that interactive learning at times was helpful (Table 20.7).

Most of the teachers (78%) who responded to the survey believed that social interaction beyond the classroom enhanced language learning. Very few teachers (about 10%) disagreed while 12% believed external social interaction to be somewhat helpful (Table 20.8).

Most of the teachers (76%) acknowledged that they thought it was important for them to be aware of all the techniques and procedures that are helpful in handling unexpected situations in a class. However, 16% felt it was not necessary to be prepared

Table 20.7 Learning through social interaction

Question 7: Do you think that the chances of learning increase with social interaction?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	39	78
	No	5	10
	To some extent	6	12
	Total	**50**	**100**

Table 20.8 Teachers' knowledge of techniques

Question 8: Do you agree that a teacher should have enough knowledge and experience of useful techniques and procedures in class?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	38	76
	No	8	16
	To some extent	4	8
	Total	**50**	**100**

Table 20.9 Effect of the eclectic approach on students

Question 9: Does teaching using the eclectic approach enable students to express themselves precisely and clearly in the newly learned language?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	34	68
	No	10	20
	To some extent	6	12
	Total	**50**	**100**

for on the spot crisis management whereas 8% were in favor of this aspect to some extent (Table 20.9).

Participant responses to this question indicate that most of the teachers (68%) are in the favor of the eclectic approach in that it improves students' ability to express themselves clearly using the newly acquired language. Only 20% of the teachers refused to consider the eclectic approach as a useful strategy that helps improve the target language (Table 20.10).

An impressive 80% of the teachers affirmed that they employed communicative activities in class in order to teach functional communication skills. A small percentage of teachers, i.e., 14% did not engage in using communicative activities in class (Table 20.11).

70% of the teachers believed that their students used the communicative functions taught in class on the specific occasions that they had observed. About 10% of teachers thought that their students did not use any of the communicative functions that had been taught in class. Almost 20% of the teachers believed that they had observed students use these to some extent. It was interesting to observe that more teachers than not believed that they had seen at least some practice of the communication functions following lessons. This indicates that there are some values to employing communicative activities in teaching functional communication skills (Table 20.12).

Table 20.10 Approach to teaching functional communication

Question 10: Do you teach functional communication with the help of communicative activities in your class?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	40	80
	No	7	14
	To some extent	3	6
	Total	**50**	**100**

Table 20.11 Students' use of communicative functions

Question 11: Do students use communicative functions on specific occasions?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	35	70
	No	5	10
	To some extent	10	20
	Total	**50**	**100**

Table 20.12 Effect on student motivation

Question 12: Does a technique motivate students to communicate/interact with others?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	35	70
	No	6	12
	To some extent	9	18
	Total	**50**	**100**

Table 20.13 Impact of the eclectic approach on coherent communication

Question 13: Does the eclectic approach explore ways of communication that enable speakers and writers to create coherent messages?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	35	70
	No	5	10
	To some extent	10	20
	Total	**50**	**100**

Most teachers (70%) argued that their students appeared more motivated to communicate with others when teachers employed communicative techniques in their teaching, and this created a rather interactive learning environment. Interestingly, while 18% of the teachers were somewhat inclined to this train of thought, a very low percentage, i.e., only 12% believed that no special techniques were required to motivate students to interact any more than they already did (Table 20.13).

A great number of (70%) of the teachers agreed that the eclectic approach toward teaching explores ways of imparting communicative functions, which are helpful in creating meaningful messages. A small percentage (10%) denied this possibility whereas 20% of teachers held the middle ground (Table 20.14).

Most of the teachers (60%) were of the view that the eclectic approach was fairly easy to employ in their teaching. Only 28% of them felt it was complicated thereby raising its appeal in teaching communicative functions.

Table 20.14 Complexity of the eclectic approach

Question 14: Does the appeal of the eclectic approach seem to be complicated in use?	Teachers' responses	Number of teachers	% of responses
	Yes	14	28
	No	30	60
	To some extent	6	12
	Total	**50**	**100**

Discussion and Recommendations

The main purpose of this research was to explore the practice and understanding of the eclectic approach in ESL classes in the Pakistani undergraduate context. The study also aimed at investigating whether the eclectic approach made teaching English for communication effective in the context.

Findings revealed that a majority of the teachers were generally familiar with the eclectic approach and were already engaged in teaching using this approach. Very few teachers seemed to be teaching using traditional methods. Those who implemented the eclectic teaching approach were actively engaged in incorporating communicative activities in their lessons which they perceived to be a very effective approach in teaching communicative language functions.

A significant number of teachers also perceived the eclectic approach as instrumental in developing social interaction skills through interactive activities such as role-play, presentations, and dialogue practice. They also saw immense value in social interaction beyond the classroom as it enhanced English language learning and students' ability to express themselves clearly using the newly acquired language. They even affirmed observing students feeling motivated enough to employ the communicative functions taught in class.

It is, thus, clear that the eclectic approach was perceived to impact positively on communication skills development in English language and was generally perceived to be fairly easy to employ in teaching. It came as no surprise that teachers with ELT backgrounds showed positive attitudes toward employing the eclectic approach whereas other teachers showed less interest.

What emerges from this small-scale study is that teachers need to be trained as well as continually keep up to date with the teaching methodologies associated with the eclectic approach. Institutions need to ensure that such activities that encourage learning through social interaction are implemented in the classroom. This calls for training teachers in teaching through interactive activities and engaging students in authentic situations that they might need to use the target language in. This would not only make learning meaningful but also prepare both students and teachers to practice and experience learning difficulties that may arise in authentic situations. Audio-visual aids can be a strong source of teaching that help reduce the need for teaching using the translation method. These can help view/listen to the target language in use, then help them through activities that encourage mimicking or repeating the language structures. The aim is to implement approaches in ELT that can engage students in 'wanting to learn' rather than 'having to learn'.

Conclusions

Results from this study show that the eclectic approach is effective in teaching communicative functions especially through the use of socially interactive activities focusing on real-life situations. It is also evident that qualified English language teachers favor the eclectic approach more as compared with those who are untrained or have little knowledge of ELT. The majority of teachers among those surveyed for this study believe that this approach should be implemented in all schools.

