Investigating alignment between pedagogic policy and practice: An English language programme evaluation at secondary level in Pakistan

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Abstract

This study explores the level of alignment between pedagogy in policy (the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum for English language) and pedagogy in practice (the pedagogical practices embodied in the textbooks and enacted by teachers in the classroom) with regard to English language education (ELE) at secondary level (grade 9-10) in government schools in Punjab, Pakistan. The study is designed against the backdrop of the ELE reforms that formed a part of the larger Education Sector Reforms programme introduced in 2001-2005 in Pakistan. Under the ELE reforms a new curriculum for English language was introduced that advocated a new pedagogical policy for English language teaching and new English language textbooks were developed for primary to secondary levels which aimed to align with the pedagogy espoused in the national curriculum.

The study consisted of: i) a qualitative content analysis of the national curriculum for English language to determine its pedagogical policy; ii) an analysis of the secondary level English language textbooks to determine their pedagogical practices and these practices’ alignment with the practices stipulated in the national curriculum; iii) observing 12 teachers’ English language lessons to examine their compliance with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical practices; and iv) post-observation interviews with the teachers to inquire into their rationale for the pedagogical practices they used in their lessons.

The findings reveal that the national curriculum recommends a suite of 15 pedagogical principles which mainly emphasise the use of a communicative, learner-centred, and inductive pedagogy. The textbook analysis reveals that the textbooks partially comply with the stipulated pedagogical policy, embodying wholly or partially nine principles as espoused in the national curriculum. The findings from the classroom observations reveal teachers’ low level of compliance (29%) with the recommended pedagogical policy. Some of the main reasons for this are examination, institutional, and social constraints.
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# Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLT:</td>
<td>Communicative language teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFL:</td>
<td>English as a foreign language</td>
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<td>ELE:</td>
<td>English language education</td>
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<td>ELT:</td>
<td>English language teaching</td>
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<td>ESL:</td>
<td>English as a second language</td>
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<td>GTM:</td>
<td>Grammar translation method</td>
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<td>INSET:</td>
<td>In-service training</td>
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<td>MOI:</td>
<td>Medium of instruction</td>
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<td>NEP:</td>
<td>National education policy</td>
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<td>PPP:</td>
<td>Presentation-practice-production</td>
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<td>RQ:</td>
<td>Research question</td>
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<td>SLO:</td>
<td>Students' learning objectives</td>
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<td>TBLT:</td>
<td>Task-based language teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>TEFL:</td>
<td>Teaching of English as a foreign language</td>
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<tr>
<td>TESOL:</td>
<td>Teaching of English to the speakers of other languages</td>
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<td>TEYLS:</td>
<td>Teaching English to young learners</td>
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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the study

This study investigates the level of alignment between pedagogy in policy (the macro-level pedagogical policy stipulated in the national curriculum) and pedagogy in practice (the pedagogical practices embodied in the textbooks and enacted by teachers in the classroom) with regard to English language education (ELE) at secondary level (grade 9-10) in government schools in Punjab, Pakistan. The study has been designed against the backdrop of the Education Sector Reforms (2001-2005) programme (Ministry of Education, 2004), which was introduced by the Government of Pakistan in the early 2000s to improve the education system in the country. The Education Sector Reforms programme covered the education system as a whole. However, being an English language educationist and having a good understanding of both theoretical and practical aspects of ELE, for this study I focused on only ELE reforms, which comprised an important part of the Education Sector Reforms programme. The ELE reforms were introduced to improve the standards of English language teaching and learning in Pakistan because of an increasing sense of dissatisfaction with the state of ELE in Pakistan. In this regard, the most significant policy decision taken by the government was to uplift the standards of teaching methodologies /pedagogical practices at all levels of ELE, including curriculum, instructional materials (textbooks), and teachers’ classroom practices. For this purpose, the ELE reforms endorsed a shift from teacher-centred, deductive instructional methods to learner-centred, communicative, and inductive teaching methods. The policy decisions taken to implement these pedagogical reforms included developing a new national curriculum for English language that mainly fostered the use of a communicative, learner-centred, and inductive pedagogy. 

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1 It is worth mentioning here that the national curriculum stipulates a suite of 15 pedagogical principles which mainly foster the use of a communicative, learner-centred, and inductive pedagogy.
developing new textbooks in line with the stipulated pedagogical policy; and providing training to teachers to enable them to implement the stipulated pedagogical practices in the classroom.

In pursuance of the policy decisions, necessary actions were taken. A new national curriculum for English language was developed in 2006, which was practically implemented in the classroom four years later, that is, in 2010. New English language textbooks were developed in 2013. They are being used in the classroom currently. Similarly, arrangements for providing pre-service and in-service training to teachers on a regular basis were also made in 2012. However, to what extent the pedagogical reforms introduced in the national curriculum have been implemented on the ground, particularly at the level of textbooks and teachers’ pedagogical practices in the classroom, is not clear, as neither the government nor any individual researcher has evaluated the implementation of the ELE reforms in Pakistan.

Karavas-Doukas (1998) notes that the real objective of educational innovations is to enhance student achievement, something that can be achieved only when innovations are actually implemented in the classroom. To improve classroom practices, an innovative education programme involves changes at two levels: (i) changes in curriculum, syllabus, and instructional materials and (ii) changes in beliefs, attitudes, and practices of implementers (teachers, headteachers, and educational administrators) (Fullan, 2007). On the other hand, the literature on educational innovations (e.g., Fullan, 2007; Wedell, 2009) also reveals that the initiators of change (policy makers) often remain focused on the first part of the process of change (producing new curricula and instructional materials) and give less importance to the second part (the implementation of change at grass root level). They spend most of their energies in producing new curricula and materials, but how curricula and materials are interpreted and implemented by implementers (particularly teachers) on the ground is usually

These 15 pedagogical principles are not presented systemically and clearly in the national curriculum. I explored these 15 pedagogical principles by carrying out a detailed qualitative content analysis of the national curriculum. The whole procedure for carrying out the qualitative content analysis of the national curriculum is given in Chapter 4, Section 4.5, and the findings about the 15 pedagogical principles are given in Chapter 5, Sections 5.3 and 5.4 below. 

More information about these aspects is given in Chapter 2, Section 2.5 below.
overlooked. Taking these important facts into consideration and the absence of a detailed evaluation study of ELE reforms in Pakistan, the present study was designed to examine the extent to which the ELE reforms have been implemented.

1.2 Purpose of the study

Karavas-Doukas (1998) notes that the evaluation of an innovative education programme must explore the following three basic aspects: (i) To what extent have teachers’ beliefs and practices changed in line with the innovations? (ii) How have innovations been implemented? and (iii) What factors have led to (un)successful implementation of innovations? Karavas-Doukas (1998) further adds that the evaluation of an innovative education programme should be based on answering the following basic questions: ‘What is happening? How far does practice match intention? What is going well and not so well, and why?’ (p. 29). Hence, following the principles of an evaluation study, this study was designed to unravel the following: What pedagogical practices does the national curriculum for English language stipulate? To what extent are these pedagogical practices integrated in the prescribed English language textbooks? and To what extent do teachers follow or resist these pedagogical practices, and what factors compel them to do so?

Holliday (1994) claims that teaching methodologies can be interpreted in two ways: (i) methodology for designing and managing ELE (the methodology stipulated in curricula and textbooks) and (ii) the methodology for doing ELE (teachers’ pedagogical practices in the classroom). The first dimension mainly refers to pedagogy in policy and the second denotes pedagogy in practice. My aim in this study was to investigate the level of alignment between pedagogy in policy (the macro-level pedagogical policy stipulated in the national curriculum) and pedagogy in practice (the pedagogical practices embodied in the English language textbooks and enacted by teachers in the classroom) with regard to ELE at secondary level (grade 9-10) in government schools in Punjab, Pakistan. A brief description of the research design used to carry out the study is given below.
1.3 Research design of the study

The study is primarily qualitative in nature (though a very small part consists of quantitative data analysis also) and is aligned with an interpretivist research paradigm both in terms of its objectives and the methodology it espouses. The study was conducted in four stages. The first stage involved carrying out a detailed qualitative content analysis of the national curriculum for English language to determine what pedagogical policy it stipulates. The second stage entailed analysing the textbooks using Ellis’s (2016) framework to determine the pedagogical principles the textbooks embody and the extent to which these principles coincide with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical policy. The third stage involved observing 12 teachers’ 36 English language lessons to explore teachers’ pedagogical practices and to determine the extent to which teachers comply with the pedagogical principles stipulated in the national curriculum. The fourth stage consisted of post-observation interviews with the observed teachers to inquire into their rationale for the pedagogical practices they use(d) in their lessons and to explore what factors compel(led) them to resist or adapt the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum and the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks. A sketch of the overall research design of the study, indicating the types of the data produced, is given in Figure 1.1 below.

| Stage 1: Content analysis of the national curriculum |
| Data analysis: QUAL + quan |
| Stage 2: Analysis of the ELT textbooks |
| Data analysis: QUAL |
| Stage 3: Classroom observations |
| Data analysis: QUAL + quan |
| Stage 4: Post-observation one-to-one interviews with teachers |
| Data analysis: QUAL |

FINDINGS

Figure 1.1: Overall research design for the study
In Figure 1.1 above, the term ‘QUAL’ (in capital letters) represents dominance of the qualitative data, ‘quan’ (in lowercase letters) denotes subservience of the quantitative data, and the plus sign (+) indicates concurrent data analysis.

1.3.1 Geographical context of the study

The study was conducted in the Bahawalpur region, which is one of the divisions in the South Punjab and consists of a population of approximately 11 million people (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2017). The reason for selecting only one region (Bahawalpur) was the primarily qualitative nature of the study, which is associated with examining a specific phenomenon in detail, and keeping the study focused on a specific context, involving a limited number of participants (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Further, given time, logistics, and financial constraints, it was impossible to expand the evaluation of teachers’ pedagogical practices, effected by means of classroom observations and interviews, to more than one geographical region.

However, this does not mean that the study has a highly limited scope. Though qualitative in nature and encompassing a specific aspect—pedagogy—the study has broader significance as well. At a broader level, the study involves the analysis of the national curriculum for English language which is a national level policy document and is implemented across the country. Likewise, the study involves the analysis of the state-mandated English language textbooks that are used across the province (Punjab) for teaching English in both government and private schools. Hence, 2/3 of the study (the analysis of the national curriculum and textbooks) has considerable national and provincial level implications.

1.3.2 Participants

The participants consisted of 12 teachers with varying degrees of teaching experience (1-35 years), teaching secondary level (grade 9-10) English language courses in government schools in the Bahawalpur region. The teachers’ selection was carried out by employing a purposive sampling method, as ‘the main goal of sampling [was] to find individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximise what we can learn’
Six teachers were selected from urban area schools and the other six from rural area schools. Participants’ complete demographic information is given in Section 4.10 below.

Now I explicate why there was a need to conduct such a study in the ELE context in Pakistan. Such a description will help to explain both the relevance and significance of the study.

1.4 Relevance and significance of the study

The relevance and significance of the study is apparent when viewed against the backdrop of the outcomes of Pakistan’s national education policies and plans, literature on language programme evaluation, research carried out on foreign language programme evaluation in various ESL (English as a second language) and EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts, and research on materials evaluation and consumption.

A historical overview of Pakistan’s national education polices and five-year education plans since its emergence in 1947 reveals that mostly the policy decisions taken by the government worked only on a theoretical level and were not implemented on the ground as intended due to various reasons, such as ‘lack of political will’ on the part of the government (Mitchell et al., 2005, p. 108), a weak policy formation and implementation mechanism, and lack of professional expertise in the local educational context (Aly, 2007; Bengali, 1999; Hameed-ur-Rehman & Sewani, 2013; Nazir, 2010; Shamim, 2008). Hence, an evaluation of the most recent ELE reforms in Pakistan is very important, as it will help to explain whether the outcomes of these reforms have been unsuccessful as previously or whether they have been successfully implemented this time. Fullan (1998) notes that the evaluation of an innovative education programme is important, as it helps to make necessary modifications to the innovation programme and improve it further. The present study will serve as an impetus for education policy makers and administrators in particular, who will wish to examine the results of this policy- and classroom-level research when formulating future national educational policy, especially with reference to the
education reforms that the government intends to introduce in the coming years (The Dawn, 2019).

Secondly, the literature on innovative ELE programme evaluation reveals that the most challenging part of an innovation is its implementation. Karavas-Doukas (1998, p. 26) reports that educational ‘innovations are seldom actually implemented as intended’, and the main reason for this limited implementation of educational innovations is a poor implementation mechanism. Fullan (1998) argues that a major reason for the weak implementation of innovations is the absence of a review or feedback mechanism. When policy makers (the initiators of change) do not get feedback about how teachers (the implementers of change) interpret innovations in the classroom, they are neither able to modify innovations nor to ensure their successful implementation in the classroom. Another important aspect is that, most of the time, teachers remain under the illusion that they have improved their teaching practices, but in reality they keep on doing the same as before (Fullan, 2007). They are also likely to resist innovations partly or completely on account of various reasons, such as holding different beliefs about language teaching and learning, constraints of the local socio-educational context, lack of teacher training, lack of resources, and a lack of support from administrators (Carless, 2003, 2007; Karavas-Doukas, 1998; Kirkgöz, 2008; Li, 1998; Orafi & Borg, 2009). In this connection, the present study will serve the purpose of providing feedback to all stakeholders, including policy makers, curriculum developers, textbook writers, administrators, and teachers, as the findings of the study are based on data obtained from classroom observations, teachers’ interviews, and analyses of the national curriculum and English language textbooks. Thus, the study will enlighten all stakeholders about the current status of the implementation of macro-level pedagogical policy as manifest in textbooks’ and teachers’ adherence to or departure from the tenets of the national curriculum.

Further, the research carried out in various Asian ESL/EFL contexts reports that some common reasons for the failure of ELE programmes in many of these contexts are inappropriate curricula along with difficulties associated with instructional materials (materials policy), teaching methods (methods policy), teacher training and teachers’ English language skills (personnel policy),
assessment/exams (evaluation policy), and infrastructural resources, such as audio-visual aids and classroom seating arrangements (resourcing policy) (Baldauf, et al., 2011. Kaplan, et al., 2011). In this regard, Baldauf et al. (2011), having reviewed nine different studies of ESL/EFL programmes in nine East and Southeast Asian countries (Bangladesh, China, Japan, Malaysia, Nepal, Singapore, Taiwan, Timor-Leste, and Vietnam), point out that inappropriate curricula, methods, materials, personnel, evaluation, and resourcing policies are the common reasons for the failure of ELE programmes in most of these countries. Similarly, Nunan (2003), having conducted a study on ELE policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region countries (China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, and Vietnam), found similar results. Further, Nunan (2003) stresses the need to conduct more studies, especially in the Asian context, exploring ‘the extent to which principles enshrined in official curriculum documentation are effectively realised at the level of classroom practice’ (p. 610). Some more research studies carried out in various Asian ESL/EFL contexts (e.g., Carless, 2003, 2004, 2007 in Hong Kong; Hamid, 2010; Hamid, 2011; Hamid & Baldauf, 2008; Hamid & Honan, 2012 in Bangladesh; Hu, 2002 in China; Kirkgöz, 2008 in Turkey; and Orafi & Borg, 2009 in Libya) also reveal inappropriate curricula, methods, materials, personnel, evaluation, and resourcing policies and discrepancies between their anticipated and actual implementation as the common reasons for the failure of ELE programmes in these countries. Pakistan has a broadly similar socio-educational context to most of these Asian countries. However, very few research studies investigating the appropriateness of curricula, methods, materials, personnel, evaluation, and resourcing policies have been conducted in Pakistan. Further, the few studies (reviewed in Section 3.5 below) that have been carried out deal with the issues at only a surface level. Most of them are based on weak methodological and analytical frameworks and have been conducted on a very small scale. In addition, they address the issues linked with curricula, methods, materials, evaluation, personnel, and resourcing policies individually, but do not explore the nature of interplay between them. Having conducted a thorough literature search of the research carried out in Pakistan (reviewed in Section 3.5 below), I did not find even a single study that has carried out an in-depth evaluation of the appropriateness of the prescribed teaching methods policy and its actual
implementation in both textbooks and English language classrooms against the backdrop of the ELE reforms in Pakistan. Similarly, no study has explored the nature of interplay between curriculum, materials, personnel, evaluation, and resourcing policies from the perspective of the methods policy. Therefore, keeping in view the importance given to the aspect of pedagogy in ELE reforms as well as the vital role played by pedagogical practices in any ELE programme, this study was designed to investigate what level of congruity exists between curriculum, materials, personnel, evaluation, and resourcing policies from the perspective of methods policy in the ELE context in Pakistan. Hence, the study explored the aspects of pedagogy in policy (methodology for designing and managing ELE) and pedagogy in practice (methodology for doing ELE); the extent to which they match or mismatch with each other; and what factors contribute to this match or mismatch.

Lastly, the literature on materials evaluation shows that most of the studies on materials evaluation are based on predictive evaluation of materials. Harwood (2017) points out that the materials evaluation studies have been mostly conducted ‘at the level of the page’ excluding the aspect of context, i.e., the classroom, where the actual use of materials takes place (p. 1). The recent literature (Harwood, 2010, 2014, 2017; Menkabu & Harwood, 2014; Tomlinson, 2012, 2013a) suggests that there is a need to broaden the spectrum of research in the field of materials evaluation by conducting more empirical research, especially from the perspective of materials consumption. In this regard, Harwood (2010, 2014, 2017) indicates that though we find studies of materials consumption in mainstream education, there is a dearth of such studies in TESOL. Hence, there is a need to conduct research on materials consumption in TESOL as well. Another relevant aspect of materials evaluation underscored by researchers and education scholars (e.g., Mukandan & Ahour, 2010; Tomlinson, 2003, 2012) is that a vast array of research in materials evaluation is based on only checklists as a major data collection tool. They advocate the use of a composite framework consisting of multiple methods of data collection and analysis to enhance the validity of research. From the perspective of materials consumption, Harwood (2017) suggests the use of classroom observations and teacher interviews as appropriate data collection tools. The present study is
significant from these perspectives as well. It not only evaluates materials at the level of the page but also focuses on their consumption in the classroom, which was carried out by observing teachers’ practices in their classrooms and interviewing them to inquire into their rationale for the pedagogical practices they use(d) in their classes.

The above information reveals that the study identified various gaps in research on innovative ELE programme evaluation, language teaching methods, materials evaluation, and education policies and practices both in general and in the ELE context in Pakistan in particular. It also highlights the relevance and significance of the study with regard to the above mentioned fields, and intends to make a significant contribution to the ELE context in Pakistan in particular and in research in general. Now I explain the background to the study, explaining how I conceived this study.

1.5 Background: How did I conceive this study?

The four major aspects of my educational and professional life that helped me shape this study are:

i. My educational qualifications, particularly my M.Phil. in Linguistics from Pakistan and my Master’s in Language Teaching from The University of Auckland, New Zealand.

ii. My professional experience as an English language teacher at school and college levels and then as Lecturer and Senior Lecturer in Applied Linguistics at a university in Pakistan.

iii. My experience as a Professional Development Specialist in the English Language Institute of a university in Saudi Arabia and my experience as a teacher trainer both in Pakistan and in Saudi Arabia.

iv. My experience as a beginner level researcher, doing research on English language teaching (ELT) related issues, particularly in the ELE context in Pakistan.

I briefly narrate below how these aspects of my educational and professional life guided me to conduct this study.
If I trace back how I conceived this study, I would say that the basic idea originated from a course titled ‘Curriculum Development and Language Teaching’ that I studied as a part of my master’s degree in language teaching at The University of Auckland, New Zealand. In that course, we (the students) were introduced to the basic concepts of curriculum and textbook evaluation. Further, as a part of that course, I undertook an assignment in which I analysed a local ELT textbook to examine what language teaching and learning practices it promoted. In addition to this course, the other courses (‘Theories of Language Learning’, ‘Learner Language’, ‘Language assessment’, and ‘Applied Linguistics Research’) that I studied during my master’s degree helped me develop my understanding of applied linguistics even more; and after the completion of my master’s degree, I kept reading more literature on language teaching research. Further, my work experience as an English language teacher at school, college, and university levels and as a teacher trainer in Pakistan developed my understanding of the state of, and the issues related to, ELT in Pakistan. In addition, my research experience (I started publishing research on ELT while working at a university in Pakistan) made me aware of the dearth and the low quality of research in these fields in Pakistan and also made me realise that there is a need to do more and better research on ELT in Pakistan. Hence, following this path, I carried out some research on ELT related issues, such as the avoidance of English phrasal verbs by L2 learners of English in Pakistan (Karim & Shahwar, 2015) and Pakistani learners’ use of reading strategies and their English language reading comprehension (Karim & Qanwal, 2016; Qanwal & Karim, 2016; Qanwal & Karim, 2014). With regard to ELT textbooks, I carried out a study (Karim & Haq, 2014) in which I (and my co-author) analysed two ELT textbooks (one local and one global) which were used in two different systems of schools (public and private sector schools) in Pakistan. In this study, we compared the culture of language teaching and learning (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996) the two textbooks promoted. Having read more literature on materials/textbook evaluation, I found that the literature (e.g., Harwood, 2010, 2014; Tomlinson, 2012, 2013a) highlights that most of the research on materials/textbook evaluation has been carried out ‘at the level of page’, whereas there is little research on materials consumption (how textbooks are used by teachers in the classroom), particularly in TESOL (Harwood, 2017, p. 1). Hence, there is a need
to carry out research on teachers’ pedagogical practices with regard to their textbook use in the classroom (Harwood, 2010, 2014, 2017; Tomlinson, 2012, 2013a). In this regard, my understanding of both theory and research on ELT and my experience as an English language teacher and teacher trainer (both in Pakistan and Saudi Arabia) had revealed to me that teachers’ pedagogical practices are not only influenced by the textbook, but many factors, including curriculum, examinations, teachers’ knowledge and understanding of pedagogy, their beliefs about teaching and learning processes and capabilities, the culture of teaching and learning in the school, and the (non-) availability of infrastructural resources in the classroom, also play a major role in determining teachers’ pedagogical practices. Further, the literature on ELT curricular innovations had revealed to me that these issues are also very relevant to the (un)successful implementation of innovations. Hence, I realised that there is a need to conduct a detailed study involving all these aspects in Pakistan, where major ELE reforms had been introduced at the levels of the National Curriculum for English Language – 20063 (Ministry of Education, 2006), ELT textbooks, and teachers’ pedagogical practices in 2006. The need for such a study in the ELE context in Pakistan is pressing as no such study evaluating the implementation of curricular reforms and investigating the nature of interplay between curriculum, textbooks, and teachers’ pedagogical practices has been carried out in Pakistan. Therefore, for my Ph.D. research, I decided to work on a topic that reports on the current state of ELT in Pakistan with regard to curricular innovations, textbooks (both analysis and use), and teachers’ pedagogical practices. Further information about why there was a particular need to conduct this sort of research in the ELE context in Pakistan is already given in Section 1.4 above. Now I explain how this thesis has been organised.

1.6 organisation of the thesis

This thesis has been divided into nine chapters. Chapter one is introduction, which begins with an introduction to the study and explains its purpose. This is followed by a brief description of the research design of the study, including the research approach (qualitative) and paradigm (interpretivism), data collection

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3 For the sake of conciseness, hereafter I refer to this document as ‘the national curriculum’.
methods (qualitative content analysis of the national curriculum, textbook analysis, classroom observations, and interviews), geographical context of the study, and the participants. Next, I discuss the relevance and significance of the study. Then, I give the background to the study, explaining how I conceived this study, and lastly I explain the organisation of the thesis.

Chapter two presents the background to the study that begins with the introductory information about the context of the study, that is, Pakistan and her linguistic landscape. This is followed by a short description of the role of the Ministry of Education in managing educational matters, especially curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan. Next is given a historical overview of curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan, and a brief account of the Education Sector Reforms programme (2001-2005). All this information sets the background to the study.

In chapter three, I review the relevant literature and establish the theoretical foundations of the study. In this regard, I first explain the concept of innovation in education and give a brief account of three models of educational innovation. Then, I explain the concepts of language programme evaluation, stages of innovation, and innovation implementation. Next is given an account of the research on innovative ELE programme evaluation. This is followed by an account of materials evaluation and the types and levels of materials evaluation. Lastly, I review some studies that serve as a representation of the research carried out in the relevant fields in Pakistan. Based on this literature review, I make a case for the study and conclude the chapter with the research questions the study is based upon.

Chapter four explains the research methodology I used to conduct this study. I begin this chapter by elucidating the research paradigm (interpretivism) the study is aligned with. This is followed by a description of the approaches (primarily qualitative) employed in the study. The next section describes the research design of the study that consists of four stages. Next are presented detailed accounts of the methods, frameworks, and procedures used to collect and analyse the data in this study. The methods include document (national curriculum) analysis, textbook analysis, classroom observations, and interviews.
Following this, I provide information about the context of the study, participants, ethical considerations, and limitations of the study. Lastly, I conclude the chapter with a brief account of the criteria to judge the credibility of a qualitative study and explain how I fulfilled these requirements in this study.

In chapter five, I present the findings of the analysis of the national curriculum, which answers research question 1 (What pedagogical practices does the national curriculum for English language stipulate for the teaching of English in Pakistan?). I begin this chapter by giving a brief introduction to the national curriculum. This is followed by the findings of the analysis of the four sections (Introduction, Teaching Methodology, Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and Teacher Training) of the national curriculum. Then, I present findings of the analysis of the Course Contents section of the national curriculum and compare and contrast these findings with the findings of the four sections given earlier.

Chapter six presents the findings of the ELT textbook analysis and hence answers research questions 2 and 3. First, I present the findings of research question 2 (What pedagogical practices do the ELT textbooks embody?). To do this, I explain what type of work plans[^4] (exercises/activities/tasks) are used in the textbooks for each language skill and subskill. Each work plan type is explained by reproducing one or two examples of that type of work plan from the textbook. The explanation includes the rationale for classifying the work plan under a particular type and the pedagogical principle(s) it entails. Likewise, the findings of the non-linguistic pedagogical aspects given in the textbooks, such as setting learning objectives, providing supportive facilitation to learners, and promoting learners’ cognitive skills, are also given by reproducing examples from the textbook and commenting on the pedagogical principle(s) they embody. Next, I explain the findings with regard to research question 3 (To what extent

[^4]: It is important to mention here that, in this study, to examine the pedagogical practices the textbooks embody, I mainly analysed the work plans given in the textbooks for the teaching of English language skills and subskills. A detailed description of the term ‘work plan’ is given in Section 4.6.1 below. Here it is enough to say that the term ‘work plan’ refers to any type of activity, task, or exercise that is used to teach a language skill/subskill.
are the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks congruent with the pedagogical principles stipulated in the national curriculum?).

In chapter seven, I present the findings of the classroom observations and post-observation interviews and hence answer research questions 4, 5, and 6. First, I answer research question 4 (To what extent do teachers comply with the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum, and what other pedagogical practices do they use?). To do this, I present findings based on the quantitative analysis of the classroom observation data, which reveals teachers’ collective as well as individual level of compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy. Next are presented detailed descriptive accounts of the teachers’ pedagogical practices based on their classroom observation data. When describing teachers’ pedagogical practices, their rationale for the pedagogical practices and the contextual factors that account for this are also explained. This is done to answer research question 5 and 6 (What are teachers’ rationales for the pedagogical practices they use and the pedagogical practices they resist in their English language lessons?, and Where teachers’ pedagogical practices are not compatible with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical practices, what contextual factors account for that?)

In chapter eight, I discuss the findings of the study in relation to those of other studies that deal with the similar topics of ELT curricular innovations, innovation implementation, teachers’ pedagogical practices, factors that account for teachers’ limited implementation of innovations, textbook use, and textbook analysis. Lastly, I conclude the thesis in chapter nine in which I summarise the findings of the study and explain the pedagogical implications of the study. I also explain the limitations of the study and give suggestions for future research.
Chapter Two

Background to the Study

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the background to the study and begins with the introductory information about the context of the study, that is, Pakistan and her linguistic landscape. This is followed by a short description of the role of the Ministry of Education in managing educational matters, especially curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan. Next I present a historical overview of the curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan and a brief account of the Education Sector Reforms programme (2001-2005). Lastly, I conclude the chapter.

2.2 A brief introduction to Pakistan and her linguistic landscape

Pakistan came into being as an independent country in 1947 on account of the partition of the Indian sub-continent (British India) into two independent states: Pakistan and India. So, Pakistan is a country with a British colonial background. It is the 6th largest country in the world in terms of population (Coleman & Capstick, 2012), consisting of a multi-lingual and multi-ethnic populace (Shamim, 2008). The linguistic landscape of Pakistan consists of a three-language formula with ‘Urdu as the national language, English as the official language’, and a provincial or local vernacular that is used by the people locally in their everyday life (Mahboob, 2017; Mahboob & Jain, 2016, p. 2). In this three-language formula, English holds the status of the most powerful and dominant language. It is taken as a symbol of prestige, authority, knowledge, and higher social status (Coleman & Capstick, 2012; Shamim, 2008; Rahman, 2005a). Urdu is the national language and works as a lingua franca for the people belonging to different ethno-linguistic communities (Rahman, 2010).
That is why it is also called the language of contact and is used as a common vernacular across the country. The space for the third language is occupied by the provincial or local languages. Pakistan has four provinces: Baluchistan, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Punjab, and Sindh. Each province has one officially recognised vernacular. Besides one main vernacular in each province, about 60 regional languages are spoken locally in different regions of the country (Rahman, 2010).

The four provinces (Baluchistan, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Punjab, and Sindh) along with other regions (a federal capital Islamabad, Azad Jammu and Kashmir, and Gilgit Baltistan) jointly make Pakistan a federation (Barwell et al., 2007). The country is run by a federal parliamentary system of government. Each province and the regions of Azad Jammu and Kashmir and Gilgit Baltistan have their own legislatures and governments that work independently under the powers vested in them by the federal government. The federal government functions through its ministries that work in collaboration with their provincial counterparts.

2.3 The role of the Ministry of Education in curriculum and textbook development

The Federal Ministry of Education, like other ministries, works in collaboration with its provincial counterparts and is responsible for managing educational matters in the country. One of the main functions of the Federal Ministry of Education is to formulate the national education policies. The Provincial Ministries are responsible for implementing the policies in the respective provinces (Barwell et al., 2007). One of the main obligations of the Federal Ministry of Education entrusted upon it by the Supervision of Curricula, Textbooks, and Maintenance of Educational Standards Act 1976 of the Government of Pakistan was to develop curricula and textbooks and maintain the standard of education in the country (Barwell et al., 2007; Jamil, 2009). These responsibilities remained under the purview of the Federal Ministry of Education until 2010, when these responsibilities were devolved to the Provincial Ministries of Education via the 18th amendment in the Constitution of Pakistan. Hence, now the responsibility to develop curricula and textbooks
lies with the Provincial Ministries of Education (Hameed-ur-Rehman & Sewani, 2013). However, the Provincial Ministries are still obliged to get the curricula and textbooks finally approved by the Federal Ministry of Education. Hence, even now the Federal Ministry of Education holds the final authority to supervise and approve the curricula and textbooks. In addition, it is important to note that despite having the authority to develop their own curricula after the 18th amendment in the Constitution of Pakistan in 2010, the Provincial Ministries have not yet devised their own curricula. They are still following the same National Curricula that were developed by the Federal Ministry of Education. Moreover, the textbooks that are currently used in the provinces are also based on the same National Curricula.

2.4 A historical overview of curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan

Curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan should not be seen solely through an educational lens; they are influenced by extra-educational affairs as well, notably political and administrative affairs. Kennedy (1988) claims that political and administrative factors play important roles in shaping educational matters. Therefore, while reviewing the history of curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan, it is important to discuss how political and administrative matters influenced the process of curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan.

The first important aspect in this regard is the government’s centralised policy for curriculum and textbook development. The main reason behind this centralised policy is to promote a sense of patriotism and national unity among the people belonging to different ethno-linguistic backgrounds (Durrani & Dunne, 2010). Since the 1950s, when the initial national education policies and plans were presented, various governments have used the medium of education, especially curricula and textbooks, to promote a sense of national unity and patriotism among the people (Rahman, 2005a). For this purpose, they often sought refuge in religion (Islam), as it is the most important factor that can be employed to attract the people in Pakistan, arouse their emotions, and promote a sense of nationhood among them, quite irrespective of what ethnolinguistic
background they belong to. The importance of religion (Islam) in promoting a sense of national unity among the people of Pakistan can be understood by the fact that it had played a vital role in the creation of Pakistan as an independent Muslim state in 1947 (Durrani & Dunne, 2010; Nayyar & Salim, 2003; Lall, 2008). One of the main reasons for the demand of an independent country by the Muslims of British India in the past was to have a homeland of their own where they could develop a system of government in line with the principles of Islam and could practice the Islamic principles, rituals, and values freely without any interference of people from other religions.

A major reason for promoting Islamic and pro-national ideologies in the education system, especially via curricula and textbooks, was the separation of East Pakistan into Bangladesh in 1971, which was an outcome of ethno-linguistic and political conflicts between the two parts of the country at that time, i.e., East and West Pakistan (Lingard & Ali, 2009; Nayyar & Salim, 2003). Consequently, the governments in the 1970s and especially the subsequent eleven-year rule (1977-1988) of the military dictator, General Zia-ul-Haq, strengthened the Islamisation of the education system by incorporating Islamic and pro-national ideologies in the content of the curricula and textbooks (Nayyar & Salim, 2003; Rahman, 2005a). Lingard and Ali (2009, p. 244), while commenting on the Islamisation of the education system during the eleven-year rule of General Zia-ul-Haq, claim:

[T]he education policies since 1979 started the process of Islamisation not only in ideology, but also explicitly in curriculum and teacher training...the emphasis on religion in education is present at the school levels through both textbook material and teachers’ ideological orientations.

Apart from promoting an Islamic ideological agenda, General Zia-ul-Haq imposed restrictions on freedom of expression. During his regime, liberal and progressive intellectuals, educationists, and scholars were not allowed to express their ideas freely. In this regard, Roof (2015, p. 44) says:

During the military rule of General Zia, thousands of political activists, scholars, intellectuals of undisputed integrity, teachers of universities and colleges were victimized and thrown out. These progressive forces were replaced by reactionaries who were handed over the educational syllabi to be prepared on the lines of religious fanaticism with a medieval mindset.
In the field of education, the prevalence of non-progressive approaches remained dominant not only at the level of the content of curricula and textbooks but also at the level of instructional methods. Owing to a generally prevailing tendency of discouraging modern progressive ideas, no efforts were made to introduce new instructional methods in the classroom. The pedagogical practices in classrooms were based on traditional, authoritarian, and teacher-centred instructional methods (Nazir, 2010). Evidence of this is found in a study conducted by Shamim (1993) about the teaching and learning of English as a second language in the government Urdu-medium schools and non-elite private English-medium schools in Pakistan. On the basis of the classroom observations she carried out as an integral part of her study, Shamim (1993) reports the widespread use of traditional teacher-centred instructional methods with little freedom for the learners’ active participation in English language classrooms in either government Urdu-medium or in non-elite private English-medium schools in Pakistan. According to her, the main focus of the English language teachers was on ‘doing the lesson’ and ‘doing grammar’ by using an authoritarian teacher-centred instructional method (Shamim, 1993 cited in Shamim, 2008, p. 239-240). While reporting a typical ‘doing a lesson’ and ‘doing grammar’ scenario, Shamim (2008, p. 240) explains:

“Doing a lesson” mainly comprised a predictable set of activity types: reading the text (lesson) aloud by the teacher and/or the students; explaining the text, often in Urdu or the local language, giving the meanings of “difficult words” in English and/or Urdu/the local language; and getting the students to do follow-up textbook exercises in their notebooks. […] Similarly, “doing grammar” comprised teaching and learning of a grammar item (with a focus on form\(^5\) only), and writing essays, letters, and so forth.

Likewise, Kanu (1996) reports the dominance of teacher-centred expository methods of instruction and the absence of innovative, creative, and critical approaches in the education system in Pakistan. While reporting the methods of instruction in the primary and secondary classrooms she observed during her study, Kanu (1996, p. 176) says:

the teacher did all the reading from the textbook, explained what she read and asked the students whether they understood the explanation, to which they answered ‘Ji’

\(^5\) It is important to clarify here that the term ‘focus on form’ (Shamim, 1993, 2008) simply means explicit instruction of grammatical items. It should not be confused with the concept of ‘focus-on-form’ presented in the fields of Second Language Acquisition and Instructed Language Learning by various researchers (e.g., Ellis, 2001; Long, 1991).
(yes) in a chorus. [...] Knowledge is given to learners who are not expected to discuss, question or change that knowledge. Teaching, in such a situation, is a monological process (engaged by the teacher), which lacks any theory about the creative capacity of students to interpret what they are taught and bestow it with their own meanings.

Hence, the prevalence of non-progressive and orthodox approaches remained dominant not only at the level of content of the curricula and textbooks but also at the level of instructional methods. However, in the 1990s, with the revival of the democratic system of government in the country, education scholars were at liberty to express their ideas freely.

A number of education scholars (e.g., Hoodbhoy, 1991; Rahman, 1999) duly critiqued the curricula and textbooks as outmoded and ideologically driven. Similarly, the issue of the use of traditional teaching methods that promote authoritarian and teacher-centred instructional methods was also highlighted (e.g., Kanu, 1996; Shamim, 1993). Further, education scholars emphasised the need to modify the curricula, textbooks, and pedagogical practices in line with modern educational thinking and trends that promote a liberal approach and encourage a learner-centred instructional method (Barwell et al., 2007; Jamil, 2009). Hence, on account of these critiques, the view that the curricula were in need of reform prevailed in government circles in the 1990s. For example, the government accepted in the National Education Policy (1992) that ‘the curricula, apart from being overloaded, have not kept pace with the advancement of knowledge. So are the textbooks which do not promote self-learning.’ (cited in Bengali, 1999, p. 20). Similarly, it was also admitted in the Eighth Five-year Education Plan (1993-98) that ‘the curricula lack relevance, methodologies of instruction and testing are outmoded.’ (cited in Bengali, 1999, p. 22). Further, realising the importance of the issue, the government decided to modify the existing curricula and textbooks in line with modern educational thinking and trends. It is clearly stated in the Eighth Five-year Education Plan (1993-98) that an ‘activity-oriented instructional material will be developed and provided to the teachers to make the learning process interesting.’ (cited in Bengali, 1999, p. 23). However, the claims made by the government during the 1990s that the curricula and textbooks would be reformed did not materialise fully. Some of the main reasons for the government’s inability to bring to fruition such policy decisions were ‘lack of political will’ (Mitchell et al., 2005, p. 108) and absence
of a well-defined policy formation and implementation mechanism (Aly, 2007; Nazir, 2010; Shamim, 2008). Indeed, in addition to issues around curriculum and textbook development, the whole history of national education policies and five-year education plans is replete with examples of setting ambitious goals and making idealistic decisions at the level of policy, but making little effort to implement them (Bengali, 1999; Hameed-ur-Rehman & Sewani, 2013; Shamim, 2008). This point can be substantiated by giving the example of literacy rate targets set in various education policies and plans and contrasting the actual literacy rates achieved during those periods.

Since the 1950s, nine education policies and nine five-year education plans have been presented. In most of them, ambitious literacy rate targets were set, but mostly the set targets were not achieved fully (Bengali, 1999; Rahman, 2005a). For further details, see Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Target and actual literacy rates, 1959-2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education policy/ Five-year education plan</th>
<th>Target literacy rate</th>
<th>Literacy rate achieved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education policy 1959</td>
<td>100% by 1975</td>
<td>21.7% by 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education policy 1979</td>
<td>35% by 1983</td>
<td>26.2% by 1984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National literacy plan 1984-86</td>
<td>33% by 1986</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationwide literacy programme 1986-90</td>
<td>53% by 1990</td>
<td>31% by 1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventh five-year plan 1988-93</td>
<td>40% by 1993</td>
<td>35% by 1993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>80% by 2000</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National education policy 1992</td>
<td>70% by 2002</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighth five-year plan 1993-98</td>
<td>48% by 1998</td>
<td>38.9% by 1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National education policy 2009</td>
<td>86% by 2015</td>
<td>54% by 2015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Literacy rate data adapted from Bengali (1999), Lingard and Ali (2009), Ministry of Education (2009), and Roof (2015)

Table 2.1 shows that mostly high literacy rate targets were set. Sometimes they were too ambitious to achieve. Consequently, the set targets were not achieved

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6 It is important to mention here that in official terminology a literate person in Pakistan is defined as ‘one who can read a newspaper and write a simple letter’ (Roof, 2015, p. 38).
within the set time limits. Setting such idealistic literacy rate targets is a clear indication of the lack of proper planning on the part of the policy makers.

The situation is even more dire when we consider curricula and textbooks. Curriculum and textbook development were highlighted as important issues in only some of the education policies and plans and have not received the proper attention they deserve (Jamil, 2009). Of the nine national education policies and nine five-year education plans, only a ‘few policies and planning documents [e.g., National Education Policy 1951, National Education Policy 1992, Eighth Five-year Plan 1993-98, and the Education Sector Reforms programme 2001-05] devoted attention to curriculum planning.’ (Roof, 2015, p. 37). Further, ‘historically, the process has been non-standardized’ (Aly, 2007, p. 18). The Ministry of Education neither developed a proper curriculum and textbook development mechanism nor a feedback mechanism to review and upgrade them (Aly, 2007; Jamil, 2009). The lack of expertise in the local educational context is also another important issue. Commenting on the issue of the lack of expertise in the fields of curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan, Aly (2007, p. 18) says that ‘curriculum development is a specialised task and apparently there are very few specialists.’ Aly (2007, p. 20) further adds that ‘textbook development is [conducted] through a process that is little understood and practiced in the country.’ The curriculum and textbook development tasks are mostly assigned to teachers teaching in universities, colleges, and schools, quite irrespective of whether they are possessed of expertise and have benefitted from proper professional training in the respective fields (Aly, 2007; Jamil, 2009). Additionally, the government’s lack of evaluation capacity and the absence of a proper feedback mechanism do not facilitate the process of reviewing and upgrading the curricula and textbooks on a regular basis (Aly, 2007). A few attempts that were carried out in the past to review and upgrade the curricula were not the outcome of any systematic feedback process. They were either carried out because of general critiques by local education scholars as happened in the 1990s (Jamil, 2009) or due to the increasing pressure from the international community post 9/11 when the international community exerted pressure on the Pakistani government to improve and modernise the system of education in the country and reduce the over-zealous religious content
in the curricula and textbooks (Leirvik, 2008; Lingard & Ali, 2009; Siddiqui, 2016; Roof, 2015).

In the 1990s, the issues of inappropriate curricula, textbooks, and teaching methods were highlighted by education scholars (e.g., Hoodbhoy, 1991; Kanu, 1996; Rahman, 1999; Shamim 1993). Realising the weaknesses in the curricula and textbooks, the government took up the issue in the National Education Policy (1992) and the Eighth Five-year Education Plan (1993-98) and decided to make changes in the curricula and textbooks (Bengali, 1999). But once again the issues were not addressed properly because of the same reasons as cited previously in this discussion, i.e., lack of planning and absence of a well-defined implementation mechanism. An example of the lack of planning on the part of the government is evident from its policy decision in the Eighth Five-year Education Plan (1993-98) which says that ‘activity-oriented instructional materials will be developed and provided to the teachers to make the learning process interesting’ (cited in Bengali, 1999, p. 23), but this decision was not supported by other necessary accompanying measures, such as introducing change in the assessment pattern in line with the activity-oriented instructional materials and the provision of appropriate infrastructural facilities, such as audio-visual aids that help utilise the activity-oriented instructional materials in the classroom (Roof, 2015). In the absence of such necessary accompanying measures, the development of only activity-oriented instructional materials would not have served the intended purpose. Further, even the policy decision to develop the activity-oriented instructional materials did not materialise, which is a clear indication of the ‘lack of political will’ on the part of the government (Mitchell et al., 2005, p. 108) and of a lack of efforts to materialise policy decisions (Bengali, 1999; Hameed-ur-Rehman & Sewani, 2013; Shamim, 2008). I can confidently reflect on this, as I was a schoolboy during the 1990s. I was in grade 6 in 1990 and completed my grade 10 in 1995. The curricula and textbooks (prescribed by the Ministry of Education) that I studied during this period were not activity-oriented at all. The curricula, textbooks, instructional methods, and assessment patterns were completely based on traditional teaching methods that promoted explicit instruction of grammar, the use of drilling exercises, and memorisation. The prevalence of such traditional
teaching methods in English language classrooms in both government Urdu-medium schools and non-elite private English-medium schools in Pakistan during the 1990s is also reported by Shamim (1993). Likewise, Kanu (1996) also reports the prevalence of teacher-centred expository instructional methods and the absence of innovative, creative, and critical approaches in primary and secondary level classrooms in Pakistan. Hence, as happened in the past, the policy decisions about changes in curricula, textbooks, and instruction methods in the 1990s only took place at the level of theory. However, a recurring theme with every passing education policy and five-year education plan was the realisation of weaknesses in the education system and the need to address them.

At the beginning of the 2000s, along with the ongoing critiques by local educationists, a major demand for change and improvement in the curricula and textbooks came from the international community on account of the September 11, 2001 (commonly known as 9/11) terrorist attacks in the USA (Lingard & Ali, 2009). The international community, against the backdrop of the 9/11 incident, exerted pressure on the Government of Pakistan to make changes in its system of education, especially in curricula and textbooks that were said to be outmoded and ideologically driven, promoting religious extremism (Leirvik, 2008; Lingard & Ali, 2009; Siddiqui, 2016; Roof, 2015). To reinforce their demand and make the Pakistani government accomplish the required task, the international community provided financial assistance to the Government of Pakistan (Lingard & Ali, 2009; Siddiqui, 2016). For example, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) provided a fund of US$100 million for education sector reforms in Pakistan from 2002 to 2007 (Kronstadt, 2004). Similarly, 18 other international organisations provided financial assistance of US$2191.155 million from 2000 to 2012 (Ministry of Education, 2007, cited in Lingard & Ali, 2009). On account of these increasing and compelling demands by education scholars and the international community, the government decided to launch a comprehensive Education Sector Reforms programme in 2001 (International Crisis Group, 2005; Lingard & Ali, 2009). The details of this reforms programme are given below.
2.5 Education Sector Reforms programme (2001-2005)

The Education Sector Reforms programme was a five-year plan (2001-2005) (Ministry of Education, 2004). The main objectives of these reforms were to identify the weaknesses existing in the education system and modify them in line with modern educational trends (Jamil, 2009; Ministry of Education, 2004). The major tasks identified for reforms were to carry out the first ever national education census, develop a new education policy, revise curricula for all subjects from grade 1-12, produce new textbooks in line with the new curricula, make arrangements for providing necessary teacher training, and improve teachers’ monitoring and evaluation systems (Ministry of Education, 2004). A time period of five years (2001-2005) was set to accomplish these tasks. But on account of the wide remit of the reform agenda and inherent weaknesses in the system of education as described earlier, not all of these tasks were accomplished in the stipulated five years. Some of the tasks were completed by 2009 and some later. The three important tasks that were accomplished by 2009 were:

i. The first ever national education census was carried out in 2005.

ii. New national curricula for all subjects from grade 1-12 were developed in 2006, though the implementation of some of them (e.g., the implementation of the National Curriculum for English Language - 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006)) was delayed until 2010. The same curricula are being used in schools and colleges all over the country.

iii. The existing national education policy was reformed, and a new national education policy was presented in 2009.

Apart from these three main tasks, other tasks such as developing new textbooks and making arrangements for providing teacher training were carried out subsequently. For instance, the new textbooks were developed in 2013 after the implementation of the new curricula in 2010. The initiatives regarding the provision of teacher training to the government school teachers on a more regular basis were also taken by the Provincial Ministries of Education. One such example was to further strengthen the role of Quaid-e-Azam Academy for Educational Development (QAED)—an institute for providing continuous
professional development training to teachers in the province of Punjab. In 2012, the scope of QAED was enhanced from 12 districts to all 36 districts of Punjab and one of its main responsibilities was to provide pre- and in-service training to the newly inducted as well as experienced teachers working in government schools in Punjab (Quaid-e-Azam Academy for Educational Development, 2020, “About Us”, para. 1-4).

2.6 Conclusion

The above information presents the background to the study. It begins with an introduction to the context of the study, that is, Pakistan and her linguistic landscape. This is followed by a brief description of the role of the Ministry of Education in managing educational matters, especially curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan. Next is given a historical overview of curriculum and textbook development in Pakistan, and a brief account of the Education Sector Reforms programme (2001-2005). Now I move on to the next chapter that presents a literature review related to all those aspects that form the constituent parts of the study.
Chapter Three

Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

The preceding chapters reveal that the study deals with the aspects of innovation in education, innovative ELE programme evaluation, materials evaluation, and ELT in Pakistan. Hence, in this chapter, I review the relevant literature and establish the theoretical foundations of the study. First, I explain the concept of innovation in education and give a brief account of three models of educational innovation. Then, I explain the concepts of language programme evaluation, stages of innovation, and innovation implementation. Next, I give an account of the research on innovative ELE programme evaluation. This is followed by an account of materials evaluation and the types and levels of materials evaluation. What follows next is a review of some studies that serve as a representation of the research conducted in the relevant fields in Pakistan. Based on this literature review, I make a case for the necessity of this study and conclude the chapter with the research questions the study is based upon.

3.2 Innovation in education

Rogers (2003, p. 12) defines innovation as ‘an idea, practice, or object perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption’. In an educational context, the term ‘innovation’ is defined as ‘the attempt to bring about beneficial change’ (Waters, 2009, p. 421). In the literature on innovative education programmes, the terms innovation, change, and reforms are often used interchangeably and refer to the idea of introducing and implementing new approaches and principles (Waters, 2009; Wedell, 2009). However, for the purpose of clarity, some researchers (e.g., Hyland & Wong, 2013; Kennedy, 1996; Wedell, 2009) draw a distinction between the three. Hyland and Wong (2013, p. 1) explain that change may refer to an unplanned and random process that does not involve conscious deliberation, and ‘occurs to us rather than being controlled by us’.
Innovation involves a thoughtful and conscious decision to introduce changes with a clear intention to implement the set objectives (Hyland & Wong, 2013; Kennedy, 1996; Wedell, 2009), and reforms may refer to a large-scale, national-level change to curriculum, instructional methods, and/or assessment pattern (Wedell, 2009). However, since using these terms interchangeably is a common practice in the literature, I also use these terms interchangeably in this thesis. This will help to avoid the monotonous repetition of a single term and will ensure a degree of stylistic variation.

In terms of implementation, educational innovations may follow a top-down or a bottom-up approach. In the top-down approach, policy makers develop a policy and demand its implementation; whereas in the bottom-up approach, a teacher initiates an innovation at a classroom level, and then the innovation may lead to a change at a policy level (Hyland & Wong, 2013). Kennedy (2013) elucidates multiple possibilities in the top-down and bottom-up approaches to innovation in the form of three models of innovation: the mechanistic, individual and ecological models. I explain these models below.