It is apparent that teachers who teach using communicative activities find that they can motivate their students more and that their students learn better from social interaction. Techniques such as presentations, dialogues, and role-play proved to be effective for teaching functional communication through communicative activities. These techniques also motivate students not only in learning language rules but also in using them to communicate with others. The role of the eclectic approach is thus especially useful and effective in the teaching of communicative functions at the secondary level. In future research, it would be useful to explore the perceptions and experiences of students about the eclectic approach in ELT and its associated benefits in learning the target language effectively as well as to explore teachers' narratives about having used the approach in their classrooms.

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Chapter 21
Language Pedagogy: An Evaluation of Oral Communication Skill Materials in Secondary School ELT Books in Pakistan

Saima Nomaan

Abstract This chapter evaluates the Oral Communication Skills (OCS) materials presented in two prominent English language coursebooks that are used in grade 10 classes of state and private schools in Pakistan, respectively. A *first glance* and *in-depth* evaluation (McGrath, in Materials evaluation and design for language teaching, Edinburgh University Press, 2002) of the two coursebooks was carried out in this study to investigate the presence or absence of a balance among the four language skills materials; the suitability and effectiveness of the coursebooks; and the similarities or differences among the two textbooks. It emerges that the coursebook used in private schools is superior in terms of defining and specifying its aims and objectives, content, and the inclusion and presentation of OCS materials. The chapter concludes with suggestions aimed at improving the English OCS pedagogy in secondary schools in Pakistan.

Keywords Coursebook · Materials evaluation · Oral communication skills (OCS)

Background

Proficiency in oral communication skills (OCS) such as listening, and speaking is crucial in language pedagogy not only for communicative purposes but also for several general and discipline-specific pedagogical functions. Similarly, the importance of quality and appropriately authentic and effective OCS materials in textbooks cannot be denied. Keeping this in mind, the study analyses two English language textbooks, one of which is used in grade 10 classes in state schools and the other in private schools in Pakistan. The OCS materials and activities presented in the two coursebooks are evaluated for the balance of the four language skills and their usefulness, effectiveness, and appropriacy against the standards specified in the National Curriculum. The chapter also proposes some measures to improve the situation of English Language Teaching (ELT) in secondary schools in Pakistan.

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English as a Global Language

English as the *lingua-franca* of the world is the mother tongue of over 375 million people worldwide and has 1.5 billion speakers. It is the most widely taught foreign language and is also the official language of the United Nations, numerous international organizations, and aerial as well as maritime communications. Because of its growth and absorption of aspects of cultures worldwide, English is no longer exclusive to native English speakers. Instead, it is now the 'primary vehicle of international communication' (Haque, 2000: 15).

Importance of English Language in Pakistan

Pakistan is a multilingual country with six major and over 59 regional languages. Along with the national language *Urdu* (the *lingua-franca* in Pakistan), English is the co-official language and is taught as a compulsory subject at all educational levels. It is widely used in the government, judiciary, and legislature. Pakistan's constitution and laws are codified in English. Hence, as the language of major policy documents, English is widely used in business, industry, and economy, for information technology and sociological/statistical purposes.

However, its usage is both highly important and controversial in Pakistan. On one hand, the use of English has rendered it of vital importance for Pakistan in international communication, business, technological advancement, research and development, and in the Islamic world where Pakistan holds a prominent place. On the other hand, it remains debatable because of its association with the imperialist ruling elite in the past, its cultural influence, the linguistic and ethnic diversity in Pakistan, and the sentimentalism associated with the linguistic identities of individual groups (Rahman, 2005).

English Language in Education in Pakistan

English was introduced in the sub-continent in the eighteenth century with the establishment of the British rule. To preserve, enhance and sustain their power, the British regime created the need to acquire English language in domains such as education, politics, business, the forces, judiciary, and the media. The Anglicist lobby created a two-stream language education policy for Indians:

- one for the feudal elite who were educated through the medium of English in private schools
- another for the masses who were taught through the vernaculars in public schools.

This made English the language of power, a marker of the elite status, and a marker of the urban and middle-class identity, which created English and vernacular-medium (i.e. Urdu medium) schools, which remain to date in Pakistan (Mahboob, 2002).

English language as the *gatekeeper to positions of prestige in societ*y (Pennycook, 1995) is now considered as the vehicle for achieving modernization, scientific, technological, and economic advancement. It is seen to promote success and upward mobility (Shamim, 2011), national progress and is also perceived to be a symbol of upper class sophistication (Mansoor, 1993; Rahman, 2002). With the rise of global electronic media and globalization, English language serves as the 'gateway to success, to further education and to white-collar jobs' (Ghani, 2003: 105).

Following these influences and as a result of the two-stream education policy in pre-partition British India, an apartheid educational system based on social stratification came into existence. Ironically, after 73 years of independence, the system with English/Urdu-medium divide still exists with essentially four types of schools that provide education to upper, middle, and lower classes of society in Pakistan:

i. State or public schools offering education from grade 1 to 10—They follow the national curriculum, textbooks prescribed by the provincial textbook boards, and an annual examination system. These schools are administered by either the federal or provincial governments
ii. Semi-government schools offering education from kindergarten to grade 12—They follow the same curriculum and examinations as the state schools while also offering the IGCSE O and A-level examinations. These schools are also considered public schools but with some degree of autonomy and are under the administration of the Armed Forces
iii. Private sector schools including both local and international private schools do not necessarily follow the national curriculum. Instead, they use internationally published textbooks and follow international examination systems such as the GCE, GCSE, O, and A-Levels and/or Cambridge examination systems
iv. 'Madrassah' schools mainly provide religious education, especially in Islamic law and other subjects associated with it.

The medium of education in state schools and Madrassah schools is generally Urdu, whereas all semi-government and private schools use English as the medium of instruction. Except for 'Madrassah' schools, all other schools teach English as a compulsory subject from classes 1 to 12.

ELT and English Language Competence in Secondary Schools in Pakistan

ELT in Pakistan has always been text-based with English being taught through the grammar-translation method in state schools, and through immersion in private schools. Students in all schools are multilingual often speaking more than two languages, i.e., their regional language as L1, Urdu as L2 (the national language),

and English as L3 (EFL/ESL). Secondary schools in both streams of education are a mix of co-educational institutions as well as segregated due to ethnocultural and religious reasons. The age group of students is between 14 and 16 years of age. Passing the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) or Matriculation examination is mandatory before pursuing further education, such as the Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC) or bachelors' education.