3.2.1 Kennedy’s models of educational innovation

i. Mechanistic model

Kennedy’s (2013) mechanistic model is ‘based on hierarchical roles and functions’ and is similar to the top-down approach (p. 16). In the mechanistic model, innovations are formed at a national level and their implementation is required at lower levels. The mechanistic model has both advantages and drawbacks. One main drawback is that the decisions are made at the highest policy making level far away from the classroom. Hence, policy makers might devise policies based on educational ideologies that might not align with the classroom realities. Such potential problems increase further when policy makers neither take teachers’ beliefs and learners’ needs into consideration nor seek teachers’ opinion when devising policies (Kennedy, 2013).
ii. Individual model

In the individual model, change takes place at a classroom level, not at a larger national level. However, this does not imply that such small-scale changes are inconsequential; they have the potential to take on greater importance. The individual model may work in three possible ways (Kennedy, 2013).

The first is when an individual teacher implements the innovation in her/his class religiously. This seems similar to the mechanistic/top-down model, but there is one difference. The mechanistic model requires acquiescence to the innovations at a holistic level and in a hierarchical order which is often difficult to achieve. In contrast, in the first possible incarnation of the individual model, a teacher (not the whole hierarchical system) religiously implements the national level innovations in her/his domain of influence—the classroom.

The second possibility is that a teacher introduces an innovation in her/his class and the innovation becomes so influential that it may expand to the whole school or other schools in the region. However, it does not ‘spread any further up the system to national level’ (p. 19); though in rare cases this might happen if the innovation becomes so effective and popular that the government decides to replicate it at a national level.

The third possibility is limited to the individual classroom only. Its sole purpose is personal improvement, and therefore it may take on the form of a teacher’s action research. Though these three forms of the individual model present three different scenarios, a salient and common feature in all of these is that they involve a micro-level of innovation implementation (Kennedy, 2013).

iii. Ecological model

The ecological model is based on the principle of decentralisation. It empowers the implementers of change to improvise in line with the local situations and needs. Hence, the ecological model involves the implementers in the decision-making process. When presenting the rationale for the ecological model, Kennedy (2013) argues that the change is dynamic and unpredictable in nature and does not operate in a linear fashion, whether it is top-down or bottom-up.
It ‘operates within systems and sub-systems of interconnected components which cannot be isolated’ (p. 21). Therefore, systems should have the ability to self-organise and be able to improvise in case any change occurs. However, Kennedy (2013) warns that the improvisation should not be to such an extent that the real essence of the innovation is lost. Kennedy (2013) clarifies that though theoretically decentralisation and improvisation seem very attractive concepts, their implementation is not so easy. They require ‘capacities, expertise, and resources that may not be located in educational institutions faced with an innovation’ (p. 21). Nevertheless, Kennedy (2013) claims that if implemented properly, the ecological model may prove to be ‘the most fruitful’ model (p. 22) as it combines the advantages of both mechanistic and individual models and minimises their shortcomings. Kennedy’s three models of innovation are given in Figure 3.1 below.

```
mechanistic  national/large-scale/external  central control

   |  
   v  

ecological  a systemic ‘mix’

   |  
   v  

individual  classroom/small-scale/internal  local control
```

Figure 3.1: Three models of educational innovation (Kennedy, 2013, p. 16)

The ELE context in this study is based on a top-down/mechanistic model, as the policy decisions about innovations in pedagogy are taken at the Federal Ministry of Education level and their implementation is required at textbook development and classroom instruction levels. Further, the findings of the study will reveal if the implementation takes a similar top-down approach or whether Kennedy’s individual or ecological models are in evidence.

The literature on innovative ELE programmes reveals that the top-down/mechanistic model of innovation is widely practised across the world ‘in
both developing and developed countries’ (Wedell & Grassick, 2018a, p. 3). A review of such top-down-model-based ELT curricular innovation studies and their implementation outcomes is given in Section 3.3 below. However, before reviewing these studies, I briefly discuss three concepts: language programme evaluation, stages of innovation, and innovation implementation.

3.2.2 Language programme evaluation

The term programme evaluation is defined as ‘a form of enquiry which describes the achievements of a given programme, provides explanations for these, and sets out ways in which further development might be realized’ (Kiely, 2009, p. 99). According to Robinson (2003), programme evaluation involves ‘collection, analysis, and interpretation of information [...] for forming judgements about the value of a particular programme’ (p. 199). Robinson (2003) notes that the main aims of a programme evaluation are providing information about the objectives and value of a programme, measuring the extent to which the programme has been implemented, its objectives have been achieved, and finally giving feedback for making necessary improvements in the programme. This study of ELE programme evaluation includes all these aspects. It evaluates the extent to which the ELT curricular reforms are implemented in Pakistan and serves as feedback to all stakeholders who may wish to make changes to the programme in the light of the outcomes of this research.

3.2.3 Stages of innovation

The literature on innovative education programmes reveals that innovations consist of two stages: innovation formulation and innovation implementation. The innovation formulation takes place at a policy making level and involves introducing innovations in curriculum, syllabus, and instructional materials. The implementation stage involves implementing innovations in classrooms (Karavas-Doukas, 1998). Fullan (2007) and Wedell (2009) discuss the same point and divide the educational innovation process into three phases. Phase-I is the Initiation stage. It refers to the policy making stage, which includes presenting the features of innovation, the rationale, and the implementation form it might take. Phase-II is the Implementation stage, which consists of the first few years (two or three years) of putting reforms into practice. It involves a
preliminary evaluation of how innovations are perceived and experienced by the implementers of change (primarily teachers). Such an evaluation helps in getting feedback from the implementers of change and amending innovations in the light of their feedback. Phase III is the Institutionalisation stage. This is linked with the sustainability of innovations, their continuation, and making them a permanent feature.

3.2.4 Innovation implementation

The literature on innovative education programmes shows that the initiators of change mostly remain focused on the first part of the process of change. They produce new curricula and sometimes new teaching materials also, but how these curricula and teaching materials are interpreted and implemented by implementers on the ground is usually overlooked (Karavas-Doukas, 1998). This is because the initiators of change often think of implementation as an easy and straightforward process, but in reality it is not so (Fullan, 2007; Wedell, 2009). Fullan (2007) highlights that achieving success in implementing innovations involves sketching out a well-defined implementation mechanism, getting regular feedback from the implementers of change on the innovations and the implementation procedure, and bringing about changes in beliefs and practices of the implementers of change. Achieving this sort of change is not a quick process. That is why, most of the time, the outcome of innovative education programmes appears in the form of flawed/limited implementation of innovations (Grassick & Wedell, 2018; Hyland & Wong, 2013; Waters, 2009; Waters & Vilches, 2005; Waters & Vilches, 2008; Wedell, 2003, 2009).

3.3 Research on innovative ELE programme evaluation

The literature on ELT curricular innovations, particularly on pedagogical reforms, in various ESL/EFL contexts contains numerous examples of flawed/limited implementation of innovations. Some significant examples in this regard are: Carless (2003, 2004, 2007), Hamid and Honan (2012), Karavas-Doukas (1998), Kirkgöz (2008), Li (1998), and Orafi and Borg (2009). An overview of these studies, including the context of the study, the pedagogical innovations required to be implemented, the education level (e.g., primary or
secondary) at which the pedagogical innovations were to be implemented, the data collection methods, and the participants, is given in Table 3.1 below. The outcomes of these studies (mostly in the form of limited implementation of innovations) and the factors reported in these studies to have accounted for the limited implementation of innovations are discussed subsequently in Section 3.3.1 below.
Table 3.1: Some research on innovative ELE programme evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Innovation type</th>
<th>Study type</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Data collection methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carless (2003, 2004)</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Primary schools</td>
<td>TBLT-based curricular reforms</td>
<td>A seven-month case study</td>
<td>Three female English language teachers</td>
<td>Classroom observations (17 lessons per teacher), semi-structured interviews (6 interviews per teacher), and a five-point Likert attitude scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carless (2007)</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Secondary schools</td>
<td>TBLT-based curricular reforms</td>
<td>Qualitative inquiry</td>
<td>11 English language teachers and 10 teacher educators</td>
<td>Semi-structured interviews with teachers and teacher educators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamid &amp; Honan (2012)</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Both public and private primary and secondary schools</td>
<td>CLT-based curricular innovations</td>
<td>Qualitative inquiry</td>
<td>The exact number of teachers is not mentioned</td>
<td>Classroom observations (252 English lessons – 90 primary and 162 secondary) and interviews with teachers, head-teachers and learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karavas-Doukas (1998)</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>Secondary schools</td>
<td>CLT-based curricular innovations</td>
<td>A three-month case study</td>
<td>14 teachers for classroom observations and interviews, 87 teachers for questionnaire and the attitude scale</td>
<td>Classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, questionnaire, and a Likert attitude scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kirkgöz (2008)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>State primary schools</td>
<td>CLT-based curricular innovations</td>
<td>A two-year case study</td>
<td>32 English language teachers (6 male and 26 female)</td>
<td>Classroom observations (8 lessons per teacher), teacher interviews, and lesson transcripts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li (1998)</td>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>Secondary schools</td>
<td>CLT-based curricular innovations</td>
<td>Mixed-methods</td>
<td>18 teacher-students (9 male and 9 female teachers in rural and urban schools)</td>
<td>Questionnaire and semi-structured interviews with 10 teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orafi &amp; Borg (2009)</td>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>State secondary schools</td>
<td>CLT-based curricular reforms</td>
<td>Qualitative inquiry</td>
<td>Three English language teachers (1 female 2 male)</td>
<td>Classroom observations (8–9 lessons per teacher) and follow up semi-structured interviews with teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In addition to these studies, Wedell and Grassick (2018b) in their recently edited book, ‘International perspectives on teachers living with curriculum change’, present 11 curricular innovation studies of individual teachers in ten different countries (Argentina, China, Cuba, India, Kenya, Korea, The Philippines, Poland, Senegal, and Vietnam). All these studies investigate the implementation of ‘interactive classroom teaching and learning approaches’ in these countries (p. 247), and the older and more recent studies cited above are reviewed in more detail in what follows.

### 3.3.1 Findings of research on innovative ELE programme evaluation

The majority of these studies (both the studies mentioned in Table 3.1 above and the studies of individual teachers in Wedell and Grassick (2018b)) report broadly similar findings in the form of the limited implementation of innovations. All these studies also draw attention to the factors that account for teachers’ limited implementation of innovations. The factors that are reported recurrently in these studies are:

- Incompatibility between the features of innovation and the local socio-educational norms
- Incompatibility between teachers’ beliefs and attitudes and the features of innovation
- Teachers’ lack of understanding of the features of innovation because of a lack of innovation-specific training and a lack of ongoing professional development opportunities for teachers
- Inconsistency between innovation features and examination patterns
- Institutional constraints, such as lack of resources, discipline issues, time constraints, and lack of support from administration
- Constraints associated with learners, such as their low proficiency in English and lack of motivation and interest in learning English
- Constraints associated with teachers, such as their low proficiency in English
- Constraints associated with instructional materials/textbooks
Given space constraints, in this literature review I discuss these factors briefly. A detailed discussion on these factors in relation to my results can be found in Chapter 8 (Discussion).

i. **Incompatibility between the features of innovation and the local socio-educational norms**

The most important and overarching factor is incompatibility between the features of innovation and the local socio-educational norms. The findings of these studies confirm the point made by many researchers (Baldauf, et al., 2011; Holliday, 1994; Hu, 2002; Kaplan et al., 2011; McKay, 2003; Nunan, 2003; Wedell, 2003) that the policy makers, being acutely aware of the global spread of English and the popularity of the Western-oriented modern language teaching approaches (communicative language teaching (CLT) and task based language teaching (TBLT)) tend to implement these foreign-imported pedagogical approaches and give little thought to whether these approaches fit in the local socio-educational context. Many studies (e.g., Carless, 2003, 2004, 2007; Hamid & Honan, 2012; Karavas-Doukas, 1998; Kirkgöz, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Shamim, 1996) highlight that interactive, learner-centred pedagogical approaches are in conflict with the local socio-educational norms, which give less importance to the use of communicative activities between learners and stress the need to develop learners’ grammatical competence and memorisation of knowledge. Further, the local socio-educational norms favour traditional teacher-centred methods of instruction, such as the grammar translation method (GTM) and the audiolingual method and assign the teacher the role of an instructor rather than that of a facilitator. Both teachers and learners may also feel comfortable in their traditional roles of the transmitter and recipient of knowledge respectively and resist the use of CLT or TBLT. An example of learners’ preference for traditional teaching methods in Pakistan is found in Shamim’s (1996) case study ‘with a small class of ten postgraduate students doing a course in Linguistics and Language Teaching’ (p. 107). Shamim tried to implement the use of innovative practices of learner-autonomy and learner-centredness in her classes, but her learners felt uncomfortable, resisted her use of innovative practices via ‘both overt and implicit forms of behaviour’
(p. 106), and even requested the teacher to revert to a traditional style. The main reason for learners’ resistance was that the innovative pedagogical practices based on learner-autonomy and learner-centredness used by the teacher were in conflict with the Pakistani socio-educational norms that assign a subordinate role to learners. In sum, the above studies show that the innovative education programmes intended to implement BANA\(^7\)-based pedagogical approaches in TESEP\(^8\) countries did not prove successful simply because the TESEP contexts where these studies were conducted were based on different socio-educational norms than those of BANA contexts where modern pedagogical approaches (CLT and TBLT) are practicable.

ii. **Incompatibility between teachers’ beliefs and attitudes and the features of innovation**

Teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching and learning processes are shaped by the norms of the society and the educational system of which they are a part. Hence, if teachers’ beliefs and attitudes are incompatible with the innovations, the implementation of innovations is affected (Fullan, 1993; Holliday, 1994). For example, Karavas-Doukas (1998), who explored Greek secondary school teachers’ attitudes towards CLT-based curricular innovations, found that ‘teachers’ attitudes and beliefs of the teaching/learning process were to a large extent incompatible with the principles of the innovation’ (p. 46, italics in original): 98% of the 87 teachers who participated in the study expressed their dissatisfaction with the innovative textbooks on the grounds that the textbooks did not promote the explicit instruction of grammar, lacked ‘extensive reading passages that could be exploited for vocabulary work’, and contained more ‘open-ended activities’ that encouraged learners’ creative use of English (p. 46). Hence, the textbooks that were designed in line with the CLT-based curricular innovations were disapproved of by the teachers because of different beliefs

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\(^7\) Holliday (1994) coined the term BANA. This refers to the largely private ELE system originating in countries like Britain, Australasia and North America, which are English speaking countries and have taken the lead in introducing new approaches to ELT.

\(^8\) The term TESEP was also coined by Holliday (1994). It stands for the mainstream tertiary, secondary, and primary state education institutions in non-English speaking countries (especially the developing countries) where English is taught as a second or foreign language.
about language teaching and learning processes which were at odds with CLT tenets. Similarly, teachers’ beliefs about the role of a teacher were also in opposition with the teacher’s role CLT requires:

The majority of the teachers viewed their role in the classroom as the language expert who had the knowledge and skills to transmit information about the language to the learners. The roles of facilitator, guide, monitor of students’ learning, so central to the implementation of this new [CLT-based] curriculum, were never mentioned by the teachers in the interviews. (Karavas-Doukas, 1998, p. 47)

Carless (2003) reports that of the three teachers who participated in his case study research on the implementation of TBLT in primary schools in Hong Kong, one teacher appeared to hold favourable beliefs and attitudes about TBLT which resulted in the teachers’ successful implementation of TBLT-based curricular innovations. On the other hand, the other two teachers appeared to have less favourable attitudes towards TBLT and hence they were less successful in implementing the innovations. Similarly, in their study of three teachers’ implementation of CLT in secondary schools in Libya, Orafi and Borg (2009) report that the teachers’ beliefs about their learners’ low proficiency in English kept them from involving learners in communicative activities in the class.

iii. Teachers’ lack of clarity concerning the features of innovation

Teachers’ lack of knowledge about the features of innovation is noted in many studies as a reason for their limited implementation of innovations. This is mainly due to the lack of innovation-specific training and limited opportunities for teachers’ ongoing professional development. For example, in Karavas-Doukas (1998), 88% of the 87 Greek secondary school teachers who participated in the study reported being ‘inadequately trained in the communicative approach’, which was one of the reasons for their limited implementation of innovations (p. 46). Kirkgöz (2008) also reported that only six of the 32 teachers who participated in her study were familiar with the principles of CLT and of teaching English to young learners (TEYLs), and only those six teachers were successful in implementing the CLT-based curriculum innovations in primary schools in Turkey. Similar findings linked with teachers’ lack of understanding of the innovation features due to limited teacher training leading to their limited
implementation of innovations are reported by Orafi and Borg (2009) in their study of the implementation of CLT-oriented curricular innovations in Libyan secondary schools. Li (1998, 2001) also noted that the teachers regarded the lack of innovation-specific training as a reason for their inability to implement CLT in secondary schools in South Korea. Tetiurka (2018) and Yan (2018), in their studies of individual teachers’ innovation implementation in Poland and China respectively, report both a lack of training and inappropriate training (focusing more on teachers’ administrative obligations and less on pedagogy) as reasons for teachers’ limited understanding of innovations that ultimately led to the teachers’ limited implementation of innovations. Likewise, the issue of lack of ongoing professional development opportunities for teachers, leading to teachers’ limited implementation of innovations, is also highlighted by Karavas-Doukas (1998) and Li (1998) in their studies of the implementation of CLT in secondary schools in Greece and South Korea respectively.

iv. Examination constraints

Examination constraints also account for teachers’ limited implementation of innovations (Wedell, 1992, 2009). Many studies (Carless, 2007; Kirkgöz, 2008; Li, 1998, 2001; Orafi & Borg, 2009) highlight that the end-of-course exams do not support teachers’ use of CLT or TBLT in their classes. On the one hand, the innovations require teachers to use communicative approaches; on the other hand, the exams do not assess learners’ communicative skills. Various in-house, local, or national exams mainly assess learners’ knowledge of discrete linguistic items, such as grammar and vocabulary, and encourage learners to prepare to answer the questions, especially those related to the reading comprehension and writing skills, via memorisation. Some innovation implementation studies of individual teachers, such as Ong’ondo (2018) in Kenya, Tetiurka (2018) in Poland, Tran (2018) in Vietnam, and Yan (2018) in China, also report discrepancies between the intended innovations and the examinations as a reason for the teachers’ limited implementation of innovations.
v. Institutional constraints

Various institutional constraints, such as large classes, discipline issues, time constraints, lack of support from administration, and lack of resources, are also highlighted as impediments in implementing CLT or TBLT in many studies. For example, Carless (2007) and Li (1998) report teachers’ perceptions about large classes as a barrier to the implementation of TBLT and CLT in secondary schools in Hong Kong and South Korea respectively. Carless (2003, 2007) notes discipline issues, such as noise and loss of control in class, to discourage teachers from using communicative activities. Padwad and Dixit (2018) report head-teachers’ unsupportive attitude towards teachers’ use of interactive activities because of noise and discipline issues. Likewise, head-teachers’ preference for securing high learners’ marks in exams rather than learners’ learning of the English language is reported in Carless (2003), Li (1998), and Tran (2018). Time constraints because of the pressure to cover the syllabus in the stipulated time is reported as a hurdle to the use of learner-centred activities in classrooms in Carless (2003, 2007), Li (1998), Padwad and Dixit (2018), Tran (2018), and Yan (2018). Lack of material resources, such as audio-visual aids and the facility to print handouts, are also reported as hurdles to the implementation of communicative activities in classes in Karavas-Doukas (1998), Kirkgöz (2008), and Li (1998, 2001).

vi. Constraints associated with learners and teachers

Constraints associated with learners, particularly their low proficiency in English and lack of interest in developing their communicative competence in English, are highlighted as hurdles for teachers to implement the CLT-based curricular innovations in many studies. For instance, in Li (1998) and Orafi and Borg (2009), teachers highlighted learners’ low proficiency in English as an obstacle in involving learners in communicative activities in secondary level English language classrooms in South Korea and Libya respectively. Similarly, Carless (2007) highlighted the issue of learners’ use of their native language in group work activities because of their inability to communicate in English. Likewise, learners’ lack of interest to participate in interactive activities and
develop their communicative competence in English was also reported by teachers in Carless (2007) and Li (1998, 2001).

In addition to learners’ low proficiency in English, teachers’ inability to speak English fluently also appeared as a reason for some teachers’ extended use of their L1 rather than English and for involving learners minimally in communicative activities in their lessons. For example, Hamid and Honan (2012) and Orafi and Borg (2009) in their studies of the implementation of CLT in schools in Bangladesh and Libya respectively report teachers’ extended use of their L1 and scant use of the target language (English) because of their low proficiency in English. Similarly, all 18 teachers in Li (1998, p. 686) considered their low proficiency in English as a hurdle to ‘applying CLT in their classrooms’.

vii. Constraints associated with textbooks

Another reason for teachers’ limited use of interactive activities is being required to use a textbook that does not support the use of a communicative approach. For example, in her study of a teacher’s implementation of CLT in Vietnam, Tran (2018) reports that the teacher faced difficulty in implementing CLT as the textbooks did not promote the use of a communicative approach. Kirkgöz (2008, p. 1864) also pointed out that ‘the listening and speaking components of CLT were not adequately catered for’ in the ‘textbooks for grades 4 and 5’ used in the Turkish primary schools. Padwad and Dixit (2018) also highlight that textbook-driven exams and the pressure of syllabus-coverage on teachers in Maharashtra (India) compel teachers to teach to the test and book. Such constraints compel teachers to act as passive implementers rather than acting as creative thinkers. This is why some education scholars (e.g., Allwright, 1981; Thornbury & Meddings, 2001 cited in Harwood, 2005) oppose the use of an officially mandated textbook, arguing that it may take away teachers’ independence, creativity, and innovation. In many BANA countries (like the USA, UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand) where English is the native language of a large majority of the population, the use of a specifically prescribed textbook by the ministry of education is relatively unusual, and the institute or the teacher is usually given the freedom to choose the instructional materials.
On the other hand, the use of a specifically prescribed ELT textbook is still prevalent in many TESEP countries. In addition, teachers in many TESEP countries are also unable to adapt materials due to a number of reasons, such as lack of professional skills or end-of-course exams that are based on the officially prescribed textbooks. Pakistan (the context of the present study) is also one of those TESEP countries where ELE is based on the officially-mandated ELT textbooks. That is why analysing ELT textbooks forms an important part in this study. Therefore, I now review some relevant literature on materials evaluation. This part of the literature review addresses the following aspects:

i. What is materials evaluation?
ii. What are the different types or stages of materials evaluation? and
iii. What different frameworks for materials evaluation are proposed by education scholars and researchers?

3.4 Materials evaluation

Tomlinson (2011, p.2) defines materials as ‘anything which is used by teachers and learners to facilitate the learning of a language’. Instructional materials may consist of printed materials (coursebooks, workbooks, photocopied materials, and handouts), electronic materials (CDs, websites, mobile applications, videos, and emails), and authentic materials (newspapers, magazines, food packages, and photographs).

Materials evaluation is defined as ‘a procedure that involves measuring the values (or potential value) of a set of learning materials. It involves making judgements about the effect of the materials on the people using them’ (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 15). In the literature, the terms materials evaluation and analysis are often used interchangeably, as they are logically connected with each other. However, some researchers (e.g., McGrath, 2016; Tomlinson, 2012) make a distinction between the two, and this point is explained below.
3.4.1 Materials analysis and materials evaluation

The analysis of materials is said to be an initial process. McGrath (2016, p. 28) calls it a ‘pre-evaluation stage’, as it involves the pre-estimation of the suitability of materials. In materials analysis, the focus is on the materials themselves, achieved by an objective analysis of the materials by answering questions, such as what they contain and what they aim to achieve (McGrath, 2016). Materials evaluation, on the other hand, is carried out from the users’ perspective. It ‘attempts to measure the potential or actual effects of the materials on their users’ (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 148). It is subjective and judgemental in nature and seeks ‘to discover whether what one is looking for is there – and, if it is, to put a value on it.’ (McGrath, 2016, p. 28, italics in original). The difference between materials analysis and evaluation is also summarised in Figure 3.2 below.

| Materials analysis | • an initial process  
|                    | • involves a pre-estimation of the suitability of materials  
|                    | • focus is on materials themselves  
|                    | • objective in nature  
| Materials evaluation | • carried out from users’ perspective  
|                    | • measures the effects of materials on users  
|                    | • subjective and judgemental in nature  

Figure 3.2: Difference between materials analysis and evaluation (adapted from McGrath, 2016 and Tomlinson, 2012)

In this study, I have analysed materials (ELT textbooks). However, as the two terms (materials evaluation and analysis) are often used interchangeably in the literature, I also use them interchangeably in this thesis. I now explain different types or stages of materials evaluation.

3.4.2 Types or stages of materials evaluation

The literature on materials evaluation divides materials/textbook evaluation into two or three major types. Some of the major types presented by Ellis (1997), McGrath (2016), and Tomlinson (2003) are given below (see Figure 3.3).
Ellis (1997) proposes two major types of materials evaluation: *predictive* and *retrospective*. Predictive evaluation is done before implementing the teaching materials to determine whether they are suitable for teaching purposes. Retrospective evaluation is done once the teaching process is over and the materials have been used. Retrospective evaluation is carried out ‘to determine whether it is worthwhile using the materials again, which activities ‘work’ and which do not, and how to modify the materials to make them more effective for future use’ (Ellis, 1997, p. 37). Ellis (1997) explains that retrospective evaluation can be carried out impressionistically or empirically by following a systematic data collection process. Mostly impressionistic evaluations are carried out; empirical evaluations are not so common, as ‘they are time-consuming’ (p. 37). My focus in this study is on predictive evaluation, though I explore teachers’ textbook use also.

Contrary to Ellis (1997), McGrath (2016) and Tomlinson (2003) divide materials evaluation into three types. McGrath (2016) divides the evaluation into *pre-use*, *in-use*, and *post-use* evaluation. Pre-use evaluation is similar to predictive evaluation that is carried out prior to the use of materials. It is the first step in the materials evaluation process, and its main purpose is just to indicate the ‘potential suitability’ of the materials (McGrath, 2016, p. 189, italics in original). In-use evaluation takes place when the materials are being used. A systematic and well-planned in-use evaluation helps a teacher ‘to make almost
a moment-by-moment assessment of whether the materials are standing up to the test of use’ (McGrath, 2016, p. 190). Further, it also enlightens a teacher about the modifications she/he needs to make while using the materials. Post-use evaluation is carried out at the end of the teaching process. It tends to measure the ‘cumulative effects’ of the use of materials on the users (McGrath, 2016, p. 208). It also enables the evaluators to make further decisions, such as whether they should replace the materials or adapt them for future use. The evaluation types proposed by Tomlinson (2003) are not much different from those of McGrath (2016). Tomlinson also specifies the same three types. The only difference is that, unlike McGrath (2016), Tomlinson (2003) uses the term whilst-use evaluation instead of in-use evaluation. As mentioned earlier, in this study, I carry out pre-use evaluation of materials, though I also explore how teachers use the textbook in their classes.

Just as they identify different types of materials evaluation, researchers (Ellis, 1997, 2011; Littlejohn, 2011; McDonough et al., 2013; McGrath, 2016) have proposed different levels of materials evaluation, which are given below.

3.4.3 Levels of materials evaluation

Thematically, the levels of materials evaluation proposed by Ellis (1997, 2011), Littlejohn (2011), McDonough et al. (2013), and McGrath (2016) are very similar to each other. However, there is some variation between them, especially at the level of the terminology used by these researchers to label these levels. These levels of materials evaluation are given in Figure 3.4 below, and I also explain these levels to help us understand how similar and different they are to each other.

Ellis (1997, 2011) suggests that materials evaluation can be carried out at two levels, which he calls macro and micro levels. Macro-evaluation involves ‘the overall assessment of whether an entire set of materials has worked’ (Ellis, 1997, p. 37). However, it is a difficult task, as it requires following a well-planned procedure for data collection and analysis and acquiring detailed information about every aspect of materials. In order to overcome the difficulties of macro-
evaluation, micro-evaluation procedures may be preferred. In micro-evaluation, a teacher/researcher can select one particular aspect (e.g., activities and tasks) of teaching materials and can carry out detailed evaluation of that particular aspect. In this way, a series of micro-evaluations can lay the foundation for macro-evaluation. However, a micro-evaluation study can also stand on its own as an independent study (Ellis, 1997). According to Ellis (2011, p. 231), micro-evaluation is beneficial in the sense that it enables ‘a teacher to examine the assumptions that lie behind the design of a task and the procedures used to implement it.’ It also helps a teacher/researcher to find out if a task works the same way as proposed and, if not, then how it can be amended for future use. In this study, I focus on micro-evaluation. I analyse the work plans\(^9\) (exercises/tasks/activities) given in the textbook to examine what pedagogical principles they embody and what pedagogical practices they promote.

\[\text{Figure 3.4: Levels of materials evaluation}\]

Littlejohn (2011) proposes three levels of materials analysis (see Figure 3.5 below). The first level is about the physical aspects of materials, such as publication date, intended audience, layout, colour scheme, table of contents, table of contents,

\[^9\text{A detailed description of the term ‘work plan’ is given in Section 4.6.1 below. Here it is enough to say that the term ‘work plan’ refers to any type of activity, task, or exercise that is used to teach a language skill/subskill.}\]
number of units and their division into sub-sections, use of images, and the availability of items in the set, such as teacher's book, workbook, and CD.

The second level focuses on what Littlejohn (2011, p. 188) calls ‘a slightly deeper level of analysis... [and] probably the most important aspect of materials.’ It primarily concerns what actions the materials want the teachers and the learners to perform. According to Littlejohn (2011), the best way to analyse this is to examine what type of tasks and activities are given in the materials. For example, whether the tasks/activities focus on form or meaning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. ‘WHAT IS THERE’</th>
<th>‘objective description’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• statements of description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• physical aspects of the materials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• main steps in the instructional sections</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. ‘WHAT IS REQUIRED OF USERS’</th>
<th>‘subjective analysis’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• subdivision into constituent tasks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• an analysis of tasks: what is the learner expected to do? Who with? With what content?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. ‘WHAT IS IMPLIED’</th>
<th>‘subjective inference’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• deducing aims, principle of selection and sequence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• deducing teacher and learner roles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• deducing demands on learner’s process competence</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.5: Levels of analysis of language teaching materials (Littlejohn, 2011, p. 185)

At the third level, materials are analysed more deeply. Littlejohn (2011) divides the third level into three stages. The first stage concerns the process of ‘what precisely learners are expected to do’ during the learning process in the classroom (p. 190). The process stage is further divided into three subsections: (i) turn-take, (ii) focus, and (iii) mental operation. ‘Turn-take relates to the role in classroom discourse the learners are expected to take’ (p. 190, italics added). It refers to whether learners are expected ‘to produce a scripted response to direct questions, using language largely supplied by the material’ or whether they are supposed to provide responses using their own language (p. 190). Focus refers to whether the learners are supposed to focus on form or meaning or both. Mental operation involves what mental processes, such as repetition and
problem-solving, the learners are required to perform. The second stage is an examination of participation that involves whether the learners are expected to perform individually or in pairs or groups. The third stage focuses on content. It focuses on the form (written or spoken) in which the ‘content of the input and of the learners’ expected output’ is available (p. 190). It also focuses on whether it exists in the form of individual words and sentences or in extended discourse. The next aspect is the source of the content—whether it comes from materials, teacher, or learners. The last aspect is the nature of the content—whether it exists in the form of ‘grammar explanations, personal information, fiction, general knowledge and so on’ (p. 190).

In this study, my analysis of the textbook work plans covers the aspects which are similar to Littlejohn’s (2011) second and third levels of analysis. For example, I analyse the textbook work plans to explore their types (whether they are input-based or are output-oriented and whether they focus on form or meaning), the teaching/learning processes (knowledge-telling or knowledge-discovery; individual, pair, or group work) they want teachers and learners to perform, and the type of linguistic output (in the form of individual words or sentences or in extended discourse) they want learners to produce.

McGrath (2016) proposes two levels of materials evaluation: first-glance and close evaluation. First-glance evaluation involves an initial assessment of the suitability of materials by establishing whether materials are congruent with the learning context and needs. For this purpose, McGrath (2016) suggests an example of a checklist which consists of four major categories: ‘practical considerations’, ‘support for teaching and learning’, ‘context relevance’, and ‘appeal to learners’ (p. 38). Each category consists of further items which can be answered in a Yes/No form. McGrath (2016) suggests if the answer to most of the items is Yes, the materials may then be subjected to close evaluation. Otherwise it is wiser to reject the materials without going into any further close evaluation. The example of a checklist for first-glance evaluation suggested by McGrath (2016) is given in Figure 3.6 below.
Practical considerations
all components available? Y/N
affordable? Y/N
multi-level (i.e., series)? Y/N

Support for teaching and learning
additional components:
- teacher’s book? Y/N
- tests? Y/N
- audio materials? Y/N
suitable for self-study? Y/N

Context relevance
suitable for course:
- length of course? Y/N
- aims of course? Y/N
- syllabus? Y/N
- exams? Y/N
suitable for learners:
- age? Y/N
- level? Y/N
- cultural background? Y/N
suitable for teachers:
- required resources (e.g., cd player) available? Y/N
- evidence of suitability (e.g., piloted in local context?) Y/N

Likely appeal to learners
layout? Y/N
visuals? Y/N
topics? Y/N
suitable for medium term (i.e., unlikely to date)? Y/N

Figure 3.6: An example of a checklist for first-glance evaluation (McGrath, 2016, p. 38)

For the close evaluation of materials, McGrath (2016) proposes two approaches: (i) a checklist and (ii) an in-depth evaluation. McGrath (2016) adds that though checklists are a convenient way of collecting data for materials evaluation, ‘they can encourage rather superficial judgements’ (p. 57). Therefore, he suggests a second step of in-depth evaluation as well. The in-depth evaluation involves analysing the content of the units, including grammatical structures, vocabulary, and some hidden social, political, or religious ideologies they might contain. The in-depth evaluation also includes analysing the tasks and activities and the teaching/learning principles they embody. As mentioned earlier, in this
study, I carried out an in-depth analysis of the textbook work plans and the teaching/learning principles they embody.

McDonough et al. (2013) also propose two levels of materials evaluation. The first level is external evaluation, which is very similar to McGrath’s (2016) first-glance evaluation. The external evaluation comprises an examination of ‘the claims made for the materials by the author/publisher with respect to the intended audience, the proficiency level, the context and presentation of language items’ (p. 58). It also includes the evaluation of the apparently visible aspects of materials, such as table of contents, layout, visuals, and paper quality. McDonough et al. (2013) also include the evaluation of sociocultural biases in external evaluation.

The second level of materials evaluation suggested by McDonough et al. (2013) is internal evaluation. This includes a detailed evaluation of the four language skills in terms of their proportion, presentation, and treatment. McDonough et al. (2013) emphasise the need to evaluate the appropriateness of tests and exercises (tasks and activities) in relation to the socio-educational context and learners’ needs. They also stress the need to evaluate the nature of interaction between teacher and learner and the teacher-learner roles the materials promote. In this regard, McDonough et al. (2013) suggest that a detailed analysis of at least two units of a textbook is essential to conduct a comprehensive evaluation of the textbook. In line with McDonough et al.’s (2013) suggestion, I carried out a detailed analysis of the work plans given in two units of each textbook in this study.

The above information provides an initial literature review of all those aspects that are of central importance to this study. As the present study deals with the aspects of pedagogy in policy and pedagogy in practice, curriculum, and textbooks in the ELE context in Pakistan, it is logical to review the research that has been carried out in these fields in Pakistan, and this is presented in what follows. This will enlighten us about what sort of research has been carried out in Pakistan, and why there is a need to conduct detailed research investigating the aspects of pedagogy in policy and pedagogy in practice in Pakistan.
3.5 A brief review of research in the ELE context in Pakistan

The studies that have been conducted in the ELE context in Pakistan mostly revolve around the themes of textbook evaluation, methods of instruction, working conditions in schools, and teachers’ professional development. A brief overview of some representative research studies is given below. For the sake of clarity, I have divided the studies into the following six categories:

- Predictive evaluation of textbooks
- Textbook evaluation from teachers’ perspective
- Textbook evaluation against the backdrop of the national curriculum
- Evaluation of cultural content in textbooks
- Methods of instruction, working conditions in schools, and teachers’ professional development needs
- Teachers’ professional development

The main purpose of reviewing the representative research on these varied topics is to reveal to the reader that the research carried out in Pakistan has addressed the issues individually but has not explored the nature of interplay between national curriculum, textbooks, and teachers’ pedagogical practices, which is the focus of this study. In addition, this review also highlights that most of the research in Pakistan is conducted on a small scale and has not investigated the issues in detail. Hence, this review will give the reader an idea of what sort of research has been carried out in Pakistan and why there is a need to conduct this study in the ELE context in Pakistan. I first begin with the studies of textbook evaluation.

3.5.1 Research taking a predictive evaluation approach to textbook analysis

Most of the research on textbook evaluation in Pakistan (e.g., Ali et al., 2015; Fatima et al., 2015; Naseem et al., 2015; Shah et al., 2015) has been carried out via predictive evaluation (Ellis, 1997) of textbooks, which Harwood (2017, p. 1)
calls evaluation ‘at the level of page’, and McGrath (2016) and Tomlinson (2003) name pre-use evaluation of textbooks. Ali et al. (2015) analysed three state-mandated local ELT textbooks used at grade 6, 7 and 8 in Punjab, Pakistan. Naseem et al. (2015) analysed a grade 9 local ELT textbook used in Punjab, Pakistan. Shah et al. (2015) analysed two grade 6 and two grade 7 global ELT textbooks used in a private school in Pakistan; and Fatima et al. (2015) also carried out an analysis of two global ELT textbooks used at grade 7 and 8 in a private English medium school in Pakistan. The researchers in these studies carried out predictive evaluations of the overall design (table of contents; and the distribution of units, lessons, and sections) of the textbooks and of language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing) and tasks/activities given in the textbook units using their own checklists as data collection tools. The textbook analyses in Ali et al. (2015), Naseem et al. (2015), and Shah et al. (2015) revealed that the textbooks emphasised the teaching and learning of grammar and vocabulary and gave comparatively less importance to language skills; whereas the textbook analysis in Fatima et al. (2015) showed that the textbooks gave more importance to English language skills and less to grammar and vocabulary. To provide a fuller explanation, the proportions of different skill/subskill work plans reported to be found in the textbooks in these studies are given in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2: Language skills/subskills occurrence percentage in global/local ELT textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textbook type</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill/Subskill</td>
<td>Occurrence percentage of the work plans</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>31.58%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>17.11%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>17.98%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>15.79%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>15.35%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>2.19%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A common shortcoming in all these studies is that the researchers set their own textbook evaluation criteria (the checklists) that make little connection with theoretical perspectives on materials evaluation. The results are mostly presented quantitatively in the form of only a count of the number of textbook units, tasks, and activities dedicated to each language skill (listening, reading, speaking, and writing) and subskill (vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation). Even if they dig deeper, at most, they classify the activities into different types. For example, when evaluating the speaking skill, Naseem et al. (2015) simply count 2 speaking activities in the form of a dialogue, 3 interview activities, 2 presentations, and 13 individual and group work activities. Further, with this quantitative data the researchers give only a brief description (in the form of phrases) indicating the purpose of those activities but do not explain the underlying pedagogical principles or pedagogical implications of those activities. Hence, these studies are mostly based on weak methodological and analytical frameworks and give only a surface level evaluation of the textbooks. In contrast to these studies, my textbook analysis in this study is based on Ellis’s (2016) framework of textbook analysis, which has a strong connection with the research in the fields of second language acquisition and instructed language learning and is very systematic. Further, in my predictive evaluation of the textbook work plans I explain both the underlying pedagogical principles and the pedagogical implications of the work plans. In addition, I not only carry out the predictive evaluation of the textbooks but also explore teachers’ textbook use in their English language lessons.

3.5.2 Research on textbook evaluation from teachers’ and learners’ perspectives

Panezai and Channa (2017) evaluated the ELT textbooks used at primary level in government schools in the province of Baluchistan from teachers’ perspectives. A mixed method approach was used in which the data was collected in two steps: first, by using a teachers’ evaluation checklist questionnaire, soliciting responses from 188 government primary school teachers and, later on, by interviewing 12 teachers to obtain in-depth information. The findings revealed that the teachers expressed their
dissatisfaction with the quality of the textbooks. In another study, Aftab et al. (2013) evaluated an ELT textbook used at grade 11 in Punjab, Pakistan from teachers’ and learners’ perspectives. The researchers obtained students’ views about the textbook through a questionnaire, and teachers’ views were obtained via semi-structured interviews. The findings revealed both teachers’ and learners’ dissatisfaction with the book. Although these studies are comparatively more detailed than the ones in which the researchers carried out the predictive evaluation of textbooks using their subjective criteria (the checklists), like the studies reviewed above, these studies do not provide a comprehensive evaluation of the textbooks. Like the other predictive studies, these studies focus on teachers’ and learners’ perspectives on the surface aspects of the textbook (skills and subskills) and do not dig into the issues deeply. For example, they do not explore the pedagogical intentions and implications of the textbook, which can be done by doing an in-depth analysis of the texts of the units and the work plans (exercises/tasks/activities) given in the textbook units. In contrast to these studies, my textbook analysis in this study consists of an in-depth analysis of the work plans given in the textbooks and explores their pedagogical intentions and implications in detail.

3.5.3 Research on textbook evaluation against the backdrop of the national curriculum policy

Mahmood et al. (2014) evaluated three ELT textbooks used at middle level (grade 6-8) in the province of Punjab against the backdrop of the national curriculum policy (1998-2010) of the Government of Pakistan that requires textbooks to be developed in line with the progressional development principle, i.e., to gradually increase the difficulty level of lexical and structural tasks in the textbooks. Mahmood et al. (2014) took the national curriculum as a touchstone and investigated whether the ELT textbooks fulfilled the set objectives and learners’ English language learning outcomes as indicated in the national curriculum. This was a corpus-based study and was mostly quantitative in nature. The findings showed that the ELT textbooks had not been designed in line with the principle of progressional development as stated in the national curriculum. The textbooks failed to provide sufficient sequential and repetitive
input of the lexical and structural items presented in the textbooks. The textbooks, in terms of language skills and subskills, did not appear to follow a gradual or sequential pattern moving from simple to complex; rather they were characterised by an abrupt introduction of new and complex items. Like other predictive evaluation textbook studies carried out in Pakistan (e.g., Ali et al., 2015; Fatima et al., 2015; Naseem et al., 2015; Shah et al., 2015), however, this study also presented findings only in the form of quantitative data and presented only surface level evaluation of the textbooks.

3.5.4 Research on the evaluation of cultural content in textbooks

Some studies (e.g., Shah, 2012; Yaqoob & Zubair, 2012; Zafar & Mehmood, 2016) analysed the cultural content in textbooks. Shah (2012) investigated the hidden curriculum (gender and different socio-religious ideologies) in locally produced secondary level ELT textbooks. She employed a mixed method approach, using three data collection methods: content analysis of the textbooks, questionnaire, and interviews. The study revealed the biased content and under-representation of women in secondary level ELT textbooks in Pakistan. Yaqoob and Zubair (2012) carried out a comparative analysis of the cultural content in two ELT textbooks (one published by a local Pakistani publisher and the other by an international publisher) used in two different systems of education (public and private schools) in Pakistan. The textbook analysis was carried out by using the critical discourse analysis method based on ‘Fairclough’s (2003) framework of implication, assumption, representation, comparison, presupposition, difference, and evaluation’ (Yaqoob & Zubair, 2012, p. 532). The findings revealed that the two textbooks presented two different social cultures. The global textbook presented a Western culture associated with personal freedom, individualism, and a more liberal approach towards life; whereas the local textbook promoted a Pakistani culture in which an individual is strongly connected with religious, familial, and social bonds. One of the main shortcomings of these studies, however, is that they lack any exploration of how the books are used by teachers in the classroom; and how the teachers and students feel about the culture-specific content. These studies analyse the social culture presented in the textbooks; and in this study, I analyse the pedagogical
practices the ELT textbooks promote, which is also called the culture of language teaching and learning (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996) a textbook promotes. In addition, I also explore how teachers use those textbooks in the classroom.

3.5.5 Research on methods of instruction, working conditions in schools, and teachers’ professional development needs

Various studies (Ali, 2017; Haidar, 2019; Kanu, 1996) have investigated the use of different methods of instruction in schools in Pakistan. Haidar (2019) investigated the instructional methods used in elite English-medium schools and their effects on promoting a social class difference. ‘Data were collected through participant observation in four different types of schools [and] through interviews of administrators, teachers, and students’ (Haidar, 2019, p. 833). The findings showed that the elite English medium schools encouraged learner-centeredness and promoted linguistic competence, creativity, critical thinking, and leadership qualities among learners. The researcher concluded that these features of English medium schools help learners in attaining high-level, white-collar jobs, and consequently promote a social class difference.

Kanu (1996) investigated teachers’ teaching practices in two developing countries: Sierra Leone in West Africa and Pakistan in South Asia. Data was collected by observing Social Studies classes. Four classes (two secondary and two primary) in four different schools were observed in Sierra Leone, and seven Social Studies classes (grade 4-10) were observed in both government and private schools in Karachi, Pakistan. The findings showed that the teachers in both educational contexts followed similar pedagogical practices. They used the lecture method to explain factual information to learners. When they wanted the learners to participate in the classroom, they would ask them to read the text from the textbook. They avoided any topics that could create controversy, argumentative discussion, or critical thinking among the learners. The learners’ learning was assessed on the basis of how well they memorise and recall the information given in the book. The study recommends that there is a need to replace the existing non-critical teaching approaches in developing countries.
with critical approaches, which help develop learners as independent thinkers and empower them to improve their personal and social lives.

Ali (2017) conducted a study on teachers’ teaching practices, working conditions in schools, and teachers’ professional development needs in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK), Pakistan. A mixed method approach was used. The data was collected ‘using focus-group discussion with teachers (N=481), classroom observation (N=66), post-observation interviews with teachers (N=24), and analysis of qualitative responses from survey questionnaires (N=200)’ (p. 1). The study included teachers from ‘schools (primary, elementary, secondary and higher secondary) located in 12 districts (rural and urban mixed) of KPK’ (p. 1).

With regard to teachers’ teaching practices and the classroom environment, Ali (2017) reported the following findings:

[The classroom observations revealed] both positive and negative pictures of teaching and learning practices [and the classroom environment] in schools in KPK. However, the numbers of observations which depict a positive picture of classroom teaching and learning are limited, compared with the observations that portray a negative picture of teaching and learning situation prevalent in classrooms in KPK. The observers’ comments about the positive dimensions of teaching and learning practices [and the classroom environment] include remarks about discipline, cleanliness and tidiness of the classroom, teacher’s motivation or enthusiasm, teacher’s command of subject knowledge, teacher-student interaction, classroom management and students’ participation in activities. [...] The negative picture of the teaching and learning processes or the classroom environment [...] relates to the physical, social and psychological environment of the classroom, the teacher’s personality, motivation, teaching methods, subject matter and teacher-student relationships. The data frequently refer to small, crowded or filthy classrooms, where students have been described as sitting idle or passively receiving information. (p. 14)

As for the teaching and learning processes, Ali reported the prevalence of a traditional, lecture-oriented teaching method with textbook and blackboard as the main teaching resources. Activity-based learning and the development of learners’ critical and analytical skills were found wanting. Instead, translation and memorisation were practised as learning strategies. In terms of material resources, the classrooms were found not only devoid of teaching aids, but some classrooms lacked even enough space to accommodate the students. As for ‘teachers’ perceptions about their working conditions’ (p. 16), 85% of the teachers reported being dissatisfied with the working conditions, including a lack of resources, large-class sizes, shortage of time, and a lack of support from
administration, and insisted on the need to improve working conditions in schools. Similarly, 80% of the teachers ‘expressed dissatisfaction over their teaching practices’ (p. 16) and stressed the need for the provision of continuous professional development opportunities to teachers to develop their pedagogical skills and professional expertise.

Though these studies, especially Ali (2017) and Kanu (1996), are detailed and methodologically sound, the investigation of methods of instruction in these studies is mostly general in nature, not specifically with regard to the teaching of English, which is a neglected area in research in Pakistan. Therefore, in this study, I have carried out an in-depth exploration of teachers’ pedagogical practices, especially with reference to the teaching of English in Pakistan.

3.5.6 Research on teachers’ professional development

Some studies (Kanu 2005; Khamis & Sammons, 2004, 2007) have investigated the role of teacher-education programmes on teachers’ teaching practices. Kanu (2005) investigated ‘tensions and dilemmas of cross-cultural transfer of knowledge’ with regard to an innovative teacher-education programme in Pakistan (p. 493). The study was qualitative in nature, involving participant observation, informal interviews, student journals, and informal conversation with students as data collection tools. 18 participants (11 female and 7 male student-teachers) from South Asia (Pakistan, India, and Bangladesh) enrolled in an M.Ed. programme participated in the study. The findings revealed that the participants (student-teachers) felt uncomfortable when they were taught through teaching methods that encourage individualism, learner autonomy, and critical approaches. The participants found group work and collaborative projects helpful. These findings reflect their South Asian cultural values that are based on social relatedness and interdependence. In contrast, when they were asked to follow critical approaches, most of them felt uncomfortable. This can again be accounted for by referring to their South Asian cultural values that emphasise obedience and subjugation rather than autonomy, individualism, and self-empowerment. Finally, when the participants were asked what type of support they needed to learn the skill of being independent and critical learners,
they requested support in the form of scaffolding until they become skilled enough to learn independently. Hence, the author concludes that there is a need to adapt teacher-education programmes by keeping in mind the local socio-educational norms.

Khamis and Sammons (2004) conducted a study of the professional development of teachers in Pakistan. Nine teachers were trained in an in-service two-year teacher-education (M.Ed.) programme with the intention of developing them as (a) exemplary teachers, (b) teacher educators, and (c) change agents after the completion of the programme. The study was based on a longitudinal case-study approach that lasted for three years. Nine participants (teachers working in different schools), who were enrolled in a two-year teacher-education (M.Ed.) programme and later went back to teach in their parent institutions, participated in the study. The findings revealed that the teachers benefited a lot from the teacher-education (M.Ed.) programme. The training improved their teaching practices and helped them in becoming exemplary teachers and teacher educators. However, upon the completion of the programme, most of them preferred the role of a teacher educator rather than working as a classroom-based teacher. Further, their role as change agents was very limited because of various reasons, such as resource constraints, shortage of time to deliberate and discuss ideas with their colleagues, and lack of support from head-teachers. Consequently, they sought to secure positions outside the school which would enable them to have more freedom to put their ideas into practice. The authors conclude that teacher-education programmes can be helpful in imparting quality education, but only when they are supported by other relevant measures, such as support from colleagues and administration and the availability of ongoing professional development.