Private schools are representative of affluent students from the higher strata of society who can afford quality and expensive education. State schools, on the other hand, represent middle or lower-class students who acquire free education and textbooks until secondary school after which they pay nominal fee. Semi-government schools and those run by the armed forces offer affordable education (O-levels, SSC, and Matric Examination). 'Madrassah' schools cater to lower or lower middle-class students who are provided with free of cost food, clothing, and religious education. Because of better financial resources, the condition of private schools is much better as compared with the state or public schools. That is why the term *English medium* has become synonymous with quality education in well-resourced schools.

State Schools

Despite the fact that English is taught from classes 1 to 12 in state schools and in the 4-year bachelor's education in Pakistan, the level of competence attained is relatively low (GOP, 2006). General practice involves encouraging students to engage in rote-learning and memorization of grammatical rules without any real understanding. Strategies such as translation of passages from English to Urdu and vice-versa, and memorizing exam focused content from guidebooks help learners pass the exam without acquiring any actual knowledge or any real competence in English. OCS activities are hardly practiced or incorporated into writing and reading skills. Moreover, varying levels of code-switching are found in classroom discourse especially since a combination of English, Urdu, and local languages is used for ELT in the non-elite private schools. Therefore, the percentage of students that pass English courses remains relatively low in public schools as compared to Urdu and other subjects.

Informal conversations and observations reveal that students of Urdu-medium schools still struggle with translating sentences from English to Urdu and get along in conversations using the few basic sentences that they have learnt. Even though the English medium schools administered by the armed forces provide students with some oral practice in the English language, their medium of private conversation remains Urdu and neither students nor teachers use English for communicative purposes (Alam & Bashir Uddin, 2013). However, students of these institutions gain much more competence in English than those in Urdu-medium schools.

Researchers highlight several issues engulfing ELT in state schools in Pakistan that involve pedagogy, infrastructure, and policies (Asghar & Butt, 2018; Hussain, 2017; Mansoor, 2002; Nasreen et al., 2009; Nawab, 2012; and Shamim & Allen, 2000). These include:

- teaching English as a subject, generally through literature, with little focus on communication and hence students' incapability in developing OCS
- uninteresting teacher-centered classroom environments that involve one-way teaching through monotonous lectures
- non-differentiated and collective teaching with minimal student participation
- more emphasis on language usage, emphasizing accuracy over fluency
- minimum practice and classroom discourse using L2 which results in limited use and limited proficiency
- L1 influence and lack of English phonetics pedagogy resulting in diverse pronunciation variations between students and teachers
- the difference between L1 and L2 culture, context, vocabulary, and grammatical structures hindering fluency and accuracy
- non-conformant syllabus and textbooks with repeated, faulty and uninteresting content
- large classes and unsuitable infrastructure for severe weather conditions
- unavailability of appropriate audio-visual teaching aids or educational technology
- inadequate teacher-training programs
- annual examination systems that focus on testing students' memory, not knowledge and hence encourage students to engage in exam-focused rote-learning (focus on information, not knowledge or its application)
- inadequate check-and-balance in the teaching and learning process and general oversight of organizational rules
- continually changing curriculum and language policies
- poor financial condition of state schools and ill-implementation of education policies with small fund allocations in the national budget.

Private Schools

In comparison to state schools, students of private elitist English-medium schools produce varying degrees of satisfactory competence and proficiency in English. Students generally belong to the elite class where English is spoken either as a necessity or as a status symbol both at home and at school. They also have greater exposure to English language at school through peer groups, media, and attractively designed reading materials written by native speakers of English. As a result, students also have ample opportunities to participate in extra-curricular activities that encourage the spontaneous use of OCS in English language along with ongoing testing and refining of these skills. Classroom communication is in English as immersion is the general ELT practice. As a result of this, their oral fluency and proficiency is relatively higher than learners in non-elite private and state schools, thus, providing them with better career prospects as well.

Students in private schools are thus exposed to better infrastructure, small class sizes, and trained teachers who incorporate differentiated learning. They have access to modern audio-visual teaching aids and up-to-date international textbooks. Private schools engage in contemporary assessment systems and provide students with L2

immersion through maximum opportunities to practice English both inside and outside the classroom. As a result, students develop better language fluency and accuracy in comparison to their counterparts in state schools. With the evident discrepancy between the learning environments of students in private and state schools, there is a desperate need for reform in the existing principles and practices of language pedagogy in Pakistan.

Literature Review

Oral Communication Skills (OCS): Role and Importance in Language Pedagogy

Oral Communication Skills (OCS) as the amalgamation of 'listening' and 'speaking' involve the integration of *communicative fluency* (the ability to express concepts and meanings successfully); *grammatical accuracy* (the ability to pronounce and construct correctly); and *effective listening comprehension* (Jones et al., 1988).

Effective OCS are imperative for successful academic and professional functioning. Hence, the central role of OCS in L2 pedagogy, both as a learning tool and its outcome, cannot be emphasized enough because for L2 learners the ability to understand what is heard and to generate an adequate response is of prime importance. The main goal of these skills is to enable students to communicate and interact with each other for *linguistic survival* in technical disciplines at higher educational levels and eventually in business and commerce (Howe, 2003).

Coursebook Evaluation: Theoretical Perspectives and Principles

Coursebooks are textbooks owned and used by the teacher and learner 'in principle to be followed systematically as the basis for a language course' (Ur, 1996: 183). Coursebooks, having a syllabus-related framework, ready-made texts, and tasks, are a convenient resource to help learners become autonomous. While some consider coursebooks as, 'skilfully marketed masses of rubbish' (Stern, 1992: 352) that promote a culture of dependency, others emphasize the choice and suitability of coursebooks acknowledging them as 'valid, labor-saving tools' (Sheldon, 1988: 237), which provide sources of comprehensible input (Saidi & Mokhtarpour, 2019) and useful frameworks for language teachers and learners.

Carter and Nunan (2001) propose that coursebooks and teaching materials should include a selection of interesting, challenging, varied and authentic materials with well-structured and creative tasks, which provide learners with opportunities to use listening and speaking strategies thereby allowing the integration of OCS with other

skills. Hence, making informed and appropriate coursebook choices based on careful analysis and evaluation of materials is crucial.