Khamis and Sammons (2007) investigated the impact of an innovative teacher-education programme aimed at school improvement in Pakistan. The study was based on two case studies of teachers representing two different schools—a private and a government school. Both the case studies lasted for five years. The two participants were first provided teacher-education by enrolling them in an M.Ed. programme. Upon the completion of the programme, they
were supposed to teach in their schools for three years. Classroom observations and focus-group discussions were used as data collection tools. The findings showed that upon the completion of the programme, when teacher-I started working in the school (private), she received a lack of support from both the school administration and senior teachers to play the role of a professional development teacher (PDT). But she adapted and focused her energies on the younger inexperienced teachers who exhibited a welcoming attitude to her as a PDT. Teacher-II (government school) experienced a similar lack of support and encouragement from her head-teacher. However, despite many contextual constraints in her workplace, she continued using innovative approaches in her teaching. She worked sensibly, did not defy the authority of the head-teacher, cooperated with her colleagues, and stuck to her pedagogic principles where she could. Finally, on account of her commitment and professional expertise, her efforts were acknowledged by her students, colleagues, and a section of the administration. Khamis and Sammons conclude that in order to implement educational innovations, especially in developing countries like Pakistan, teachers need to adjust their pedagogy in accordance with the local contextual constraints if they wish to establish congruity between theory and practice.

However, one limitation of these three studies is that they focus on the teacher-education programme in just one institute (a well-reputed private university) in Pakistan and with a limited number of participants in the form of case-studies. Hence, the results of these studies are not generalisable.

A common shortcoming in most of the above studies (particularly the studies of textbook evaluation) is that they have been conducted on a small scale, mostly offer only surface level evaluation, and do not investigate the issues in detail. Secondly, most of them are based on weak methodological and analytical frameworks. Further, these studies mostly address the issues individually but do not explore the nature of interplay between national curriculum, textbooks, and teachers’ pedagogical practices in the classroom. Therefore, it is essential to conduct a detailed research in this field, especially against the backdrop of the recent ELE reforms in Pakistan. The present study therefore fills this gap by evaluating the macro-level pedagogical policy the National Curriculum for
English Language – 2006 (the macro-level policy document) stipulates and its implementation in the prescribed ELT textbooks and secondary level English language classrooms in Pakistan.

3.6 Rationale for the study

The teaching and learning style in Pakistan is based on a teacher-centred classroom and is predominantly textbook-based. The method of instruction is mostly prescriptive and directive with limited opportunities for learners’ active participation in the classroom. Learners are considered passive recipients of knowledge provided by the teacher and are expected to grasp the information given in the textbook and reproduce it faithfully in the examination (Ali, 2017; Shamim, 1996). That is why the students studying the courses of English as a part of their formal ELE in Pakistan believe that the main purpose of studying English is to pass the examination rather than developing their understanding of, and communicative competence in, English (Aziz & Quraishi, 2017). This culture of learning, on the one hand, does not help learners to develop their productive skills of English, practise their analytical and creative skills, and be independent learners; on the other hand, it requires teachers to simply paraphrase the knowledge given in the textbook without developing learners’ conceptual understanding and fostering their creative abilities (Ali, 2017; Shamim, 1996). In contrast, the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006), which is the main macro-level policy document in Pakistan, stipulates the use of a communicative, learner-centred, inductive pedagogy by engaging learners in collaborative learning through tasks and activities based on individual, pair, and group work. For instance, the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006) provides guidelines about the use of learner-centred activities as follows:

- Activities should be so devised and conducted that students have an opportunity for individual work as well as pair work and group work.
- Peer corrections should be encouraged; this is especially a good tool in large classes.
- Mistakes and errors should be taken as a learning opportunity. Teachers should not be over critical and should facilitate students to communicate and learn through activities and tasks which are enjoyable and intellectually stimulating. (p. 150)
Input about different aspects of language such as grammar can be interspersed with tasks and activities to develop students’ ability to use language skills in real-life situations. (p. 152)

Likewise, the national curriculum stipulates the use of self-discovery, problem-solving, awareness-raising, and inquiry-based learning strategies. It stresses the need to develop learners’ critical, analytical, and creative abilities. In addition, it recommends the use of teaching methods that promote learner-autonomy. For example, the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 1) states:

The new curriculum aims to provide holistic opportunities to the students for language development and to equip them with competencies in using the English language for communication in academic and social contexts, while enabling them to be autonomous and lifelong learners...

The national curriculum puts lots of emphasis on textbook writers and teachers to incorporate the stipulated pedagogical practices in their respective domains. Therefore, this study is designed to investigate the issue of pedagogy in policy and pedagogy in practice, particularly against the backdrop of the ELE reforms in Pakistan.

The Education Sector Reforms (2001-2005) are directed toward bringing improvement in the education system in the country in line with the modern models of education and bringing it up to par with international standards of education (Ministry of Education, 2004). However, as described earlier (see Section 2.4 above), the whole history of national education policies and five-year education plans is replete with examples of setting ambitious goals but taking little practical steps to implement them (Bengali, 1999; Hameed-ur-Rehman & Sewani, 2013; Shamim, 2008). Further, there is neither a tradition nor a mechanism for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of policy decisions, which ultimately results in the lack of success of all such policy decisions (Aly, 2007; Jamil, 2009). Likewise, research carried out in various Asian ESL/EFL contexts (such as Baldauf, et al., 2011 in East and Southeast Asian countries (Bangladesh, China, Japan, Malaysia, Nepal, Singapore, Taiwan, Timor-Leste, and Vietnam); Carless, 2003, 2004, 2007 in Hong Kong; Hamid, 2010; Hamid, 2011; Hamid & Baldauf, 2008; Hamid & Honan, 2012 in
Bangladesh; Hu, 2002 in China; Kirkgöz, 2008 in Turkey; Nunan, 2003 in the Asia Pacific region (China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, and Vietnam); and Orafi & Borg, 2009 in Libya) attribute some of the main reasons for the failure of ELE programmes in these counties to inappropriate curricula along with difficulties regarding instructional materials (materials policy), teaching methods (methods policy), teacher training and teachers’ English language skills (personnel policy), assessment/exams (evaluation policy), and infrastructural resources, e.g., audio-visual aids, copying machines, appropriate classroom seating arrangements (resourcing policy) (Baldauf, et al., 2011. Kaplan, et al., 2011). Pakistan has a broadly similar socio-educational context to most of these Asian countries, but very little research investigating the appropriateness of curriculum, materials, methods, personnel, evaluation, and resourcing policies has been conducted in Pakistan.

Among all these policies, the methods policy is of central importance, as both theoretically and practically it is integral to these policies. The centrality of the methods policy with regard to all these policies is indicated in Figure 3.7 below.

![Figure 3.7: Centrality of the methods policy](image)
Having conducted a thorough literature search of the research carried out in Pakistan (reviewed in Section 3.5 above), I have not found even a single study that has explored the methods policy (teaching methods/pedagogical practices as stipulated in the national curriculum) and its implementation in ELT textbooks and English language classrooms against the backdrop of the ELE reforms in Pakistan. Similarly, no study has explored the nature of interplay between the curriculum, materials, personnel, evaluation, and resourcing policies from the perspective of the methods policy in Pakistan. Therefore, keeping in view the importance given to the aspect of pedagogy in the ELE reforms as well as the central role played by pedagogy in any ELE programme, the present study is designed to investigate what level of congruity exists between the curriculum, materials, personnel, and evaluation policies from the perspective of the methods policy in Pakistan. The study explores the aspects of pedagogy in policy (the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum) and pedagogy in practice (the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks and enacted by English language teachers in the classroom); the extent to which they match or mismatch with each other; and the factors that contribute to this match or mismatch. In this regard, the study answers the following research questions.

3.7 Research questions

1. What pedagogical practices does the national curriculum for English language stipulate for the teaching of English in Pakistan?
2. What pedagogical practices do the ELT textbooks embody?
3. To what extent are the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks congruent with the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum?
4. To what extent do teachers comply with the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum, and what other pedagogical practices do they use?
5. What are teachers’ rationales for the pedagogical practices they use and the pedagogical practices they resist in their English language lessons?
6. Where teachers’ pedagogical practices are not compatible with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical practices, what contextual factors account for that?

Having formulated the research questions, I move on to the next chapter that explains the research methodology used in this research.
Chapter Four

Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This methodology chapter explains how the research was conceived, designed, and executed. Denscombe (2017) notes that information about the research design and its execution enables the reader to assess the quality of research and estimate the extent to which the findings of the study are credible. Additionally, it is helpful to the researchers who plan to conduct research in the relevant fields in future. This chapter is written bearing in mind these principles and it includes information about all these aspects.

To explain the research methodology I used in this study I follow Creswell & Creswell (2018) who propose that the research methodology of a study should include information about the research paradigm (philosophical and theoretical perspectives) the study is based upon and the approaches and methods used for data collection and analysis. Following this pattern, I begin this chapter by elucidating the research paradigm (interpretivism) the study is aligned with. This is followed by a description of the approaches (primarily qualitative) employed in the study. The next section describes the research design for the study that consists of four stages. Next are presented detailed accounts of the methods, frameworks, and procedures used to collect and analyse the data. The methods include document (national curriculum) analysis, textbook analysis, classroom observations, and interviews. Following this I provide information about the context of the study, participants, ethical considerations, and limitations of the study. Lastly, I conclude the chapter with a brief account of the criteria to judge the credibility of a qualitative study and explain how I fulfil these requirements in this study. First, I begin with the research paradigm.
4.2 Research paradigm

A research paradigm is defined as a set of philosophical assumptions and theoretical perspectives that advance a certain viewpoint and guide the researcher to take actions in a certain way (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Creswell and Poth (2018) note the following four features of a research paradigm:

**Ontology:** This denotes the nature or characteristics of a phenomenon being explored. For example, when investigating a phenomenon, researchers find various realities and report these realities in their findings, which explain the nature/characteristics of the phenomenon.

**Epistemology:** This refers to how the phenomenon/reality is explored, i.e., whether it is explored in its natural setting or in a controlled setting. Hence, epistemology involves whether the researcher explores the phenomenon via subjective evidence based on close observation and informants’ views or through distant objective separateness.

**Axiology:** This relates to the ‘positionality’ of a researcher, especially in qualitative research (p. 18). For instance, in qualitative research, researchers identify their positionality (if any) in relation to various aspects, such as gender, ethnic identity, professional beliefs, etc.

**Methodology:** This denotes the procedure (inductive or deductive) a researcher follows to collect and analyse the data and to understand reality.

The four main research paradigms researchers (Cohen et al., 2018; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018) identify are: post-positivism, interpretivism/constructivism, transformative framework, and pragmatism. Since this study is aligned with interpretivism, I explain its features and relevance to the study below.

4.2.1 Interpretivism

Interpretivism upholds that human actions and discourse cannot be understood comprehensively by only following the methods that are often aligned with the
natural and physical sciences (Miles et al., 2014). Interpretivism resists the use of post-positivist, deterministic, or reductionist approaches to examine human behaviour, since these approaches mainly seek to test a theory or identify causal relationships. Interpretivism argues that human behaviour and actions are social constructs that can be understood thoroughly only when they are examined in relation to the social and natural context in which they occur (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Crotty, 1998). Hence, interpretivism is based on the principle of naturalistic inquiry and suggests the researcher take into account ‘the specific contexts in which people live and work’, gather information/data by visiting the research context personally, and make an interpretation of the data following mainly an inductive approach (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 8). Further, interpretivism advances developing an understanding of the phenomenon based on the participants’ views obtained via discussion and interaction with them. This is why it is often associated with constructivism, as it posits that interpretations are socially constructed and the understanding of a social phenomenon is enriched by engaging in social interaction in the research setting (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

This study is aligned with interpretivism both in terms of its objectives and the methodology it espouses. The study aims to explore the phenomenon of the alignment between pedagogy in policy and pedagogy in practice in the ELE context in Pakistan. It explores what pedagogical policy the national curriculum recommends and to what extent and how this pedagogical policy is enacted in the ELT textbooks and English language classrooms. To achieve these objectives, I (the researcher) analysed the national curriculum and the ELT textbooks and carried out a naturalistic inquiry into teachers’ pedagogical practices in their English language lessons via classroom observations. I also interviewed teachers to inquire about their rationale for the pedagogical practices they use(d) or avoid(ed) in their lessons. The whole dataset was analysed inductively. Finally, I interpret the findings and draw conclusions based on what I found by analysing the national curriculum and the ELT textbooks, and by what I observed in the classrooms and the inferences I drew from the participants’ responses in their interviews.
4.3 Research approach

The study is primarily qualitative in nature. The five significant aspects that reveal the qualitative nature of the study are:

**Focus of the study:** Ivankova and Creswell (2009) note that qualitative research does not confirm preconceived hypotheses; it rather explores a phenomenon and describes it in rich detail. Hence, qualitative research is primarily based on an inductive process of inquiry (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The present study involves an inductive approach and investigates the phenomenon of alignment between pedagogy in policy and pedagogy in practice in the ELE context in Pakistan with the aim of exploring it in detail.

**Nature of the data:** This aspect refers to whether the data is verbal or numeric (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). In this study, a large part of the data (90-95 per cent) is verbal. Only a small proportion of the data (approximately 5-10 per cent) is numeric. Hence, the study is primarily qualitative in nature.

**Data collection methods:** Qualitative research involves multiple sources of data, such as documents, observations, and interviews, which often generate a large amount of open-ended, qualitative data and are not firmly restricted by pre-set scales or instruments (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Croker, 2009; Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). This study includes all these data collection methods and hence is primarily qualitative in nature.

**Natural and holistic representation:** Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 163) note that qualitative research presents ‘a natural and holistic picture of the phenomenon being studied.’ The present study includes both these aspects. Naturalistic data includes classroom observations in which teachers’ use of the pedagogical practices in their natural setting (classrooms) was observed. Further, to obtain a holistic picture of the phenomenon of ELE in Pakistan, the study involved other strands also, including an analysis of the national curriculum, analysis of the ELT textbooks, and post-observation interviews with teachers.
Limited number of participants: Qualitative research tends to involve a limited number of participants and explores their perspectives intensively (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The present study duly involves only 12 teachers and explores their pedagogical practices intensively through classroom observations and interviews.

The above reveals the predominantly qualitative nature of the study. However, in social sciences it is difficult to say that a study is 100 per cent qualitative or quantitative. There is always a possibility that some traces of a quantitative approach may be found in predominantly qualitative research and vice versa (Denscombe, 2017; Mackey and Gass, 2005). Likewise, in this study, despite the use of mainly qualitative data collection methods, a small part of the data (approximately 5-10 per cent) was quantified as well. Therefore, to some degree, the study involved a QUAL/QUAN mixed methods approach also. This occurred two times at the level of data analysis. First, when analysing the national curriculum, a part of the data (performative verbs used in the Course Contents section) was quantified. Creswell and Creswell (2018) name this strategy a ‘convergent mixed methods design’ in which the researcher analyses the data (wholly or partly) both qualitatively and quantitatively and merges ‘the results from both the qualitative and the quantitative findings’ (pp. 217-220). Flick (2018) also puts this strategy under the mixed methods approach and identifies it as ‘triangulation in the analysis of data’ (p. 456). The second instance of the use of a mixed methods approach occurred when analysing the classroom observation data. This was done by transforming the qualitative classroom observation data (obtained via field notes) to numerical data by using an observation schedule (for details, see Section 4.7.4 below). This quantification was done to operationalise the classroom-observation qualitative data and to evaluate the teachers’ level of compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy numerically, which helped to explain the findings. Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 220) identify this strategy as ‘data transformation’ in which the qualitative data is transformed to quantitative data using a scale (an observation schedule in this study) and indicate this data transformation is one of the features of the ‘convergent mixed methods design’.
Apart from these minor quantitative inclusions, the study is predominantly qualitative in nature. It includes the data collection methods—document analysis (qualitative content analysis of the national curriculum and the ELT textbooks), classroom observations, and interviews—that are widely used in qualitative research. A sketch of the overall methodological framework for the study, indicating the types of the data produced, is given in Figure 4.1 below.

![Methodological framework for the study](image)

**Figure 4.1: Methodological framework for the study**

In Figure 4.1 above, the term ‘QUAL’ (in capital letters) represents dominance of the qualitative data, ‘quan’ (in lowercase letters) denotes subservience of the quantitative data, and the plus sign (+) indicates concurrent data analysis.

Now I present the study’s research design.
4.4 Research design

Freeman (2009, p. 29) defines research design as a process ‘in which the types of the data needed are defined and the means for collecting and analysing them are laid out.’ This section presents the study’s overall research design that consists of four stages. A brief description of each stage is given below.

4.4.1 First stage

This stage involved carrying out the qualitative content analysis of the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 for secondary level (grade 9-10) (Ministry of Education, 2006). The significance of the national curriculum lies in the fact that this is the only macro-level policy document that reveals the government’s pedagogical policy for the teaching of English, and hence serves ‘as a point of reference for all involved in the process of teaching and learning of English’ in Pakistan (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 1). It not only describes the aims and objectives of ELE but also presents detailed information about the course contents, including all four language skills and subskills to be taught to learners at secondary level (grade 9-10). Further, it recommends certain pedagogical principles/practices and provides guidelines to both English language teachers and textbook writers about the use and incorporation of the recommended pedagogical principles in their respective domains. The analysis of the national curriculum revealed the macro-level pedagogical policy for ELT in Pakistan (research question 1, see Section 3.7 above). The procedure to analyse the national curriculum data is detailed in Section 4.5 below.

4.4.2 Second stage

This stage entailed analysing the secondary level (grade 9-10) ELT textbooks to explore what pedagogical principles/practices they embody (research question 2, see Section 3.7 above) and the extent to which the pedagogical practices embodied in them align with the pedagogical principles/practices stipulated in the national curriculum (research question 3, Section 3.7 above). The textbook
analysis involved mainly analysing the work plans\textsuperscript{10} (exercises/activities/tasks) given in the textbooks for the teaching of English language skills and subskills. Further, it also included the analysis of the non-linguistic pedagogical aspects, such as learning objectives, learners’ cognitive skills, and advice on providing supportive facilitation to learners, since all these aspects were very relevant to the pedagogical practices promoted by the textbooks. The methodological framework and procedure to analyse the ELT textbook are elaborated in Section 4.6 below.

### 4.4.3 Third stage

The third stage involved classroom observations in order to see the extent to which the teachers comply with the pedagogical practices recommended in the national curriculum and the practices presented in the ELT textbooks and what other pedagogical practices they use in their English language lessons (research question 4, see Section 3.7 above). To do so, 12 teachers’ English language lessons were observed. Each teacher was observed three times while teaching a different language skill/subskill. The classroom observations enhanced the credibility of the research, as they involved spending an extended period in the classroom, obtaining naturalistic data (Denscombe, 2017). Detailed information about the procedure and framework to collect and analyse the classroom observation data is given in Section 4.7 below.

### 4.4.4 Fourth stage

The fourth stage consisted of post-observation one-to-one interviews with the teachers (N=12) whose classes were observed. The post-observation interviews were conducted to inquire into teachers’ rationale for the pedagogical practices they employed or resisted in their lessons (research question 5, see Section 3.7 above). The interviews helped to dig deeper into why the teachers preferred to use certain pedagogical practices, and what factors compelled them to resist or adapt the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum and

\textsuperscript{10} A detailed description of the term ‘work plan’ is given in Section 4.6.1 below. Here it is enough to say that the term ‘work plan’ refers to any type of activity, task, or exercise that is used to teach a language skill/subskill.
the ones presented in the ELT textbooks (research question 6, see Section 3.7 above). Detailed information about the interview schedule and the procedure to collect and analyse the interview data is given in Section 4.8 below.

The study’s overall research design is presented in the form of a visual diagram in Figure 4.2 below.

![Figure 4.2: Methodological framework for the study](image)

Stage 1: Content analysis of the national curriculum
(Data analysis: QUAL + quan)

Stage 2: Analysis of the ELT textbooks
(Data analysis: QUAL)

Stage 3: Classroom observations
(Data analysis: QUAL + quan)

Stage 4: Post-observation one-to-one interviews with teachers
(Data analysis: QUAL)

FINDINGS

In Figure 4.2 above, the term ‘QUAL’ (in capital letters) represents dominance of the qualitative data, ‘quan’ (in lowercase letters) denotes subservience of the quantitative data, and the plus sign (+) indicates concurrent data analysis.

Having briefly described the study’s overall research design, I now explain the methodological framework and procedure for each stage of the study in turn. First, I move on to the procedure to analyse the national curriculum.
4.5 Procedure to analyse the national curriculum

This consisted of two stages: (i) Procedure to analyse the four sections therein (Introduction, Teaching Methodology, Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and Teacher Training), and (ii) Procedure to analyse the Course Contents section. Both of these are presented in turn below.

4.5.1 Procedure to analyse the four sections of the national curriculum

The qualitative content analysis method was used to analyse the four sections (Introduction, Teaching Methodology, Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and Teacher Training) of the national curriculum. In line with Dörnyei (2007), the qualitative content analysis process consisted of the following four steps:

- Cleaning and arranging the data
- Coding the data
- Developing categories and themes out of codes
- Interpreting the data and drawing conclusions

I explain all these steps in turn.

i. Cleaning and arranging the data

This step involved separating the text of the four sections of the national curriculum from the national curriculum document and putting it into a separate document—a Microsoft Word file. In line with the mechanics of coding suggested by Saldaña (2013), the newly created document was organised in the form of a table consisting of three columns. The first column on the left, consisting of more than half of the page, contained the actual data text taken from the four sections of the national curriculum. This column was named ‘raw data’. The second column contained space for preliminary codes and the third column for final codes. For the reader’s convenience, a sketch of how the data document looked is presented in Figure 4.3 below. As the data text already existed in the form of neat, isolated sections, and short units/paragraphs in the
national curriculum, there was no need to divide it into further shorter units for coding purposes. The data was therefore reproduced in the same format as in the national curriculum except that the text was arranged in a double-spaced format as is recommended for coding by Saldaña (2013). The next step was coding the data text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Raw data</th>
<th>Preliminary codes</th>
<th>Final codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 1: Introduction</strong></td>
<td>2 Holistic learning of English</td>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Background</strong></td>
<td>3 Using English for academic and social purposes</td>
<td>Using English for academic and social purposes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The new curriculum aims to provide **holistic opportunities to the students for language development** and to equip them with **competencies in using the English language for communication in academic and social contexts**, while enabling them to be **autonomous and lifelong learners** to better adapt to the ever changing local and world society, and to knowledge advancement.

![Figure 4.3: Format for the national curriculum data analysis document](image)

**ii. Coding the data**

Coding is the most basic and essential part of the qualitative data analysis process. In qualitative research, a code is defined as a label that is attached to a data extract to identify some meaning regarding that particular piece of text/information (Dörnyei, 2007). The coding process involves reading the data text multiple times, identifying relevant concepts, tagging or labelling them using appropriate codes, grouping the codes into categories on the basis of a set criteria, and finally developing broader themes and concepts (Coffey & Atkinson,
1996; Dörnyei, 2007; Gibbs, 2007). According to Charmaz (2001), coding is of great importance in qualitative research, since it develops a critical link between data collection and findings via data interpretation.

The purpose of analysing the four sections of the national curriculum was to identify what pedagogical principles/practices it recommends to both English language teachers and textbook writers for ELT at secondary level (grade 9-10). The coding was done systematically in the following order:

a. **Pre-coding**

This was the first step that involved interacting meaningfully with the data text via multiple readings and identifying and highlighting all the relevant data extracts/concepts (words, phrases, and sentences) that seemed to represent a pedagogical principle.

b. **Code-labelling**

The identified pedagogical principles were labelled using appropriate codes. A two-step coding process—first assigning a preliminary code to each identified pedagogical principle and then refining that to a more comprehensive final code—was followed, as it was realised that this would bring more clarity to the coding process. It is worth mentioning here that many researchers (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Saldaña, 2013) recommend the use of more than one pass at coding as a good strategy, since it brings clarity to the data analysis and helps to present the essence of the raw data more faithfully. The preliminary codes were based on my first impressions of the data. This is why they mostly consisted of the words and phrases taken verbatim from the data text, a type of coding known as in vivo coding (Dörnyei, 2007; Saldaña, 2013) or descriptive coding (Gibbs, 2007). The numbering of the preliminary codes was also done by first assigning a number (e.g., 1, 2, 3 ...) to the highlighted data extract that represented a pedagogical principle, and then assigning the same number to the preliminary code it referred to (as shown in Figure 4.3 above). This was done to make the identification of the codes with the data text clearer and easier. Having labelled the preliminary codes, the next step was to assign final codes, which was done
by employing *analytical coding*, a type of coding in which codes are not taken verbatim from the data text; rather they are developed by the researcher by applying their analytical and critical skills (Gibbs, 2007). A list of the preliminary and final codes and the themes (pedagogical principles) that emerged out of them is given in Appendix 4.1. Further, to clarify what idea a code refers to, their definitions are given in the codebook in Appendix 4.2. It is worth mentioning that the definitions of only final codes are given in the codebook because a final code encompassed more than one preliminary code and referred to a broader concept. The definitions of the preliminary codes are not included as they were mostly taken verbatim from the data text and the concepts they referred to were clearly visible in the data.

### iii. Developing categories and themes out of codes

The third step was searching for patterns in the coded data and developing categories and themes emerging out of them. In data analysis, categorising is defined as a process in which ‘we get ‘up’ from the diversity of data to the shapes of the data’, and theming of data is defined as a process that involves forming ‘more general, higher-level, and more abstract concepts’ (Richards & Morse, 2007, p. 157). The categories and themes in this study are the pedagogical principles/practices recommended in the national curriculum. Initially, 15 categories (pedagogical principles) were formed by grouping together similar ideas that were represented by different codes. The initially identified 15 categories were as follows:

1. Use of learner-centred activities and collaborative learning
2. Developing learners’ English language skills
3. Developing learners’ English language knowledge and skills
4. Promoting learners’ English language use
5. Enabling learners to use English for academic and social purposes
6. Use of supplementary materials
7. Integrated language teaching
8. Promoting learner autonomy
9. Developing learners’ cognitive skills and creative use of language
10. Use of inductive pedagogy
11. Promoting learners’ implicit learning of English
12. Explicit instruction and practice
13. Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher
14. Reviewing learners’ learning and progress
15. Lesson planning and students’ learning objectives

The next step was to refine the categories into themes in order to achieve more refined descriptors for the pedagogical principles. During this process, it was found that nine of the 15 categories could be represented as themes without making any change to them, as each one of them represented a complete pedagogical principle. However, six categories needed further refinement to be developed into comprehensive themes and complete pedagogical principles. Hence, category 2 (Developing learners’ English language skills) and category 3 (Developing learners’ English language knowledge and skills) that not only overlapped each other but were also somewhat at odds with each other were merged to form a single theme (Putting more emphasis on developing learners’ English language skills than developing their English language knowledge). Similarly, category 4 (Promoting learners’ English language use) and category 5 (Enabling learners to use English for academic and social purposes), which were very similar, were also merged to form a single theme (Promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes). Likewise, category 11 (Promoting learners’ implicit learning of English) and category 12 (Explicit instruction and practice) were merged into a single theme (Putting more emphasis on learners’ implicit learning of English than explicit instruction). Thus, the above-mentioned six categories were developed into three themes, and a total of 12 themes were formed that represented the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum. The 12 themes are as follows:

1. Use of learner-centred activities and collaborative learning
2. Putting more emphasis on developing learners’ English language skills than developing their English language knowledge
3. Promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes
4. Use of supplementary materials
5. Integrated language teaching
6. Promoting learner autonomy
7. Developing learners’ cognitive skills and creative use of language
8. Use of inductive pedagogy
9. Putting more emphasis on learners’ implicit learning of English than explicit instruction
10. Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher
11. Reviewing learners’ learning and progress
12. Lesson planning and students’ learning objectives

The next important step in this coding and theming process was to conduct an intra-coder reliability check. How this was carried out is explained below.

a. Intra-coder reliability check

An intra-coder reliability check is defined as a measure of the extent to which one coder codes the same dataset the same way on two different occasions, and this is carried out to ensure consistency and accuracy in the coding (Mackey & Gass, 2005). To do this, I reviewed the whole data text a second time two weeks after I first coded the data. The review led to some interesting insights on my initial coding, which enabled me to make changes in the initial codes and themes.

When reviewing, I found the use of one of the codes, namely ‘learners’ English language use’ as inappropriate at five points. I found that at these points the data text emphasised the use of an English language skill. Hence, I replaced this initial code with a new refined code, ‘emphasis on developing language skills’. For instance, at one point, the national curriculum says:

The ultimate aim of teaching writing through school years should be to make students fully independent writers (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 151).

Initially, I had coded this data extract using the following preliminary and final codes:

Preliminary code: Making learners independent writers

Final code: Learners’ English language use
However, when doing intra-coder reliability check, I replaced the final code as follows:

Final code: Emphasis on developing language skills

Five such instances of the replacement of this code took place in the whole data text. The rest of the codes were found appropriate. This resulted in an intra-coder agreement of 97% between my initial and second coding.

In addition to the above coding changes, I made the following changes to the themes to make the descriptors of the pedagogical principles and their further analysis more accurate.

- I split theme 1 (Use of learner-centred activities and collaborative learning) into two themes, as I realised the national curriculum treats them discretely.
- I replaced the term ‘use of learner-centred activities’ with the term ‘use of the communicative approach’, as I realised that this refined theme is more comprehensive and encompasses all the aspects, including the use of learner-centred activities and communicative interaction between learners, which are emphasised in the national curriculum with regard to the use of the communicative approach.
- Theme 2 (Putting more emphasis on developing learners’ English language skills than developing their English language knowledge) was simplified to become ‘Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge’. The national curriculum emphasises developing learners’ English language skills more than developing learners’ English language knowledge, but I realised there was no need to explain all this in the title of the theme and that this point could be explained in the description of the theme.
- I renamed theme 4 (use of supplementary materials) as ‘materials adaptation and supplementation’, since I realised the national curriculum contains some guidelines about materials adaptation also in addition to materials supplementation.
- I renamed theme 7 (Developing learners’ cognitive skills and creative use of language) as ‘Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills’, as I found
the national curriculum specifically focuses on developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills. Additionally, ‘creation’ itself is included as one of the higher order cognitive skills (see Section 4.5.2 that explains Bloom’s six levels of cognitive development). Hence, I realised there was no need to include the part ‘creative use of language’ in the theme title when the title already contained the term ‘higher order cognitive skills’.

- Theme 12 (Lesson planning and students’ learning objectives) was split into two themes: (i) setting and achieving learning objectives and (ii) lesson planning. It was realised that these two principles are presented discretely in the national curriculum; therefore, they should be dealt with independently. Further, splitting them would help explain each of them in detail in the analysis.

After multiple rounds of reviewing the data and changes made to the codes and themes, I finalised the following themes (pedagogical principles):

1. Use of the communicative approach
2. Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge
3. Promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes
4. Materials adaptation and supplementation
5. Integrated language teaching
6. Collaborative learning
7. Promoting learner autonomy
8. Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills
9. Use of inductive pedagogy
10. Putting more emphasis on learners’ implicit learning of English than explicit instruction
11. Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher
12. Reviewing learners’ learning and progress
13. Setting and achieving learning objectives
14. Lesson planning

The code-and-theme-check-process did not stop here. I carried out an inter-coder reliability check also as I wanted to maximise the accuracy in the coding
and theming of the national curriculum data. How this was done is explained below.

b. **Inter-coder reliability check**

An inter-coder reliability check is defined as a measure of the extent to which two or more coders code the same dataset the same way (Mackey & Gass, 2005). It involves asking ‘someone to look at a portion of the data [or complete data] and recode it using the list of codes already developed as well as possibly introducing new ones’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 251). Mackey and Gass (2005) suggest that, considering the nature of the coding scheme, an inter-coder reliability check of 10%-25% of the data may be regarded as appropriate to establish confidence in researcher’s coding. However, if an inter-coder reliability check of 100% of the data is carried out, ‘the confidence of readers in the reliability of the coding categories will be enhanced’ (p. 243). Hence, an inter-coder reliability check of 100% of the data was carried out. Although ideally independent coding by a second coder is preferred for an inter-coder reliability check, the inter-coder reliability check of the national curriculum data was carried by getting my coded data and the list of codes and themes crosschecked by a second coder. This was done because of the following reasons:

i. I did not find a second coder willing to code my whole data because of the length of the data (39 A4 size pages) and time constraints. On the other hand, I felt coding/crosschecking the whole data text was essential, as the codes were randomly spread across the data. Had only a part of the data been independently coded by a second coder, the coding of many of the codes would have remained unexamined, which would have resulted in a less accurate/less exhaustive inter-coder reliability check.

ii. The second coder (Coder 2) (Dr Nigel Harwood, my supervisor), who agreed to crosscheck my coding, was an experienced researcher, having around 20 years’ experience in analysing qualitative research. I strongly believed if he crosschecked the whole of my coded data, it would result in a more robust inter-coder reliability check than would result from getting
a part of my data independently coded by a novice researcher (possibly a fellow Ph.D. student).

iii. Thirdly, Coder 2 agreed to crosscheck 100% of the data, which gave me confidence in the inter-coder reliability check.

Later, I found Coder 2 had not only crosschecked my whole coded data but also, wherever he felt it necessary, coded the data extracts independently, which further enhanced the credibility of the inter-coder reliability check. In his crosschecking, Coder 2 did the following:

i. At six points, he disagreed with the codes I had used and labelled the data extracts independently, using the codes he deemed appropriate.

ii. At five points, he coded the data extracts independently in addition to the codes I had used.

iii. At nine points, where I had not coded the data extracts, he coded those extracts independently.

I explain these points with the help of examples below:

Coder 2 disagreed six times with the use of the two codes ‘implicit learning of English’ and ‘Emphasis on learning rather than explicit instruction’ (see Figures 4.4 and 4.5 below). The Microsoft Word comment boxes in blue show Coder 2’s comments on my codes. Coder 2 pointed out that the national curriculum emphasises both learners’ implicit learning of English and the use of explicit instruction methods.

![Figure 4.4: Inter-coder reliability check between Coder 1 and Coder 2](image-url)
The learners, therefore, have to be provided with formal opportunities to learn the language in an instructional setting through a well thought-out and organized curriculum. The current curriculum aims to provide English language learning opportunities to learners.

Figure 4.5: Inter-coder reliability check between Coder 1 and Coder 2

At one point, Coder 2 added the code ‘deductive pedagogy’ in addition to the code ‘inductive pedagogy’ used by me (see the second comment box in Figure 4.6 below).

Likewise, at another point, Coder 2 added the code ‘integrated skills approach’ in addition to the codes used by me (see Figure 4.7 below).

At three points, he added the code ‘Bloom’s taxonomy’ in addition to the code ‘developing learners’ cognitive skills’ used by me (see Figures 4.8 and 4.9 below).
In addition, Coder 2 coded some data extracts independently which I had left uncoded. The examples are given in Figures 4.10, 4.11, and 4.12 below:

Figure 4.10: Inter-coder reliability check between Coder 1 and Coder 2

Moreover, sustained practice is required to plan and develop textbooks that provide sufficient and appropriate input to students.

Figure 4.11: Inter-coder reliability check between Coder 1 and Coder 2

At higher grades, emphasis should be shifted to reading and writing. It is, however, important to realize the

Figure 4.12: Inter-coder reliability check between Coder 1 and Coder 2

The inter-coder reliability was calculated in terms of percentage agreement as suggested by Mackey and Gass (2005). The percentage agreement between Coder 1 and Coder 2 was 88%, which is a high score. Further, we engaged in
face-to-face discussion, discussed disagreements, and agreed on the following action points:

i. We kept the code ‘developing learners’ cognitive skills’ intact without adding ‘Bloom’s taxonomy’ to it, since we agreed that our aim in coding was to refer to the pedagogical principles/practices. There was therefore no need to specifically refer to ‘Bloom’s taxonomy’ in coding. However, we agreed that the reference to Bloom’s taxonomy would be added when presenting the findings of this theme/pedagogical principle.

ii. We agreed to include the code ‘explicit instruction’ in the code-list.

This agreement between Coder 1 and Coder 2 enhanced the inter-coder reliability agreement rate to 93%, which was a very good score. Hence, no further changes were deemed necessary.

Having agreed on a common framework of codes, I reviewed the data text again and made the required changes. For example, I corrected the code ‘Emphasis on learning rather than explicit instruction’ where it was used inappropriately. For instance, at one point, the national curriculum says:

The learners, therefore, have to be provided with formal opportunities to learn the language in an instructional setting through a well thought-out and organized curriculum. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 1)

Previously, I had coded this data extract using the following preliminary and final codes:

Preliminary code: Providing English language learning opportunities to learners

Final code: Emphasis on learning rather than explicit instruction

After the inter-coder reliability check, both preliminary and final codes were corrected as follows:

Preliminary code: Providing learners formal opportunities to learn English

Final code: Explicit instruction
This change in the code caused a change in theme 10 (Putting more emphasis on learners’ implicit learning of English than explicit instruction), and it was replaced by the theme ‘Use of deductive pedagogy’. The finalised version of themes (pedagogical principles) at this stage was as follows:

1. Use of the communicative approach
2. Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge
3. Promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes
4. Materials adaptation and supplementation
5. Integrated language teaching
6. Collaborative learning
7. Promoting learner autonomy
8. Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills
9. Use of inductive pedagogy
10. Use of deductive pedagogy
11. Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher
12. Reviewing learners’ learning and progress
13. Setting and achieving learning objectives
14. Lesson planning

Later (after piloting the classroom observation schedule), the pedagogical principles ‘materials adaptation and supplementation’ referred to in theme 4 were separated into two themes: (i) materials adaptation and (ii) materials supplementation. The reason for doing so was to enable me to observe these two principles distinctly during classroom observations, as this would make the classroom observation data and their findings more detailed and accurate. Further details regarding this point are given in Section 4.7.1 below that explains the piloting of the classroom observation schedule. Hence, finally, 15 themes emerged out of the analysis of the national curriculum as the recommended pedagogical principles to carry out ELE in Pakistan. The next step involved interpreting the data and drawing conclusions.
iv. Interpreting the data and drawing conclusions

The interpretation of the national curriculum data entailed ‘manifest level analysis’, a term which describes interpreting the surface meaning of the data (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 246). It did not undergo any ‘latent level analysis’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 246) since there were no underlying deeper meanings in the data and everything was obvious at the surface level. The complete descriptive and analytical accounts of the findings of the national curriculum data are given in Chapter 5 below.

In addition to the four sections of the national curriculum (Introduction, Teaching Methodology, Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and Teacher Training), the Course Contents section was also analysed. The procedure to analyse this is given below.

4.5.2 Procedure to analyse the Course Contents section

The course contents section of the national curriculum performs two main functions, which I define as the **what** and **how** functions. First, it explains **what** English language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) and subskills (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary) are to be taught to learners in their secondary level (grade 9-10) English language courses. Second, it elaborates on **how** those skills should be taught to learners. The **how** function is actually an implicit elaboration of the processes the curriculum designers want the learners to go through when studying the English language courses to enable them to acquire the required English language skills. This **how** function is explained via performative verbs. A performative verb is defined as a word that demands some action to be performed by the act of verbalising it (Malmkjaer, 2004). The performative verbs in the national curriculum indicate the processes learners are required to engage in when studying the English language courses. For example, some of the performative verbs used in the course contents section are: **analyse, classify, comprehend, create, compare, deduce, discover, distinguish, evaluate, examine, express, identify, infer**, etc.
interpret, modify, predict, recognise, summarise, synthesise, understand, use, etc.\textsuperscript{11} \textsuperscript{12}

To classify the performative verbs in terms of the language teaching and learning principles they entail, Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives (revised version)\textsuperscript{13} (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) was followed. For clarity, the six main cognitive skills (Remember, Understand, Apply, Analyse, Evaluate, and Create) are presented in Figure 4.13 below. The two reasons for using Bloom’s taxonomy to classify and analyse the performative verbs are:

i. A large majority of the performative verbs used in the national curriculum correspond with Bloom’s six cognitive skills and the prompts and processes associated with each of them (see Figure 4.13 below).

ii. In educational domains, this is the most widely used taxonomy to classify and evaluate curricular objectives (Krathwohl, 2002).

Hence, Bloom’s taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) provided the most appropriate framework to classify and analyse the performative verbs given in the course contents section of the national curriculum. The procedure to classify and analyse the performative verbs is given below.

\textsuperscript{11} A complete list of the performative verbs, their quantification, classification into different categories, and finally detailed analysis is given in Section 5.4 below.

\textsuperscript{12} To see how these performative verbs are used in the national curriculum and how they guide the teachers about their use of pedagogical principles in the classroom, the reader is directed to Appendix 4.3, which contains one page (of the 22 pages) of the Course Contents section of the national curriculum. The performative verbs used in the Course Contents section are highlighted in yellow in Appendix 4.3.

\textsuperscript{13} Subsequently, I will use the term Bloom’s taxonomy only. Hence, wherever the term Bloom’s taxonomy is used in this document, it should be taken to mean the revised version of the taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Skill Level</th>
<th>Prompts</th>
<th>Processes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CREATE</td>
<td>create, compose, design, devise, formulate, imagine, hypothesise, generate, plan, produce</td>
<td>- Based on given information; reformulating, extending, building, planning, hypothesising, generating new patterns/structures</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| EVALUATE              | judge, debate, justify, critique, review, argue | - Making/defending judgements and arguments based on evaluation of criteria  
- Critiquing  
- Reviewing |
| ANALYSE               | compare, contrast, categorise, deconstruct, differentiate | - Separating information into its component parts to identify how the parts relate to each other and the overall structure  
- Differentiating  
- Organising |
| APPLY                 | execute, implement, illustrate, interpret, transfer, infer, change, complete, rewrite | - Abstracting and reapplying to a different situation  
- Re-writing or writing a description of something  
- Connecting information  
- Implementing |
| UNDERSTAND            | explain, paraphrase, summarise, exemplify, classify, categorise, predict | - Determining the meaning  
- Interpreting the message  
- Re-tell or summarise input (in written, oral, or graphic form) |
| REMEMBER              | tell, list, draw, locate, recite, recognise | - Retrieving relevant knowledge and information from long-term memory  
- Recalling data or information  
- Recognising  
- Making a list of factual information |

Figure 4.13: Bloom’s taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) and the list of prompts and processes related to Bloom’s six levels of cognitive development. The list is derived from Krathwohl (2002, p. 215) and Mishan and Timmis (2015, p. 17)
i. **Procedure to classify and analyse the performative verbs**

To have a better understanding of the performative verbs in terms of the six cognitive processes they require the learners to be involved in, a three-step process was followed.

i. All performative verbs used in the course contents section were identified and the frequency of occurrence for each of them was counted.

ii. The performative verbs representing similar ideas were classified into one category—one cognitive skill. In this way, all performative verbs were classified into six cognitive skills of Bloom’s taxonomy. The classification of the performative verbs was done on the basis of the prompts and processes associated with each cognitive skill. To do so, a list of prompts and processes given by Krathwohl (2002) and Mishan and Timmis (2015) was followed. The list helped identify and categorise a performative verb (an action) into a cognitive skill (see Figure 4.13 above).

iii. Based on the prompts and process associated with each cognitive skill, the performative verbs were classified into different cognitive skills. To do so, first, the frequency of occurrence for each performative verb with reference to each language skill and subskill was calculated separately, and then its total frequency of occurrence for all language skills and subskills was calculated. Finally, a total number of performative verbs under each cognitive skill was calculated. All this is presented in Tables 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 in Chapter 5, Section 5.4 below, where I present the findings of the course contents section of the national curriculum.

iv. Finally, the findings of the quantitative data of the performative verbs were interpreted, which are given in Chapter 5, Section 5.4 below.
A visual image of the data analysis process of all the five sections of the national curriculum, including both ‘QUAL’ and ‘quan’ analyses, is given in Figure 4.14 below. In Figure 4.14, the term ‘QUAL’ (in capital letters) represents dominance of the qualitative data and ‘quan’ (in lowercase letters) denotes subservience of the quantitative data.

**Figure 4.14**: ‘QUAL’ and ‘quan’ data analysis process of the national curriculum

I now proceed to the next section that presents the methodological framework and procedure to analyse the ELT textbooks.
4.6 Framework and procedure to analyse the ELT textbooks

Four textbook units—two units from the grade 9 and two units from the grade 10 textbook—were selected for textbook analysis. This was done in line with what Littlejohn (2011) and McDonough et al. (2013) suggest. According to Littlejohn (2011), an analysis of 10-15 per cent of the instructional materials is enough to obtain a comprehensive picture of the nature of the materials. Likewise, McDonough et al. (2013) suggest analysing 2-3 chapters from a textbook is enough to obtain a comprehensive analysis of the textbook.

The textbook analysis comprised two steps. First, it involved exploring what pedagogical principles/practices the textbooks embody (research question 2, Section 3.7). This was done by analysing the work plans (exercises/activities/tasks) given in the textbook to teach various language skills (writing, reading, speaking, listening) and subskills (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation). It also included an analysis of the non-linguistic pedagogical aspects given in the textbook units, such as learning objectives, cognitive skills, and supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners, because all these aspects were pertinent to research question 2. The second step involved analysing the extent to which the pedagogical principles embodied in the ELT textbooks concur with the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum (research question 3, Section 3.7). This was done by interpreting the findings of the textbook analysis with reference to the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum. Both these steps are elaborated in detail below. First, I explain the framework and procedure to analyse the language skills/subskills work plans and the non-linguistic pedagogical aspects.

4.6.1 Framework to analyse the language skills/subskills work plans

To analyse the language skills/subskills work plans, a framework presented by Ellis (2016) was used. The rationale for using Ellis’s (2016) framework is its comprehensiveness, which lies in the fact that it not only encompasses all types of form-focused and meaning-focused tasks and activities, such as information-
gap and opinion-gap activities, that are often referred to in the literature in task based language teaching (TBLT) and communicative language teaching (CLT), but also includes all other types of formS-focused activities, such as situational grammar exercises and linguistic item practice activities, that are based on a presentation-practice-production (PPP) model and are often referred to in the literature in second language acquisition and instructed language learning. This is why Ellis (2016) uses a general term ‘work plan’, which he derived from Breen (1989), to describe the possible array of activities which feature in textbooks, and this also broadens the scope of his framework. In contrast, other linguists/researchers, who have done a great deal of work on TBLT (e.g., Bygate, 2016; Long, 1985; Nunan, 1989, 2004; Skehan, 1996, 2003) and even Ellis himself in other work (e.g., Ellis, 2000, 2003, 2009), have mostly remained focused on tasks only. They use the term ‘task’ in the sense it is specifically used in TBLT as a device/activity that is used to elicit learner language, focusing primarily on meaning not form, which engages learners in real-life-like communicative processes, and helps them learn a language incidentally. Further, though these researchers/linguists have contributed extensively to the field of TBLT, none of them except Ellis (2016) has presented such a single comprehensive framework as may be used to analyse all different types of work plans that are usually found in both global and local ELT textbooks.

The textbooks that are analysed in this study are locally produced ELT textbooks. Their analysis reveals that they are not explicitly based on a typical task-based syllabus, rather they contain various formS-focused activities based on a PPP model (detailed findings are given in Chapter 6 below). Thus, analysing the textbooks from the perspective of tasks and TBLT only was not an appropriate approach. Therefore, Ellis’s (2016) framework seemed most appropriate to analyse the textbooks.

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14 The purpose of the discussion about TBLT given above is just to let the reader know the rationale for using Ellis’s (2016) framework to analyse the work plans given in the textbooks. It is not intended to discuss language learning/teaching tasks and TBLT. For more information about tasks and TBLT, the reader is referred to Bygate (2016), East (2015), Ellis (2000, 2003, 2009), Long (1985), Nunan (1989), and Skehan (1996, 2003).
Ellis (2016) explains that his proposed framework helps analyse work plans at two levels: (i) what aspect of language (skills or linguistic features) they aim to develop and (ii) what characteristics (instructional approaches or pedagogical practices) they entail. I aimed to explore both these aspects in the textbook analysis in this study; therefore, I used Ellis’s framework.

i. The framework

Ellis (2016) explains that a work plan may be associated with more than one methodological principle. However, the work plan is to be coded on the basis of the one pedagogical principle that is found to be dominant in it. Based on the pedagogical principles the work plans entail, Ellis (2016) classifies them into various types. The primary distinction he makes is between knowledge-oriented and use-oriented work plans.

A knowledge-oriented work plan is based on the principle of explicit instruction of a target feature. This is divided into two types: (i) knowledge-telling and (ii) knowledge-discovering work plans. A knowledge-telling work plan ‘provides explicit information about a target feature’, whereas a knowledge-discovering work plan guides the ‘discovery of the target feature’ through an inductive learning process (p. 207).

A use-oriented work plan ‘requires learners to make use of the L2 [target language] in some way’ (p. 207). A use-oriented work plan is divided into two types: (i) input-oriented and (ii) output-oriented work plans. An input-oriented work plan provides input to the learner, whereas an output-oriented work plan requires the learner to use the target language in some form (written or spoken).
An **input-oriented work plan** is further divided into two types: (i) *interactive input-based* and (ii) *non-interactive input-based* work plans. An **interactive input-based work plan** requires learners ‘to process input to achieve an outcome of some kind’, whereas a **non-interactive input-based work plan** requires learners to ‘simply listen to or read texts without any need to engage in social interaction. Such [work plans] are typically followed by comprehension questions or activities directing their attention to specific linguistic forms in the text’ (p. 207).

Similarly, an **output-oriented work plan** is mainly divided into two types: (i) *text-manipulation* and (ii) *text-creation* work plans. In a **text-manipulation work plan**, ‘language is treated as an object to be studied or practised. It has these characteristics:

- there is primary focus on specific linguistic forms;
- there is no communicative purpose;
- students’ use of the target language is controlled;
- the outcome of the activity is a pre-determined linguistic display (i.e., the correct use of the target language).’
  (Ellis, 2016, pp. 207-208)

In a **text-creation work plan**, ‘language is treated as a tool for achieving some communicative outcome.’ It has the following characteristics:
there is a primary focus on meaning;
- there is some kind of gap that needs to be closed (i.e., an information or opinion gap);
- students are expected to use their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources;
- the outcome of the activity is communicative (i.e., the language that results from performing the task is a means to an end, not an end in itself).’
(Ellis, 2016, p. 208)

However, an output-oriented work plan may also have a third category, i.e., a text-manipulation and -creation work plan, which combines some features of both text-manipulation and text-creation work plans.