The term *evaluation* in language pedagogy refers to the feedback, examination, or appraisal of various elements either in a syllabus or a coursebook and their suitability for the particular group of learners. *Materials evaluation* refers to the appraisal of the value of materials in relation to their objectives for learners using them (Tomlinson, 2011: xiv) and involves judgments about their effectiveness. Likewise, *coursebook evaluation* refers to an 'analytical matching process of needs to available solutions' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 97), based on *analysis* and *evaluation*, where the former refers to a process, which leads to an objective and the latter refers to making judgments (Littlejohn, 1998). The process of evaluation helps to identify the weaknesses and strengths of a coursebook and consequently improve upon the materials included, as well as the length and content of language courses. It also benefits students by providing them with improved learning materials that enable them to enhance their language skills. Hence, the importance of evaluating materials for the selection of appropriate coursebooks is essential.

Littlejohn (1998) proposes a *three-level analysis* of coursebooks based on *what the materials say about themselves* by looking at what is there; what is required of users; and what is implied. Similarly, Cunningsworth (1995) presents three methods of course book evaluation:

- the *Impressionistic method,* which is a general overview of the aims and content of the materials
- the *Checklist method*, which involves preparation of checklists for the identification, comparison, and verification of materials, and,
- the *In-depth method*, which involves linguistic, social, and topical dimensions of evaluation. This method evaluates the important components of lessons; the quality of strength, lightness, and transparency of materials; and focuses on specific features and procedures to see if the materials 'live up to the claims made for them' (McGrath, 2002: 28).

Cunningsworth (1995) proposes the checklists for evaluating speaking and listening materials that feature as a research tool in this study. Sheldon (1988) suggests *coursebook criteria* for purpose and McDonough and Shaw (2003) propose *external* and *internal* evaluation of coursebooks based on the obvious features mentioned in the blurb of the respective coursebook and in the table of contents. Ellis (1997) favors *predictive and retrospective* evaluation, involving evaluation before selecting a coursebook; the *in-use* evaluation (keeping in view learner involvement, background, objectives, and the resources available); and the *post-use* evaluation, involving decisions to continue the use of the coursebook or to abandon it based on the assessment of its continual use over a specific period.

McGrath (2002) favors the integration of both the *impressionistic* and *checklist* methods and proposes a two-phase *armchair evaluation* that includes:

- a preliminary armchair or *first-glance evaluation which is* synonymous with *external* and *impressionistic* evaluation

- a second-stage armchair evaluation or *in-depth evaluation* for deeper analysis and to discover the authors' beliefs and assumptions; the 'hidden agenda' (Nunan, 1989) about learning; the coverage of linguistic items and language skills, and to test the claims made for materials.

  McGrath's (2002) acronym CATALYST identifies evaluation criteria as follows:

  C Communicative
  A Aims
  T Teachability
  A Available add-ons
  L Level
  Y Your impression
  S Student interest
  T Tried and tested.

In this sense, the similarity between *micro-evaluation* for a specific aspect of the curriculum becomes evident and provides a sound basis to investigate and evaluate OCS materials. This study utilizes Cunningsworth's (1995) *checklists for listening and speaking*, a customized researcher *criteria checklist* that suggests rejecting the coursebook if materials do not meet the criteria, and McGrath's (2002) *first-glance* and *in-depth* evaluation processes that include four criteria: (a) practical considerations, (b) support for teaching and learning, (c) context relevance, and (d) learner appeal.

The Study

The National Education Policy (NEP) of Pakistan (GOP, 1998, 2009: para. 21) has declared English as a medium of instruction and a compulsory subject to be taught from classes 1 to 12. The National Curriculum of Pakistan (GOP, 2006) also requires five competencies in the subject of English language in secondary classes. These include *Oral Communication Skills* as competency three with one standard and two benchmarks (BM) (GOP, 2006):

Competency 3: Oral Communication Skills

Standard 1: All students will use appropriate social and academic conventions of spoken discourse for effective oral communication with individuals and in groups, in both informal and formal settings.

BM1: Use extended linguistic exponents to communicate appropriately for various functions and co-functions of advice, hopes, fears, queries, in the extended social environment.

BM2: Demonstrate through formal talks, group oral presentations, informal interviews, the social and academic conventions, and dynamics to communicate information/ideas.

Keeping this in mind, two ELT coursebooks that claim to enhance learner linguistic competence in English (grammar accuracy and communicative fluency) were evaluated. The details of these coursebooks are:

(a) Afzal, et al. (2010), *English Book 2.* (*EB2*). Published by Punjab Textbook Board.
This coursebook is used in state schools along with two supplementary grammar books for Senior Secondary Certificate (SSC) and Matric (grade 10) Examination. No teacher's guidebook is available to accompany the coursebook
(b) Redford, R. (2007). *Oxford Progressive English: 9.* (*OPE9*). Published by Oxford University Press. This coursebook is used in private schools along with two supplementary books that are exclusive to writing skills development for GCSE, GCE, or O' level examinations. It comes with a teacher's guide.

Following a review of the literature on coursebook evaluation, the two coursebooks were evaluated for OCS materials and their suitability and efficacy in developing OCS among grade 10 students in the respective state and private schools where the coursebooks are in use. More specifically, the study evaluates:

- the extent to which these coursebooks conform to the requirements of the National Curriculum for the development of learners' communicative competence.
- the effectiveness and balance of OCS materials as compared with reading and writing activities and whether these materials live up to the standards of the National Curriculum.
- the suitability of the two coursebooks for use in secondary classes (grade 10) over an extended period, as illustrated by Cunningsworth's (1995) *post-use* evaluation.

This study thus implements an *integrated method*, which combines McGrath's (2002) *first-glance evaluation* and *in-depth evaluation, general criteria* that evaluate the general features of good teaching materials, and *specific criteria* to engage in context-based and individual circumstance-based evaluation of coursebooks.

Research Questions

The following research questions were investigated in this study:

- What is the balance of listening and speaking materials with the other two skills (i.e., reading/writing) in the coursebooks under investigation?
- What kind of listening and speaking materials are presented in these textbooks?
- How do these materials promote learners' oral communication skills?

Data Analysis and Discussion

The two coursebooks are evaluated in depth in this section.

Redford, R. (2007). Oxford Progressive English: 9. (OPE9). Published by Oxford University Press.