The complete work plan framework is given in the form of a flow chart in Figure 4.19 below. Further, to clarify matters for the reader, examples of work plans are also given in Figures 4.20, 4.21, and 4.22 below.
Figure 4.19: Framework for analysing the work plans (Source: Ellis, 2016, p. 207)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge-telling activity(^{15})</th>
<th>Knowledge-discovering activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Grammar**
He may understand what is really happening.
The fair could have been in any town in Europe.
- Use could, may, might, must and can’t to speculate about events or situations
- In the present tense use modal verb + infinitive
- In the past tense use modal verb + have + past participle
Global (Clandfield and Benne, 2011, p. 43) | **Grammar Spot**
1. Which tense is used in these two sentences? Which verbs are regular? Which are irregular?
He **laughed** a lot and **went** up to the baby.
He **danced** and **sang**.
Find more examples in the story and underline them.
2. What are the tenses in these sentences? What is the difference in meaning?
He laughed when he saw a baby.
He was laughing when he saw a baby.
He laughed when he’d seen the baby.
(he’d = he had)
3. Find two examples of the past Simple Passive in the story.
New Headway (Soars and Soars, 2003, p. 23) |

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Text-manipulation activity(^{16})</strong></th>
<th><strong>Text-manipulation and -creation activity</strong></th>
<th><strong>Text-creation activity</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Rewrite these sentences using *so* or **such** so that the meaning stays the same.
1. This jingle is so annoying.
   This is ____________.
2. Advertising agencies come up with such weird ideas sometimes.
The ideas that advertising agencies come up with are ________.
Global (Clandfield and Benne, 2011, p. 81) | Write five words about yourself.
**Ideas**
Your hometown; your interests; your job; your favourite place; your friends
Walk around the class.
Introduce yourself to other people.
Ask questions about their words.
Example
*Hi, I’m Sandra.*
*Nice to meet you. I’m Paul.*
*What’s this ________?*
*That’s my home town.*
First Impact (Ellis et al., 1996) | Gervase Wilson-Hood lives with his large family. Here is a list of Christmas presents he bought for them. There is one present for each person.
1. A diamond necklace
2. A computer game
3. A toy aeroplane
4. A designer shawl
5. A set of golf clubs
6. An Armani ladies watch
Talk about this family.
What kind of person is Gervase Wilson-Hood?
Who are the people in this family?
Which presents did each person get? |

---

\(^{15}\) A knowledge-telling activity focuses on the explicit instruction of linguistic features.

\(^{16}\) A text-manipulation activity focuses on the use of linguistic features, not on their explicit instruction.
Map task

Listen to the teacher describe the locations of each of the following places on the map of the island. Write in the name of the place in the correct place on the map. If you do not understand the teacher’s descriptions, you should ask for clarification.

1. Betu
2. Songa
3. Bottomless Bay
4. Mataka
5. River Ironga
6. River Ilonga
7. Iluba Mountains

Figure 4.22: An interactive input-based work plan (Adapted from Ellis, 2016, p. 209)

In addition to analysing the language skills/subskills work plans, non-linguistic pedagogical aspects given in the textbook units, such as learning objectives, information/claims about learners’ cognitive skills, and details providing supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners were also analysed, because all these were equally relevant to the pedagogical principles/practices embodied in the textbooks and to answer research question 2: what pedagogical practices do the secondary level ELT textbooks embody?

4.6.2 Procedure to analyse the language skill/subskill work plans and non-linguistic pedagogical aspects

The procedure consisted of the following steps:

1. The work plans related to different language skills/subskills were identified.
2. The work plans were analysed in terms of the work plan types and the pedagogical principles they entail.
3. The number of work plans for each language skill/subskill as well as for each work plan type were calculated.
4. The language skill/subskill work plans as well as the non-linguistic pedagogical aspects were analysed in terms of what pedagogical principles they embody.
5. The findings of both language skill/subskill work plans and non-linguistic pedagogical aspects were interpreted in terms of the pedagogical practices they promote. This was done to address research question 2: what pedagogical practices do the secondary level ELT textbooks embody? All this is presented in chapter 6 that presents the findings of the textbook analysis.

Having explored the pedagogical principles embodied in the ELT textbooks, the next step was to investigate the extent to which they concur with the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum. The information about this is given below.

4.6.3 Analysing the textbooks with reference to the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical principles

To investigate the extent to which the pedagogical principles embodied in the ELT textbooks align with the pedagogical principles stipulated in the national curriculum, the findings of the textbook analysis were compared against the recommended pedagogical principles that were drawn up via the analysis of the national curriculum.

Having provided detailed information about the methodological framework and procedure to analyse the ELT textbooks, I turn to the next phase, i.e., the procedure and framework to collect and analyse the classroom observation data.
4.7 Procedure and framework to collect and analyse the classroom observation data

Observation is one of the important data collection methods in qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007). Cowie (2009, p. 166) defines observation and highlights its relevance to applied linguistics as follows:

Observation is the conscious noticing and detailed examination of participants’ behaviour in a naturalistic setting. In applied linguistics, this can include a classroom or teachers’ room, or any environment where language use is being studied...

The salience of observation as a data collection method lies in the fact that it provides a direct opportunity to see the participants in their natural setting and obtain first-hand information about what they do, instead of relying on them to tell the researcher what they do (Dörnyei, 2007; Hammond & Wellington, 2013; Rozsahegyi, 2019). This is why it is often used as an effective data collection method related to various aspects of classroom-based research, such as curriculum implementation, textbook use, pedagogical practices, and teacher-student interactions (Huntley, 2012). Some examples of such studies featuring observation as a data collection method are: Basturkmen et al. (2004); Carless (2003, 2004); Hamid & Honan (2012); McDonough & Chaikitmongkol (2007); Menkabu & Harwood (2014); Orafi & Borg (2009); and Shamim (1993, 1996).

The purpose of classroom observations in this study was to explore the pedagogical practices teachers employ in their secondary level English language classrooms and the extent to which their pedagogical practices match with the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum and the ones presented in the ELT textbooks. For this purpose, 12 teachers’ English language lessons were observed. Each teacher was observed three times while teaching a different language skill (reading, writing, speaking and listening) or subskill (grammar and vocabulary), making a total of 36 classroom observations. As classroom observations are a relatively ‘time consuming and labour intensive’ process (Huntley, 2012, p. 63), observing 36 lessons, in addition to other data collection methods, was regarded as sufficient for this project.
There were two reasons for repeatedly observing each teacher. First, it was unrealistic to expect a teacher to exhibit all the features of curriculum innovations in a single lesson (Huntley, 2012). Observing a teacher for less than three lessons would have been insufficient to obtain a true picture of his\textsuperscript{17} use of pedagogical practices in his lessons, and would have called into question the validity of the data collected (see Rose et al., 2020); while observing teachers more than three times ran the risk of observation fatigue and participant attrition. Therefore, observing a teacher three times and aggregating the data obtained from his three lessons was regarded as a better approach; I believed this would provide a comprehensive picture and a deeper understanding of the teachers’ pedagogical practices in their lessons (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Second, repeated observations were intended to reduce the Hawthorne effect—for the purposes of this research, the observees’ conscious effort to perform better when they are observed (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Rozsahegyi, 2019). It was thought that repeated observations would make the observees (teachers) feel comfortable and behave more naturally, which would improve the quality and authenticity of the data (Rozsahegyi, 2019). While carrying out observations, it was found that observing a teacher three times did indeed seem to help reduce the Hawthorne effect, since the teachers appeared to teach more naturally. Further, this also enabled me to get a deeper insight into the teachers’ use of pedagogical practices in their English language lessons.

In addition, to reduce the observer’s paradox effect, I visited the teachers and their classes prior to the observation and had some interaction with them, as researchers (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Rozsahegyi, 2019) suggest visiting the observation site before carrying out the observation may help habituate the observees to the observer and reduce the observer’s paradox effect. Moreover, as suggested by Murphy (1992), it was also kept in mind that my task was just to observe the observees for the said research purpose, not to criticise or offer them any constructive advice. This was also important on ethical grounds and was duly conveyed to both teachers and learners prior to the observations both

\textsuperscript{17} I do not use the gender-neutral ‘his/her’ here as it turned out that all the teachers in this study who were observed were male. For further details about the teacher participants, see Section 4.10 below.
verbally and via participant information sheet and consent form. (Details about the ethical considerations are given in Section 4.11 below.)

The classroom observation data was collected by using a combination of both structured and unstructured observation strategies. Dörnyei (2007, p. 179) explains that a ‘highly structured observation involves going into the classroom with a specific focus and with concrete observation categories’; whereas in an unstructured observation, the observer is less clear about what they are looking for and may decide this later on. A structured observation ‘demands careful planning’ and is often based on a pre-designed observation schedule or checklist; whereas in an unstructured observation, ‘data is collected and recorded descriptively’ and often involves ‘note-taking, writing descriptive accounts, maintaining research journals, or audio or video recording’ (Rozsahegyi, 2019, pp. 26-27). A structured observation yields quantitative data, whereas an unstructured observation produces qualitative data.

Both structured and unstructured observations have their merits and demerits. The benefit of a structured observation with a pre-designed observation schedule is that it brings systematicity and consistency to the observation data and minimises the possibility of the exclusion of important data (Denscombe, 2017; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Further, it enhances the accuracy and validity of the data by making the observer consciously aware of all those aspects that need to be observed (Denscombe, 2017). Keeping in view these advantages, a structured observation strategy, based on a pre-designed observation schedule, was used. The details of the observation schedule are given in Section 4.7.1 below. However, a structured observation has a drawback also, i.e., it might limit the observation scope to the preconceived categories only (Spada, 1994, cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005). This limitation of the structured observation was overcome by also employing an unstructured observation strategy, i.e., by taking field notes, which provided enough flexibility to observe and make a record of unexpected but significant incidents. Details of the field notes are given in Sections 4.7.2 and 4.7.3 below. However, taking field notes has its own limitations (Cowie, 2009). For instance, in a classroom context, it is not always an easy task, as it requires the observer
to pay careful attention to as much that is taking place as possible and take notes simultaneously, potentially affecting the comprehensiveness and accuracy of the data collected and ultimately the credibility of the findings (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Therefore, to overcome these issues, the lessons were video/audio-recorded, allowing for repeated watching and listening and verification of the accuracy and completeness of field notes. Nonetheless, the video/audio-recordings have their own shortcomings. For instance, (i) they may affect the teacher’s natural way of teaching, and consequently the data obtained ‘cannot be said to be fully representative of the class in its typical behaviour’ (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 187), and (ii) the recording equipment may distract learners’ attention from their regular learning process (Mackey & Gass, 2005). These shortcomings were overcome by pre-observation visits and interacting with both teachers and learners and holding repeated observations with them, as explained above.

Hence, following Dörnyei (2007), a combination of both structured and unstructured observation was used as an effective strategy to collect and analyse the classroom observation data. The combination strategy also proved beneficial in the sense that it made the data even richer, providing both quantitative and qualitative results. The details about how an observation schedule (the tool for structured observation) was developed and how unstructured observations (using field notes) were carried out are given below.

4.7.1 Observation schedule

The observation schedule was designed to operationalise the classroom observation data, and hence to measure the extent to which the teachers comply with the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum. The observation schedule was designed on the pattern of an instrument called ‘Innovation Configuration Maps (IC Maps)’, which was used by Huntley (2012) in her study of mathematics curriculum and textbook to measure the fidelity of curriculum and textbook implementation (p. 50). Huntley (2012) derived the concept of IC Maps from the concerns-based adoption model (CBAM) theory by Hall and Hord (2006) and Hord et al. (2006). IC Maps are tools that are used
to operationalise the qualitative data observed and noted during classroom observations (Huntley, 2012). The logic behind developing IC Maps is that ‘an innovation (such as a new set of curriculum and materials), when implemented, can take on different operational forms (or configurations)’ (Huntley, 2012, p. 50), that is, teachers can teach very differently and modify the pedagogy which the curriculum developer(s) and textbook writer(s) envisage will be enacted. Hence, IC Maps are an effective tool to assess teachers’ instructional practices and measure their level of fidelity with the curriculum developers’ intents. Structurally, IC Maps are the ‘mechanisms that present carefully developed descriptions of both the ideal way of implementing an innovation, as specified by the developers, as well as variations and deviations from the ideal’ operational form (p. 50). To understand the structure of an IC Map, see Table 4.1 below that presents an IC Map for one of the 15 pedagogical principles (Use of deductive pedagogy) recommended by the national curriculum whose implementation was examined in this study. Of the three variants, the first variant (Operational form–A) represents the ideal implementation form as stipulated in the national curriculum and hence denotes maximum compliance with the pedagogical principle; the second variant (Operational form–B) represents the middle position—some deviation from the ideal operational form; and the third variant (Operational form–C) represents extreme deviation—non- or minimal-compliance with the recommended pedagogical principle.

Table 4.1: IC Maps example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Innovation component/ Pedagogical Principle</th>
<th>Operational form–A (Ideal operational form)</th>
<th>Operational form–B (Variation 1)</th>
<th>Operational form–C (Variation 2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of deductive pedagogy</td>
<td>Teacher does not make class completely teacher-centred by explaining too much. However, whenever necessary, he uses explicit instruction methods, such as modelling, and makes learners learn via practice.</td>
<td>Teacher sometimes explains too much, uses more than the required use of explicit instruction methods, and provides either more or less than required practice opportunities to learners.</td>
<td>Teacher uses only explicit instruction methods, explains too much, and provides either too much or very limited practice opportunities to learners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A similar format was used to develop the IC Maps for all 15 pedagogical principles. This constituted the whole quantitative observation schedule which was used to operationalise and measure teachers’ level of compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy. The complete observation schedule is given in Table 4.4 below. Now I explain the procedure to develop the IC Maps.

i. **Procedure to develop the IC Maps**

The IC Maps development procedure consisted of the following four steps delineated by Hord et al. (2006, cited in Huntley, 2012, pp. 54-58):

- Identifying innovation components
- Identifying operational forms (variations in implementation)
- Refining the IC Maps
- Testing and finalising the IC Maps

**a. Identifying innovation components**

This step involved identifying innovation components (pedagogical principles in this study). This was done by analysing the innovation materials—the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006), which yielded 15 pedagogical principles. In the IC Maps, the pedagogical principles (innovation components) are placed in the first column on the left. For example, see Table 4.1 above and Table 4.4 below.

**b. Identifying operational forms (variations in implementation)**

This was the second step that involved identifying 3-4 possible operational forms/variations in the implementation of the pedagogical principles. On the IC Maps, the operational forms are presented in the form of ‘detailed and vivid “word picture” descriptions’ (Huntley, 2012, p. 50). Huntley (2012) used a 4-point scale to identify the operational forms in her study. I designed a 3-point scale to identify the operational forms in my observation schedule. When designing, getting feedback on, and piloting my 3-point scale, I found that the 3-point scale proved to be nuanced enough to constitute a reliable and valid
instrument which was fit for purpose and which enabled me to tackle my research question 4 (see Section 3.7 above). In my 3-point scale, one operational form represents the ideal form that is required to be implemented in the innovation, whereas the other two represent the varying degrees of deviations from the ideal operational form. For example, see Table 4.1 above where ‘use of deductive pedagogy’ is a pedagogical principle. To operationalise and measure teachers’ level of compliance with this principle, three operational forms (A, B, and C) are developed, which represent varying degrees of compliance and deviation from the ideal operational form of the stipulated pedagogical principle. Following this procedure, operational forms (A, B, and C) were developed for all 15 pedagogical principles. Based on these operational forms, the operationalisation and measurement of each pedagogical principle and ultimately of the whole phenomenon (teachers’ level of compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy) became possible. The operational forms were developed by reviewing the national curriculum multiple times. Additionally, my experience as a teacher evaluator/observer\textsuperscript{18}, evaluating English language teachers’ pedagogical practices based on a similar observation schedule in the English language Institute at King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia and my teaching experience in Pakistan (the educational context under investigation) were very helpful in developing the operational forms.

c. Refining the IC Maps

This was the third step that involved refining the IC Maps by getting them reviewed by ‘the lead authors of the curriculum materials’ (Huntley, 2012, p. 58).

\textsuperscript{18} It is worth mentioning here that I worked as a teacher evaluator/observer and trainer in the Professional Development Unit of the English Language Institute at King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia, for two years (2013-2014). As a teacher evaluator and trainer, my responsibilities included observing English language teachers’ lessons, evaluating their pedagogical skills, giving them feedback on their performance, and providing them necessary teacher training to improve their pedagogical skills. I observed more than 100 lessons, evaluated teachers’ pedagogical skills, and provided them teacher training. A teacher’s performance was assessed on the basis of an observation schedule called \textit{Classroom Observation Evaluation Criteria} that consisted of operational features and operational forms on a somewhat similar pattern to that presented in the observation schedule used in this study. My extensive experience of evaluating teachers’ lessons via classroom observations and working with the \textit{Classroom Observation Evaluation Criteria} helped me a lot in developing the observation schedule for this study.
Since approaching the curriculum developers was not possible, the IC Maps were refined by getting my observation schedule reviewed by an expert in the field of curriculum innovations and materials development (Dr Nigel Harwood, my supervisor) and having extended discussions with him. Dr Nigel Harwood reviewed the observation schedule six times and suggested many changes before it was finally ready for piloting. For example, initially, I put the two pedagogical principles (lesson planning and setting and achieving learning objectives) together. Further, to identify their operational forms (A, B, and C), I developed two descriptors of which one was about lesson planning and the other was about setting and achieving learning objectives (see Table 4.2 below).

Table 4.2: An IC Map developed for the observation schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Innovation component/ Pedagogical Principle</th>
<th>Operational form–A</th>
<th>Operational form–B</th>
<th>Operational form–C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lesson planning and setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
<td>Teacher seems to have a well-organised lesson plan.</td>
<td>Teacher seems to have a moderately-organised lesson plan.</td>
<td>Teacher does not seem to have an organised lesson plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher is successful in delivering a good lesson and achieving lesson objectives by the end of the lesson.</td>
<td>Teacher delivers a satisfactory lesson in which some aims are achieved but some others are not.</td>
<td>Teacher is not successful in delivering a good lesson, and hence most of the aims are not achieved by the end of the lesson.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In his review, Dr Nigel Harwood pointed out that the two descriptors may not necessarily conform to each other in a single lesson. For example, in one lesson, the teacher may achieve his learning objectives, which features in the operational form–A; but he/she may only have a moderately-organised lesson plan, which features in the operational form–B. This would cause problems in identifying the operational form. Further, he pointed out that the descriptors (operational forms) identified for the two pedagogical principles were quite brief and needed more explanation and clarity for their accurate identification. Therefore, to identify these pedagogical principles accurately, I split them into two separate categories—‘lesson planning’ and ‘setting and achieving learning objectives’. 

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objectives’—and also added more explanation to the descriptors. The corrections made and explanations added to the two pedagogic principles can be seen in Table 4.4 below.

**d. Testing and finalising the IC Maps**

This was the last step that involved testing the IC Maps to finally ensure their content validity (to confirm they measure what they are designed to measure) and construct validity (how adequately they assess or measure the theoretical concept) (Hammond & Willington, 2013; Mackey & Gass, 2005). This was done by piloting the observation schedule via three lesson observations. As a result of piloting, one major and some minor changes were made to the observation schedule. The changes are explained below.

Since materials adaptation and supplementation are often used together in the literature, I initially identified these as one pedagogical principle/theme and the operational forms (A, B, and C) for this principle consisted of two points: one about materials adaptation and the other about materials supplementation (see Table 4.3 below). In the three pilot observations I found that identifying an operational form (A/B/C) based on the two points mentioned for the ‘materials adaptation and supplementation’ principle was quite hard, as in none of the three observations was the teacher categorised under one operational form (A/B/C) and awarded the same score for materials adaptation as for materials supplementation. For example, in two lessons the teacher used the textbook only as a teaching resource and made considerable adaptations to that (a feature identified in operational form–A) but did not do any materials supplementation (a feature identified in operational form–C). Such situations raised the issue of which operational form (A or C) should be used to classify the teacher’s behaviour. Hence, it was concluded that splitting this pedagogical principle into two themes—‘materials adaptation’ and ‘materials supplementation’—would make the identification of the operational forms (A/B/C) easier. Hence, as a result of piloting, this principle was divided into two principles/themes.
Table 4.3: The IC Map for the pedagogical principle ‘materials adaptation and supplementation’ developed prior to piloting the observation schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Innovation component/Pedagogical Principle</th>
<th>Operational form–A (Ideal operational form)</th>
<th>Operational form–B (Variation 1)</th>
<th>Operational form–C (Variation 2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Materials adaptation and supplementation</td>
<td>▪ Teacher makes considerable adaptations (e.g., omission, editing, reordering, etc.) in the textbook in accordance with the learners’ needs. ▪ Along with using the textbook, teacher makes considerable use of supplementary materials from the sources other than the textbook.</td>
<td>▪ Teacher makes some adaptations (e.g., omission, editing, reordering, etc.) in the textbook in accordance with the learners’ needs. ▪ Teacher mostly relies on the textbook, however some supplementation of materials from the sources other than the textbook is done.</td>
<td>▪ Teacher makes no adaptation in the textbook, follows it as it is from one page to the next, and makes students work in the same order as is given in the book. ▪ Teacher uses only textbook as a teaching resource and hardly does any supplementation of materials from the sources other than the textbook.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The minor changes involved rephrasing the descriptors (operational forms) by modifying a word or two or a short phrase in them to make them clearer and more accurate. For example, I deleted the phrase ‘making class learner-centred’ from the descriptors for the ‘use of the communicative approach’ principle, as the pilot observations revealed that the use of learner-centred activities was not the only way to make a class learner-centred. A class could be made learner-centred using some other methods also. For example, in the three pilot observations, I saw hardly any use of pair and group work, but still learner-centredness featured in them via the teacher’s use of inductive pedagogy (inquiry-based learning, self-discovery, problem-solving), teacher-learner collaboration, and by putting responsibility on learners and making them work individually. Hence, it seemed better to not associate the theme of learner-centeredness with the use of the communicative approach only. Therefore, I deleted it from the descriptors for the use of the communicative approach. The modified version of the descriptors can be seen in Table 4.4 below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Pedagogical principle/Operational feature</th>
<th>Operational form—A (Ideal form of pedagogical principle required to be implemented) (Score = 02)</th>
<th>Operational form—B (Some deviation from the ideal form) (Score = 01)</th>
<th>Operational form—C (Extreme deviation from the ideal form) (Score = 00)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
<td>Teacher involves learners in various learner-centred activities (pair and group work) that provide sufficient learner-learner interaction opportunities and generate a large amount of student-talk-time in the class.</td>
<td>Teacher involves learners in a few learner-centred activities (pair or group work) that provide little learner-learner interaction opportunities and hence generate only a small amount of student-talk-time in the class.</td>
<td>Teacher doesn’t involve learners in any learner-centred activity that consequently provides no opportunity for learner-learner interaction and student-talk-time in the class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge</td>
<td>Teacher primarily focuses on developing learners’ English language skills and also pays due attention to developing their English language knowledge.</td>
<td>Teacher primarily focuses on developing learners’ English language knowledge and gives secondary importance to developing their English language skills.</td>
<td>Teacher focuses on developing learners’ English language knowledge only and pays no or minimal attention to developing their English language skills. <strong>OR</strong> Teacher is neither concerned with developing learners’ English language skills nor knowledge.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4: Classroom observation schedule designed with reference to the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum [Drawing on the observation schedules of English Language Institute (n.d.) and Huntley (2012)]
<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>Promoting learners’ use of English language for academic and social purposes</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher provides learners sufficient opportunities for real-life-like use of English (in both spoken and written form) in the class, which help them develop their use of English for various academic and social purposes.</td>
<td>Teacher provides learners some opportunities for real-life-like use of English (either in written or spoken or both) in the class, which provide them some opportunities to develop their use of English for academic and social purposes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
<td><strong>Materials adaptation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher makes considerable adaptations (e.g., omission, editing, reordering, etc.) in the textbook in accordance with the learners' needs.</td>
<td>Teacher makes some adaptations (e.g., omission, editing, reordering, etc.) in the textbook in accordance with the learners' needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>Materials supplementation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Along with using the textbook, teacher makes considerable use of supplementary materials from the sources other than the textbook.</td>
<td>Teacher mostly relies on the textbook, however some supplementation of materials from the sources other than the textbook is done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>Integrated language teaching</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher uses an integrated language teaching approach and connects one language skill/subskill to the other.</td>
<td>Teacher sometimes connects one skill/subskill to the other, however mostly teaches language skills/subskills individually.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>Collaborative learning</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher regularly involves learners in teacher-learner and/or learner-learner collaborative learning processes</td>
<td>Teacher sometimes involves learners in teacher-learner and/or learner-learner collaborative learning processes (e.g., peer-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 8 | Promoting Learner Autonomy | § Teacher puts responsibility on learners for their learning by regularly involving them in independent and/or collaborative learning processes in the class.  
- Teacher regularly considers learners’ differing interests, abilities, and learning styles while assigning them tasks in the class. | § Teacher mostly dominates the lesson and puts some responsibility on learners for their learning by providing them some opportunities for independent and/or collaborative work in the class.  
- Teacher sometimes considers learners’ differing interests, abilities, and learning styles while assigning them tasks in the class. | § Teacher completely dominates the lesson, rarely involves learners in independent and collaborative work in the class, and hence doesn’t put any responsibility on them for their learning.  
- Teacher doesn’t pay any attention to learners’ differing interests, abilities, and learning styles while assigning them tasks in the class. |
| 9 | Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills | § Teacher involves learners to make use of their higher order cognitive skills [critical thinking and creative use of English (in either spoken or written modes or both)]. | § Teacher sometimes involves learners to make use of their higher order cognitive skills [critical thinking and creative use of English (in either spoken or written modes or both)]. | § Teacher hardly involves learners to make use of their higher order cognitive skills [critical thinking and creative use of English]. |
| 10 | Use of inductive pedagogy | § Teacher regularly involves learners in inductive learning processes (e.g., inquiry-based learning, problem-solving, etc.) | § Teacher sometimes involves learners in inductive learning processes (e.g., inquiry-based learning, problem-solving, etc.) | § Teacher makes no or minimal use of inductive learning processes (e.g., self-discovery and inquiry-based learning) and |
| 11 | Use of deductive pedagogy | Teacher does not make class completely teacher-centred by explaining too much. However, whenever necessary, he uses explicit instruction methods, e.g., modelling, and makes learners learn via practice. | Teacher sometimes explains too much, uses more than the required use of explicit instruction methods, and provides either more or less than required practice opportunities to learners. | Teacher uses only explicit instruction methods, explains too much, and provides either too much or very limited practice opportunities to learners. |
| 12 | Supportive facilitation and encouragement by teacher | Teacher regularly encourages learners to get on with the tasks and facilitates them whenever they need assistance. | Teacher sometimes encourages and facilitates learners to get on with the tasks. | Teacher doesn’t encourage and facilitate learners to get on with the tasks. |
| 13 | Teacher appreciates learners for their correct answers, doesn’t criticise them for their wrong answers, and takes learners’ mistakes as a part of the learning process. | Teacher sometimes appreciates learners for their correct answers and sometimes criticises them for their wrong answers. | Teacher mostly discourages learners and criticises them for their wrong answers. |
| 13 | Teacher regularly reviews learners’ learning and progress, and also uses review exercises/activities to assess their learning and progress. | Teacher sometimes reviews learners’ learning and progress, and also sometimes uses review exercises/activities to assess their learning and progress. | Teacher occasionally reviews learners’ learning and progress, and also hardly uses review exercises/activities to assess their learning and progress. |
| 14 | Teacher states learning objectives (either from the ones given in the unit or his own) clearly in the beginning of the lesson. He delivers a good lesson and achieves most of the learning objectives by the end of the lesson. | Teacher does not state learning objectives clearly in the beginning of the lesson. He delivers a satisfactory lesson and is moderately successful in what he aims to teach. | Teacher neither states learning objectives nor is successful in delivering a good lesson and achieving what he aims to teach. |
| 15 | Teacher seems to have a well-organised lesson plan. He maintains a good lesson pace and allocates time appropriately to different parts/stages of the lesson. | Teacher seems to have a moderately-organised lesson plan. Lesson pace and time allocated to different parts/stages of the lesson is not appropriate. | Teacher does not seem to have an organised lesson plan. Lesson pace is either too slow or too fast and the teacher fails to allocate time appropriately to different stages/parts of the lesson. |
Having provided information about the observation schedule, I now explain how classroom observation data was collected (using field notes and video/audio-recordings) and analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively.