First-Glance Evaluation

McGrath's *first-glance evaluation* (Fig. 21.1) affirms OPE9's date of publication, colorful layout, and good quality durable paper. Being part of a multi-series coursebook, the publisher's blurbs and foreword in OEP9 state their aims of enhancing learners' proficiency in reading and writing and other specific examination-related areas. The introductory note asserts making the learning experience 'enjoyable' for learners of English by developing reading, writing, and speaking skills through student-friendly, attractive and clearly illustrated coursebook materials.

Moreover, the content is *context-relevant* and is suitable for the course aims, for the learners' age, level, their social and cultural backgrounds, and for use over the length of the course. Topics and visuals seem interesting which affirms the publisher's claims about the inclusion and presentation of up-to-date and varied materials that hold appeal for learners. Hence, OPE9 fulfills the required criteria of *practical considerations* except that as Shah et al. (2014) observe, the pedagogical content in OPE9 does not entirely identify with Pakistani culture.

The introductory blurb also claims to prepare learners for 'every aspect' of the O' level English language syllabus, and that the speaking and listening tasks that are included enable learners to consolidate language skills. However, no specific listening lessons are found in the syllabus, which focus on reading and writing skills for GCSE, GCE, and O levels examinations. Contrary to the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES) syllabus (2009), specifications that include oral communicative competence are overlooked in OPE9, and this competence is intended to be developed through writing only. Even though OPE9 comes with a teacher's guidebook, no audio support resources or photocopiable material is provided for learner self-study or as teaching resources.

Another aspect is that affording this expensive textbook (Rs. 1,150) in Pakistan, where 29.5% of the population is living below the poverty line (GOP, 2006), is difficult for working-class people. This is one of the reasons this textbook is being used in elitist private English-medium schools only. Overall, OPE9 meets 81% of the *first-glance evaluation* criteria in McGrath's checklist and gives a sound basis for its selection as an ELT coursebook.

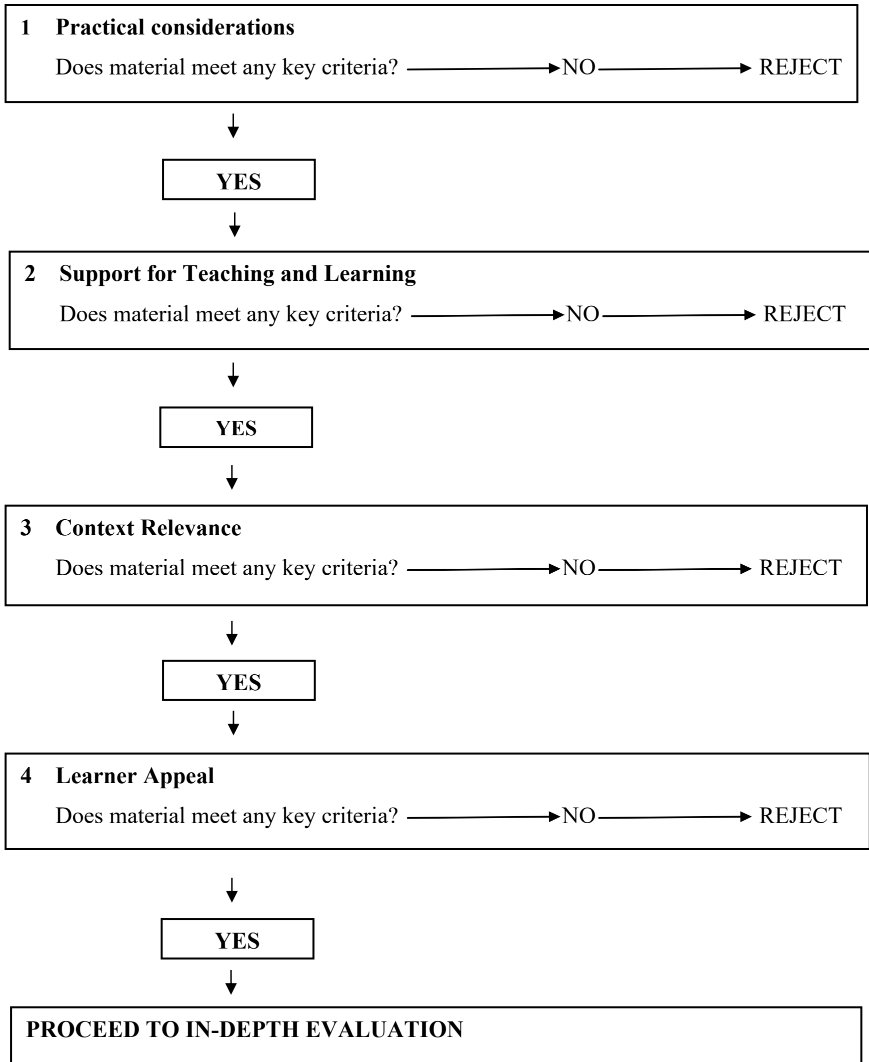

Fig. 21.1 First-Glance Evaluation Procedure (Adapted from McGrath, 2002: 37)

In-Depth Evaluation of OCSs Materials in OEP9

The *first-glance evaluation* of OPE9 indicated an integrated approach to teaching language skills in the syllabus. However, the in-depth evaluation using the custom criteria checklist and Cunningsworth's (1995) *checklist for speaking* demonstrated only one listening activity in OPE9. Hence, Cunningsworth's *checklist for listening* was not used.

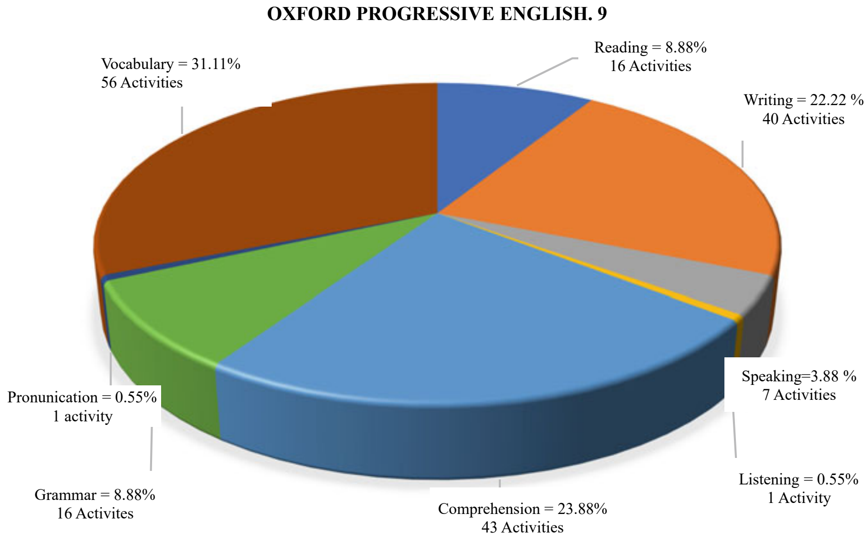

Fig. 21.2 Distribution of activities associated with skills in OPE9

The Balance of OCS with Other Language Skills

The syllabus of OPE9 includes 10 units comprising 180 activities for all language skills. It includes:

- 59 (33.8%) activities on reading/reading comprehension
- 40 (22.2%) writing activities
- 7 (3.8%) speaking activities
- 1 (0.5%) listening activity
- 73 (40.56%) other grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation activities.

An evaluation of these activities revealed that only 8 or 4.44% of the activities were allocated to developing OCS as compared with 98 or 55% reading/writing activities and 73 or 40.56% for other skills enhancement activities (Figs. 21.2 and 21.3).

Evaluation of Activities

A total of seven speaking activities and only one listening activity were found in OPE9. Speaking activities are intended exclusively for speaking purposes with no listening skills development involved and the single extensive listening activity required students to listen to others' comments related to another required task. However, this purposeful listening input helps develop students' consciousness of language items and also develops their speaking proficiency.

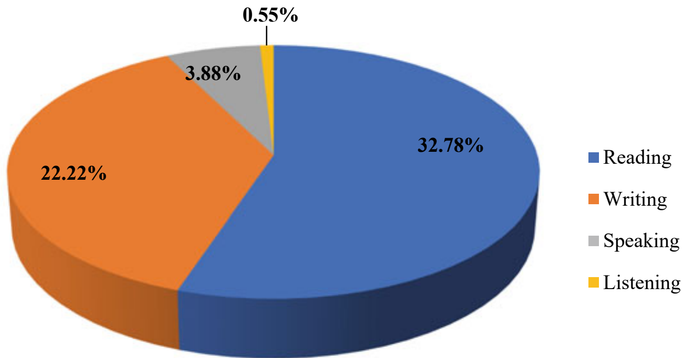

Fig. 21.3 Distributions of the four language skills activities in OPE9

The speaking activities involve discussions, task completion, and opportunities for maximum student talk to develop fluency and boost confidence, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills.

These also include language use for interactional and transactional purposes. Activities in this coursebook demonstrate:

- integration of language skills, such as role-play, building vocabulary, and managing tasks
- developing the use of communication strategies, interaction skills, and interpersonal relationships through pair or group work.

An analysis of the discussion and writing tasks reveals that the coursebook includes interesting, motivating and engaging topics to activate schemata and cultural awareness among learners and prompts even the most resilient learners to speak up and share their ideas. Additionally, the activities allow teachers to adapt materials and manage the classroom in several ways.

Based on this information and following the *first-glance, in-depth*, and *criteria* evaluation, OPE9 is found to be suitable for ELT in grade 10 classes in Pakistan. It meets 67% of the evaluative criteria as it includes materials and activities, which are suitable to the needs of students. Second, its materials are in tandem with the syllabus aims and the exams for which it is intended.

Since the percentage of unfulfilled criteria is relatively low (33%) and the activities included help achieve the competency, standards, and benchmarks set by the Pakistan national curriculum for English language in secondary school (GOP, 2006), the selection of OPE9 as an ELT book seems advisable.

Afzal et al. (2010), English Book 2. (EB2). Published by Punjab Textbook Board

First-Glance Evaluation

Interestingly, the locally published *EB2* includes no publishers' blurb or introduction stating syllabus aims and objectives. By not providing any details of the aims and objectives of the course or syllabus, it ignores the Punjab Textbook Board's guidelines for textbook authors and publishers (Durrani & Shahid, 2010), and its suitability in terms of the aims of syllabus and course cannot be determined.

A first glance at the front cover of EB2 reveals six pictures and a bland, colorless, and uninteresting layout. Hence, in terms of its *likely appeal to learners*, EB2 proves unfit for grabbing learners' attention. Considering the *practical aspect*, EB2 is affordable, its supplementary grammar books are readily available all over Pakistan and the publisher is reliable enough for its continued availability. However, the quality of paper and printing is low, and the textbook cannot be used for more than one academic year. No teacher's book or other accompanying teaching and learning support resources are provided, rendering it unsuitable for self-study. In terms of *context relevance*, a large number of culturally and religiously identifiable lessons can be found in EB2. However, the suitability of EB2 seems doubtful for students' age and level, although it includes a range of vocabulary, grammar, and comprehension exercises.

Since differentiated learning and individual assessment for lower ability learners is not a common practice in ELT in Pakistan, determining the suitability and effectiveness of EB2 in this regard is difficult. Furthermore, there is no evidence of the coursebook having been piloted for suitability in the local context. However, EB2 seems suitable for the length of the course and the exam requirements (Matric and SSC). Since no listening materials and activities are presented in EB2, no audio equipment is required.

Findings reveal that only 38% of *first-glance* analysis evaluative criteria are met, while 68% of the criteria are not met. Hence, EB2 does not allow for an in-depth evaluation and should be principally rejected for teaching purposes precisely at this stage without proceeding to an *in-depth* evaluation as identified by McGrath (2002). It provides less than comprehensive support for learning even if teachers have no problems in teaching without the teacher's book and other resources. As such, this provides a sound basis for the rejection of EB2 as an ELT coursebook.

In-Depth Analysis of OCS Materials in EB2

For the *in-depth* analysis of EB2, the activity types were identified, the evidence of students' OCS development was explored, and its suitability and effectiveness were determined on the basis of the *criteria* evaluation checklist that I developed along with Cunningsworth's (1995) checklist for listening and speaking.

The Balance of OCS with Other Language Skills

The 21 lessons in EB2 include 120 activities for reading, writing, speaking, reading comprehension, grammar points, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Figure 21.4 shows the breakdown of different activity types in EB2.

Overall, EB2 consists of:

- 03 (2.5%) OCS activities
- 40 (33.34%) reading and writing activities
- 77 (41.57%) other language learning activities.

This indicates a considerable imbalance in the materials of the four language skills. EB2 does not meet students' requirements for developing OCS and fails to fulfill the aims and objectives of the Pakistan National Curriculum for the following reasons:

- Listening, one of the most important components of OCS, is absent.
- There is an imbalance of speaking activities in comparison with other language skills.
- It lacks a well-defined syllabus with clear learning aims and objectives.

Therefore, the evaluation of EB2 based on the balance and presentation of language skills materials calls for rejection of the coursebook.

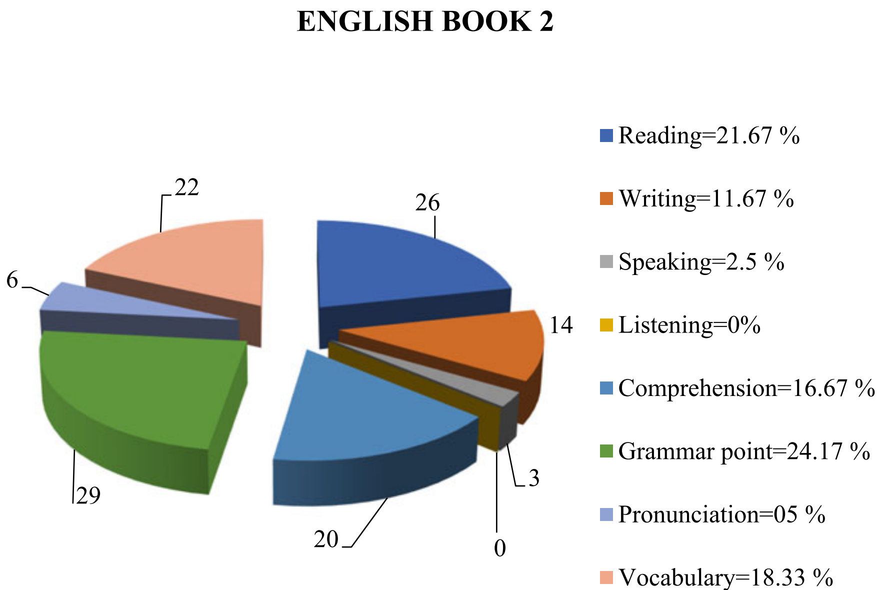

Fig. 21.4 Distribution of various skills activities in EB2

Evaluation of Activities

Of the three speaking activities in EB2 (see Table 21.1), only two emerged as discussion activities. The third activity involved speaking only in the verbal production of answers. The former activities are intended to supplement writing and reading, to provide oral practice in vocabulary and grammar and to promote ideas for writing activities. Since no teacher or group/pair work is mentioned, it is assumed that the whole-class discussions are implied by *ask your class fellows*. The activities in EB2 include engaging topics of mutual interest and everyday life, prompting learners to use authentic language. This complies with social constructivist emphasis on students' prior experience and social interaction as the most useful tool in developing fluency and confidence through discussions. Such activities can help develop students' speaking skills by using critical thinking, planning what to say to others, building working vocabulary, using longer and more accurate sentences with increased confidence, sharing and communicating their ideas and real-life experiences.

However, the in-depth evaluation demonstrates that EB2 does not meet 56% of the evaluative criteria. Thus, EB2 is found to be unsuitable for the development of OCS among grade 10 learners. The few speaking activities in EB2 prove ineffective compared with the demand for OCS proficiency in Pakistan. Moreover, EB2 does not adhere to the standards, benchmarks, and OCS competency set for grade 10 as identified in the National Curriculum (GOP, 2006). As a result, EB2 is rejected as a textbook for learners' OCS development in grade 10 ELT in Pakistan.

Table 21.1 A comparison of skill-based activities in Oxford Progressive English 9 and English Book 2

Skills	Activities in OPE9	Percentage of activities (%)	Activities in EB2	Percentage of activities (%)
Total number of lessons in the book	**10**		**21**	
Reading	16	9	26	22
Writing	40	22	14	12
Speaking	07	4	03	3
Listening	01	0.5	0	0
Comprehension	43	24	20	17
Grammar point	16	9	29	23
Pronunciation	01	0.5	06	5
Vocabulary	56	31	22	18
Total	**180**	**100**	**120**	**100**

Table 21.2 Balance of OCS with other skills

Total number of activities	
Total number of activities in OPE9 and EB2	300
Total number of listening and speaking activities in OPE9 and EB2	10
Percentage of OCS activities	**3.33%**

Table 21.3 Comparison of OPE9 and EB2 based on evaluative criteria

Criteria of Evaluation	OPE9 Criteria Met (%)	OPE9 Unmet Criteria (%)	EB2 Criteria Met (%)	EB2 Unmet Criteria (%)
First-glance evaluation	81	19	38	62
In-depth analysis criteria	66.7	38	44.4	55.6

Comparison of OPE9 and EB2: Selection or Rejection

Table 21.2 presents the balance of four language skills materials as they appear in both textbooks demonstrating a low coverage of 3.33% OCS activities out of a total of 300. Table 21.3 demonstrates the comparison of OPE9 and EB2 on the basis of fulfilled and unmet evaluative criteria.

A comparative analysis based on Cunningsworth's (1995) checklist for speaking reveals that 8 out of the 10 units (lessons) in OPE9 contain speaking activities along with ample OCS activities (i.e., discussions, dialogues, debates, role-plays, communicative/information-gap activities) and supplementary materials like a teacher's guidebook. Only 3 of the 21 units in EB2, on the other hand, contain speaking activities and provide discussion activities in authentic situations. Moreover, no additional vocabulary or supplementary teacher materials are provided. Therefore, EB2 appears unsuitable for developing grade 10 students' OCS in Pakistan. OPE9, however, is found suitable to some extent as it includes adequate speaking materials (Tables 21.4 and 21.5).

Conclusion

Findings indicate differences in EB2 and OPE9 in terms of appearance, definition, and specifications of syllabus aims and objectives and, the inclusion, presentation, and balance of OCS materials with other language skills. Firstly, the *first-glance* evaluation demonstrates the inadequacy of EB2 in terms of what is there (Littlejohn, 1998), i.e., layout, contents, aims of the syllabus, suitability for learners and teachers and its use over an extended period of time, etc.

Table 21.4 First-glance evaluation of OPE9 and EB2

Aspects investigated	OPE9	EB2
Practical considerations		
All components available	**Y**	**N**
Affordable	**N**	**Y**
Multi-level (i.e., series)	**Y**	**Y**
Support for teaching and learning (additional components)		
Teacher's book	**Y**	**N**
Tests	**N**	**N**
Cassettes	**N**	**N**
Suitable for self-study	**Y**	**N**
Context relevance		
(a) ***Suitable for course***		
Length of course	**Y**	**Y**
Aim of course	**Y**	**N**
Syllabus	**Y**	**N**
Exam	**Y**	**Y**
(b) ***Suitable for learners***		
Age	**Y**	**Y**
Level	**Y**	**Y**
Cultural background	**Y**	**Y**
(c) ***Suitable for teachers***		
Required resources (e.g., cassette recorder) available	**N**	**N**
Evidence of suitability (e.g., piloted in local context)	**Y**	**N**
Likely to appeal to learners		
Layout	**Y**	**N**
Visuals	**Y**	**N**
Topics	**Y**	**Y**
Suitable over medium term (i.e., unlikely to date)	Y	Y
Aspects investigated	OPE 9	EB2
Total number of criteria	21	21
Number of YESs	17	08
Number of NOs	04	13
Percentage of YESs	81%	38%
Percentage of NOs	19%	62%

Table 21.5 In-depth evaluation and comparison of OPE9 and EB2 based on researcher's criteria checklist

Aspects Investigated	OPE 9	EB2
1.Enough communicative activities	Y	N
2.Enough roughly tuned input for listening (Harmer, 2001)	N	N
3.Authenticity of language (Ur, 1996)	Y	Y
4.Enough opportunities for real communication	Y	N
5.Enough opportunities for oral skills development	N	N
6.Opportunities for learner use of listening strategies	N	N
7.Opportunities for learner use of speaking strategies	Y	Y
8.Suitability for teachers/learners in terms of context and culture	Y	Y
9.Opportunities for critical thinking and discussions	Y	Y
Total number of criteria	09	09
No. of YESs	06	04
No. of NOs	03	06
Percentage of YESs	66.67%	44.44%
Percentage of NOs	33.33%	55.55%

Conversely, OPE9 with its colorful layout, well-defined aims, varied and interesting activities, the inclusion of speaking practice materials, and accompanying teacher's book attracts the eye and calls for its long-term selection even though it is expensive. However, OPE2 also lacks in the inclusion and presentation of listening practice and activities.

Second, contrary to Sahu's (2004) proposition that coursebooks should cover the whole range of language skills and specifications of the National Curriculum, listening is the least covered skill in both coursebooks which abound in reading and writing activities and materials. Furthermore, concurring with Ahmed et al.'s (2015) views about the inadequacy of listening materials and the imbalance of OCS practice in comparison with other language skills in Pakistani ELT textbooks, the low percentage of OCS (3.33%) indicates low priority given to listening and speaking skills in EB2. The slightly higher percentage of OCS activities in OPE9 (4.43% compared with 2.5% in EB2) indicates that the communicative aspect of the language is covered to some extent and modern approaches to language learning have been utilized.

Prioritizing reading and writing activities indicates that both coursebooks aim to produce good readers and writers rather than proficient speakers and good listeners of English. Moreover, both coursebooks need refinement and revision by course designers and authors for the inclusion and balance of OCS materials. On these bases, EB2 should be principally rejected. OPE9, on the other hand, may be selected for ELT because it contains adequate speaking materials and conforms to its specified

objectives. However, based on the low percentage of speaking and listening materials, it should also be rejected if the development of students' OCS is the sole desired goal.

Despite the everyday use of English in the Pakistani academic and commercial context, a serious lack of learner proficiency in the English language in both public and private sectors is noticed. With modest teaching conditions in Pakistan, English is and will continue to be a necessity for Pakistanis. Therefore, ELT in Pakistan must be approached from the perspective of applied linguistics and listening, speaking and pronunciation must be placed within the broader context of oral communication in language pedagogy. As Tomlinson (2019) recommends, in-house development courses on materials' development for publishers must be arranged; decisions concerning the adoption and choice of textbooks must include experts on language acquisition; principle and research-driven criteria must be developed for materials development based on the combination of theory, classroom experience, and observation; and coursebook materials must be adapted to make them more relevant, meaningful and engaging for learners.

Curriculum designers and textbook authors should embrace the concept of total language learning and materials must be continuously updated in the form of challenging and exciting topics which attract and motivate learners. Coursebook evaluative criteria and guidelines must be carefully applied before coursebook selection. Modern teaching approaches that combine efficient and committed teaching, quality textbooks covering all language skills, effective language policy and its strategic implementation, improved exam system, and the provision of teacher-training that allow for the integration of all skills areas should be adopted to meet students' individual needs and abilities. This only will ensure pupils' optimum linguistic competency and communicative fluency.

It is to be acknowledged that no perfect coursebook exists and that the selection and choice of coursebooks are of critical importance as it is the primary source of knowledge that shapes the concepts of young minds aspiring to learn a new language. Hence, the utmost care is imperative in the selection of coursebooks having more meaningful and more cognitively and affectively engaging materials for the learners (Tomlinson, 2016), if desired outcomes are to be achieved in language development.

Appendix

Cunningsworth's Checklists for Listening and Speaking (1995: 67, 68)

Evaluation Checklists for Listening	Evaluation Checklist for Speaking
(a) What kind of listening material is contained in the course? • Does listening form part of dialogue/conversation work? • Are there specific listening passages? (b) If there are listening passages, what kind of listening activities are based on the—comprehension questions, extracting specific information, etc.? (c) Is the listening material set in a meaningful context? (d) Are there pre-listening tasks or questions? (e) What are the recorded materials on audiocassette like in terms of: • sound quality • speed of delivery • accent • authenticity? (f) Is there any video material for listening? If so, is good use made of the visual medium to provide a meaningful context and show facial expression, gesture, etc.?	(a) How much emphasis is there on spoken English in the coursebook? (b) What kind of materials for speaking are contained in the course? • oral presentation and practice of language items • dialogue • role-play • communication activities (information gap) (c) Are there any specific strategies for conversation or other spoken activities? (e.g., debating, giving talks) (d) Is any specific material included to help the learner cope with unpredictability in spoken discourse?

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