**4.7.2 Classroom observation data collection procedure**

The observations were carried out as a non-participant observer, a role that demands the observer to observe and take a record of the happenings from a distance, ‘attempting not to influence the situation at all’ (Papatheodorou et al., 2013, p. 75) and ‘thus gathering data from an outsider’s point of view’ (Rozsahegyi, 2019, p. 26). Half of the observations (N=18) were conducted with grade 9 classes and the other half (N=18) with grade 10 classes. The purpose of having an equal number of observations with both grade 9 and 10 classes was to ensure the representativeness of the data. The lessons were observed at teachers’ convenience and each teacher’s three lessons were observed on two to three consecutive days. For ethical reasons, it was ensured that the teachers’ regular teaching schedule was not disrupted.

When observing a lesson, the data was collected by taking field notes, collecting evidence about the use or non-use of the 15 pedagogical principles identified in the observation schedule and other significant pedagogical practices that emerged in their own right during the classroom observations. The observation field notes sheet can be found in Appendix 4.4. Along with taking field notes, the lessons were video/audio-recorded. One teacher did not agree to video-recording, so his three lessons were audio-recorded. The reasons for video/audio-recording the lessons are explained in Section 4.7 above.

Having collected the data, the next step was its analysis, which was done first qualitatively and then quantitatively. The procedures for both qualitative and quantitative data analyses are given in turn below.
4.7.3 Procedure to analyse the classroom observation data qualitatively

The qualitative data analysis process consisted of the following steps:

i. Having taken the field notes during classroom observations, I initially reviewed them twice: first immediately after the observation, and a second time later on the same day when crosschecking with the lesson video/audio-recording to ensure no significant information/data was missed out. This made the field notes accurate and complete and ensured the accuracy of the data.

ii. The next step was coding/labelling the field notes with reference to the 15 pedagogical principles identified in the observation schedule and any other significant pedagogical practices that emerged in their own right in the observation data. The field notes’ coding was mainly deductive in nature (Dörnyei, 2007) as the 15 pedagogical principles, whose use or non-use was to be explored, were already available via the analysis of the national curriculum. However, the pedagogical practices that emerged in their own right in the classroom observation data were coded inductively (Dörnyei, 2007). The deductive codes were the same 15 pedagogical principles that are recommended by the national curriculum. The three additional codes that emerged inductively in the data were: (i) Use of English as a medium of instruction, (ii) Use of Urdu as a medium of instruction, and (iii) Use of the grammar translation method. Coding was done by identifying the data extract in the field notes column (the left-hand column on the field notes sheet) and labelling it with reference to the pedagogic principle it referred to. The codes were written in the code column (the right-hand column on the field notes sheet). An image of a page from the field notes sheet is given in Figure 4.23 below to illustrate how the field notes sheet looked. For further information about how the field notes for a whole lesson were written and labelled to identify the teachers’ pedagogical practices, see Appendix 4.5.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field notes column</th>
<th>Code column</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s teaching procedure:</td>
<td>Observer’s comments/remarks:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Now asks Ls some questions about Present Indefinite Tense</td>
<td>- Elicitation/Questioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Gives them some sentences</td>
<td>- Inductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Why do you write a letter?</td>
<td>- Integrated Language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Why do you take tea?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Asks:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- What is the tense?</td>
<td>- Elicitation/Questioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ls reply!</td>
<td>- Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Present Indefinite Tense</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Now asks Ls how they know</td>
<td>- Explicit instruction of rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ls are given open choice to answer</td>
<td>- Use of Urdu language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Explaining rules of passive voice to Ls again</td>
<td>- Reviewing Ls’ learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Using Urdu language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Asking Ls if there is anything they don’t understand</td>
<td>- 18 minutes presentation stage involving both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- inductive and deductive pedagogy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10:26

- Now practice stage starts
- Asks Ls to open their notebooks

Figure 4.23: An image of a page from the field notes sheet
i. Having reviewed and coded the field notes, short memos were written for each lesson with reference to each pedagogical principle identified in the observation schedule and any pedagogical practice that emerged unbidden from the classroom observation data. A specimen memo can be found in Appendix 4.6.

ii. Based on the analysis of the field notes and memos written afterwards, one operational form (A/B/C) that corresponded with the teacher’s pedagogical practices was identified against each pedagogical principle in the observation schedule. The A/B/C ratings signified the teacher’s compliance with, or deviation from, each pedagogical principle. This resulted in 15 ratings per observation, as one observation schedule was used per observation. However, in some observations, the data for one or two pedagogical principles was not present—as was already pointed out in Section 4.7 above, it was unrealistic to expect a teacher to exhibit all the features of curriculum innovations in every single lesson (Huntley, 2012). In such situations, no operational form (A/B/C) was identified for that pedagogical principle. For further exemplification of how operational forms were identified to rate the pedagogical principles in the observation schedule, see Appendix 4.7.

It was ensured that the above-given steps to analyse the observation data qualitatively were carried at the earliest opportunity, preferably the same day when a lesson was observed (an approach advocated by Cohen et al., 2018). There were two practical reasons for doing this. First, I was aware that analysing the data speedily would help ensure accuracy in the data analysis process, lessening recall issues. Second, doing so would help prevent the bulk of observation data piling up and hence would help ensure smooth progress from the data collection stage to its subsequent analysis.

Having explained the procedure to analyse the classroom observation data qualitatively, I move on to explain the procedure to analyse the classroom observation data quantitatively.
4.7.4 Procedure to analyse the classroom observation data quantitatively

As the purpose of the classroom observations was to explore the extent to which the teachers comply with the pedagogical principles stipulated in the national curriculum, it was essential that the data be quantified. The quantification was done by assigning a score to each operational form identified in the observation schedule. The operational form–A that denoted maximum compliance with a recommended pedagogical principle was assigned a score of 2; the operational form–B that indicated some deviation was assigned a score of 1; and the operational form–C that represented extreme deviation was given a score of zero. Hence, the higher the score a teacher gets on the observation schedule, the higher is his level of compliance and vice versa. The observation rating scale is also given in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5: Classroom observation rating scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operational form</th>
<th>Identification</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Operational form–A</td>
<td>Full compliance</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational form–B</td>
<td>Some deviation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational form–C</td>
<td>Extreme deviation</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The decision to assign the 2/1/zero rating to the operational forms was distinct from the method used by Huntley (2012) who, in her study, followed a two-step process. She first identified how many A/B/C/D ratings the teachers obtained for each category and then calculated the difference between the ideal and near ideal operational forms (A and B) and the deviations (C and D) via their percentage scores. Instead of following this two-step process, I followed a straightforward single-step process in which I calculated the overall compliance score for each category/pedagogical principle using a 2/1/zero rating scale, since in my study (as stated in research question 4) I had set the aim of exploring teachers’ level of compliance with the pedagogical principles, not to make a comparison between the operational forms–A/B/C for a pedagogical principle. Therefore, I do not do any comparison between A/B/C operational forms when presenting my quantitative results. However, teachers’ different pedagogical
practices in their lessons with different (2/1/zero) ratings are explained when presenting qualitative descriptions of the teachers’ pedagogical practices (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3 below).

As the observation schedule consisted of 15 pedagogical principles and the maximum score allocated to a pedagogical principle (in terms of maximum compliance) was 2, the total maximum score for a single observation was 30 \((15 \times 2 = 30)\) and the maximum score for a teacher’s three observations was 90 \((30 \times 3 = 90)\). Likewise, as the total number of observations was 36 and the maximum score allocated to a pedagogical principle (in terms of maximum compliance) was 2, the total maximum score for one pedagogical principle in 36 observations was 72 \((36 \times 2 = 72)\). This calculation is also presented in Table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6: Classroom observation scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of pedagogical principles in the observation schedule</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total maximum score for one classroom observation</td>
<td>(15 \times 2 = 30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total maximum score for a set of three classroom observations per teacher</td>
<td>(30 \times 3 = 90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of observations</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total maximum score for a pedagogical principle in 36 observations</td>
<td>(36 \times 2 = 72)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following these criteria, the teachers’ score for each lesson was calculated. Further, the 12 teachers’ scores for each of the 15 pedagogical principles in each of their lessons was also calculated. In addition, the total score for each pedagogical principle for all 12 teachers in their 36 lessons was calculated. This calculation helps evaluate the extent to which the teachers collectively comply with the pedagogical policy recommended in the national curriculum. Having obtained the teachers’ scores for each pedagogical principle, their level of compliance was evaluated on the basis of a scale given in Table 4.7 below. The scale is derived from the Classroom Observation Evaluation Criteria used to evaluate teachers’ pedagogical performance in the English Language Institute of King Abdulaziz University Saudi Arabia and is based on a generally accepted standard criterion for performance evaluation.
Table 4.7: Scale to categorise the teachers’ level of compliance with the recommended pedagogical policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of compliance with the recommended pedagogical policy</th>
<th>Score obtained by teachers in 36 observations</th>
<th>Score percentage</th>
<th>Total maximum score for a pedagogical principle in 36 observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>65 and above</td>
<td>90% and above</td>
<td>72 (36 x 2 = 72)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>54 - 64</td>
<td>75% - 89%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>43 - 53</td>
<td>60% - 74%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>36 - 42</td>
<td>50% - 59%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
<td>Less than 36</td>
<td>Less than 50%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last step of the analysis process involved supplementing the quantitative results with descriptive and analytical accounts of the teachers’ pedagogical practices that emerged as significant in their observed lessons with reference to various pedagogical principles. Both quantitative results and qualitative description of the classroom observation data are given in Chapter 7 below. For the reader’s convenience, a visual image of the steps involved in both qualitative and quantitative analysis of the classroom observation data is given in Figure 4.24 below.
Further, two important issues were to ensure reliability and objectivity in the classroom observation data analysis process. How these were accomplished is explained below.

**4.7.5 Ensuring reliability and objectivity in the classroom observation data analysis**

The reliability—‘the consistency of the measurement’ (Hammond & Willington, 2013, p. 150)—and objectivity in analysing the classroom observation data were
aided via ‘triangulation in the analysis of data’ (Flick, 2018, p. 456). Although ideally inter-rater checks would have been carried out in addition to data-analysis triangulation, including inter-rating was challenging because of the following reasons:

i. The classroom observation data analysis involved a complex, multistep process, which included reading field notes, crosschecking them with the video/audio-recordings, coding the field notes, writing memos for the observed lessons with reference to each pedagogical principle, and finally assigning the A/B/C ratings for each pedagogical principle identified in the observation schedule. This whole complicated process would not only have involved a considerable amount of work for a second rater, but it also might have been difficult for a second rater to stick to this rigorous process faithfully.

ii. Additionally, the data analysis process included watching participants’ lesson videos. Hence, involving a second rater ran the risk of compromising the confidentiality of the data.

Because of these reasons, I took the view that a more appropriate and practical choice was that I alone should engage in the data-analysis triangulation (Flick, 2018). The data-analysis triangulation involved a five-step analysis process, involving both qualitative and quantitative analysis. These steps are explained in detail in Sections 4.7.3 and 4.7.4 above. Briefly, the first step involved coding and analysing the written observation field notes. The second step involved writing memos for each lesson with reference to the teachers’ pedagogical practices in their observed lessons. The third step involved rating teachers’ pedagogical practices by assigning an A/B/C rating against each pedagogical principle on the observation schedule. These ratings signified the teacher’s compliance with, or deviation from, the pedagogical principles. The fourth step involved assigning a 2/1/zero score to the A/B/C ratings respectively to identify teachers’ compliance with, or deviation from, the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical principles. Finally, the fifth step involved calculating scores to explain teachers’ level of compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy. These steps, involving data-analysis triangulation (Flick, 2018), made me interact meaningfully with the observation data several times, which ensured
the reliability (accuracy and consistency) and objectivity in the classroom observation data analysis process and of its findings\(^{19}\).

Having explained the classroom observation data collection and analysis procedure, I move on to the next section that provides information about the post-observation interviews used in the study.

### 4.8 Post-observation interviews with teachers

The interview is the most widely used data collection method in qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007). It is defined as a purposeful conversation that tends to explore not just factual information but rich details of more complex phenomena that cannot be understood directly through observations, such as respondents’ opinions, feelings, emotions, perceptions, experiences, and beliefs (Denscombe, 2017; Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Richards, 2009). The use of the interview in collaboration with the classroom observation as a data collection method has been a salient feature of several studies related to various aspects of classroom-based research: pedagogical practices, instructional approaches, and curriculum innovation implementation. Some examples of such studies featuring interviews are: Basturkmen et al. (2004); Carless (2003, 2004, 2007); Hamid & Honan (2012); McDonough & Chaikitmongkol (2007); Menkabu & Harwood (2014); Orafi & Borg (2009); and Shamim (1993).

In this study, the post-observation one-to-one interviews were conducted with the teachers whose lessons were observed. The reason for adding post-observation interviews to the classroom observations was the inherent limitations of the observation method. For example, the observation data reflects the observer’s (researcher’s) perspective, i.e., what they see and how they perceive what they see. In order to validate the data obtained via classroom observations, it was essential to solicit the participants’ perspective as well, and then final conclusions about the data could be drawn (Richards, 2009). Tomlinson (2013a) also highlights that much classroom research has relied heavily on observable data rather than exploring what lies in the minds of the

\(^{19}\) It is important to note that despite the rigour with which the classroom observation data was collected and analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively, human subjectivity means it can only be seen as a strong representation of ‘reality’, not an absolute truth.
teachers. Therefore, relying on observation alone as a source of wholly accurate information was regarded as inappropriate and the interview was added as an additional data collection method. The post-observation interviews aimed at exploring teachers’ rationale for the pedagogical practices they employ(ed) or resist(ed) in their lessons and to solicit their perspective about what factors compel(led) them to do so, since it was thought that this would make the data more comprehensive and accurate (Cowie, 2009; Richards, 2009).

The interviews were semi-structured in nature. In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer identifies a set of topics or questions that need to be covered, though there is enough flexibility to let the conversation go beyond the targeted topics/questions in order to probe more into any relevant emerging information (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Richards, 2009). Further, a semi-structured interview gives more freedom to the respondent to explain their viewpoint and limits the possibility of the interviewer’s influence that might happen in the case of a structured interview in which information is obtained via close-ended questions that are designed by the researcher and might be based on their own mind-set and beliefs. On the other hand, an unstructured interview runs the risk of the conversation straying from the main topic. This is why researchers (Denscombe, 2017; Dörnyei, 2007; Richards, 2009) suggest the use of a semi-structured interview based on an interview schedule. Hence, semi-structured interviews based on an interview schedule were used in this study. Information about the interview schedule is given below.

4.8.1 Interview schedule

The interview schedule I used in this study was adapted from the interview used by Menkabu and Harwood (2014) in their study of teachers’ pedagogical practices with reference to the textbook use on an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course in a Saudi EFL context. However, to meet the requirements of this study, some modifications were made to that interview schedule. These modifications mainly included changes in the sequence of different sections and in the content of the interview. The two reasons to draw upon Menkabu and Harwood’s (2014) interview schedule were as follows:
i. Their study focused on a similar topic (teachers’ pedagogical practices with reference to the textbook use on an ESP course) in a broadly similar EFL context (Saudi Arabia).

ii. They also employed both classroom observations and post-observation interviews ‘to explore teachers’ textbook use and motivations underlying their practices’ (p. 145).

The interview schedule I designed was divided into five sections (see Appendix 4.8). Section 1 sought informants’ background information, such as their name, the name of the school where they teach, educational qualifications, TEFL experience, and pre- and in-service training they had received. In this section, four categories (teacher name, educational qualifications, TEFL experience, and teacher training) were solicited in line with Menkabu and Harwood’s (2014) schedule. However, two categories used in Menkabu and Harwood’s schedule (ESP teaching experience and teaching English in other institutions) were excluded, as they were not relevant to this study. In place of them, I added a new category (school name), as the participants (teachers) involved in the study worked in different schools.

Section 2 of the interview schedule consisted of the questions asked specifically with reference to the teachers’ observed lessons. This section consisted of several individually-tailored questions that covered all the topics that were relevant to the teachers’ use/non-use of the pedagogical practices in their observed lessons and solicited teachers’ rationale for the pedagogical practices they used or did not use in their observed lessons. A list of the topics covered in this section is given below:

Rationale for:

- teaching a particular topic, such as translation, reading comprehension, grammar (e.g., narration, passive voice, etc.)
- focusing/not focusing on learners’ English language skills
- focusing on learners’ English language knowledge
- the use (limited or excessive)/non-use of inductive pedagogy
- the use (limited or excessive)/non-use of deductive pedagogy
- the use/non-use of the communicative approach
the use of the grammar translation method
providing encouragement and supportive facilitation to learners
encouraging/discouraging learner autonomy
promoting/not promoting learners’ higher order cognitive skills
adapting the textbook or using it as it is
using Urdu/English as a medium of instruction in the class
lesson planning

To exemplify, some questions asked to cover these topics are given below:

I noticed in lesson 1 you translated the text of the unit into Urdu. Could you explain your rationale for doing that?
I noticed lesson 2 was devoted to reading comprehension of the unit ‘Faithfulness’. Could you explain the rationale for doing that?
In lesson 3, you skipped oral communication and creative writing activities given in the textbook (I showed him the book). What was your rationale for doing that?
In your lessons, I didn’t find you using any learner-centred activity, such as pair and group work. Could you comment on that?

However, it is important to note that the questions included in this section and their number varied from one teacher to another in line with the variations in the teachers’ use of pedagogical practices in their lessons, since each teacher was asked questions specifically with reference to his observed lessons. This section was included in Menkabu and Harwood’s interview schedule. However, there was one difference. Menkabu and Harwood explored only ‘teachers’ textbook use and motivations underlying their practices’ with reference to the textbook use (p. 145), whereas I included questions covering all the topics (mentioned above) that were relevant to the teachers’ pedagogical practices in their observed lessons.

Section 3 consisted of questions to solicit teachers’ views about the pedagogical practices they use in their lessons in general. To make the teachers’ task of identifying the pedagogical practices easier, I used a prompt card (Prompt Card 1) containing a list of 15 pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum. The teachers were asked which of these pedagogical
principles they use in their lessons in general. However, it was not disclosed to the teachers that the pedagogical principles listed on Prompt Card 1 are the ones that are recommended in the national curriculum. It was thought that if that had been disclosed to the teachers, they might have expressed their allegiance to the pedagogical principles to show their compliance with them. The purpose of including this section in the interview schedule was to obtain additional information about teachers’ use of pedagogical practices and make the data richer. Menkabu and Harwood (2014) included such a section (with both prompt card and questions) in their interview schedule to explore teachers’ textbook use only as that was the focus of their study. In contrast, I explored teachers’ use/non-use of the pedagogical principles stipulated in the national curriculum and their rationale for this use/non-use, as this was the focus of my study.

Section 4 consisted of questions about the constraining factors that affect teachers’ use of the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum. To make the teachers’ task of identifying the constraining factors easier, I used a prompt card (Prompt Card 2), presenting a list of the potential constraining factors in line with Menkabu and Harwood (2014), who also included such a section (with both prompt card and questions) in their interview schedule. However, there were two differences between mine and Menkabu and Harwood’s interview schedules in this regard. First, Menkabu and Harwood asked about constraining factors with reference to the teacher’s use of the teacher’s book, whereas I asked about the constraining factors that affect teachers’ use of the stipulated pedagogical principles. Second, Menkabu and Harwood listed the constraining factors without classifying them into different categories, whereas I classified the constraining factors under four major categories:

i. institutional/official constraints,
ii. constraints associated with the students,
iii. constraints associated with the teachers, and
iv. examination constraints,
and then listed various constraints under each category. Another modification I made was the addition of the factor ‘lack of teacher training’ under the main category ‘institutional/official constraints’. This was not included in the list of the constraining factors identified by Menkabu and Harwood (2014). For details, see Appendix 4.8.

Section 5 consisted of questions soliciting informants’ awareness and knowledge of the macro-level policy documents and the pedagogical principles stipulated in them. This section was not included in Menkabu and Harwood’s interview schedule, as their study was not related to macro-level pedagogical policy. I included this section in my interview schedule as the macro-level policy documents constituted an important part in my study. The complete interview schedule is given in Appendix 4.8. I now explain the procedure to conduct and analyse the interviews.

4.8.2 Procedure to conduct the interviews

Each interview lasted between 40 and 70 minutes. A natural conversational style was followed in the interview. The interviewees were given the freedom to opt for English or Urdu (the common vernacular in Pakistan) simply because it would let them express their ideas comfortably and freely and in detail. Granting this sort of flexibility to the interviewees enhances both the quality and quantity of the data (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Six interviewees opted for English and the other six opted for Urdu. Each interview was conducted at a time convenient for the teacher the very next day after observing a teacher’s three lessons. This was done to ensure that the teachers’ responses to the interview questions were based on their recent memory of the observed lessons because this would help in getting more accurate information and hence would ensure the accuracy and credibility of the data. The interviews were audio-recorded.

4.8.3 Procedure to analyse the interview data

As the purpose to analyse the interview data was to identify the themes related to the teachers’ rationale for using, or deviating from, the recommended pedagogical principles and the contextual constraints that accounted for their behaviour, the thematic analysis method (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was regarded
as the most appropriate method to do so. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 79) define thematic analysis as ‘a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data’ and further explain its function as follows:

It minimally organizes and describes [the] data set in (rich) detail. However, frequently it goes further than this, and interprets various aspects of the research topic.

The thematic analysis process begins with the identification of the ‘patterns of meaning and issues of potential interest in the data’ and its ‘endpoint is the reporting of the content and meaning of patterns (themes) in the data’ (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 86). Braun and Clarke (2006) identify the following six-step process to carry out the thematic analysis:

i. Familiarising oneself with the data
ii. Generating initial codes
iii. Searching for themes
iv. Reviewing themes
v. Defining and naming themes
vi. Producing the report

I followed these steps in their true spirit to analyse my interview data. However, I made some modifications to these, as Braun and Clarke (2006) grant freedom to the researcher to modify their proposed six-step thematic analysis process and clarify that these steps are not rigid rules, but rather they are basic principles which are flexible and may be modified in relation to how they are used:

Given the advantages of the flexibility of thematic analysis, it is important that we are clear that we are not trying to limit this flexibility... and ensuring flexibility in relation to how it is used, so that it does not become limited and constrained, and lose one of its key advantages (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 78).

One modification I made is that I reduced the three steps—step 3 (searching for themes), step 4 (reviewing themes), and step 5 (defining and naming themes)—to one step. My rationale for doing this is that these three steps are mutually inclusive, having no sharp boundaries between them. Further, they do not occur in a linear fashion; they rather involve a constant back-and-forth review process until the researcher finally concludes the identification,
review, and definition of themes (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, I reduced these three steps to one step, and in this report of the interview data analysis process I mention these as one step and name it as ‘developing themes out of codes’. Hence, I reduce the six-step thematic analysis process to a four-step process.

The second modification I made is that I name the four steps slightly differently from Braun and Clarke (2006), though the change in the nomenclature of the four steps does not imply any change in their underlying processes. The nomenclature is changed to better capture the comprehensiveness of the process. For example, I name the first step as ‘arranging the data and developing familiarity with the data’ instead of the label ‘familiarising oneself with the data’ used by Braun and Clarke (2006). Braun and Clarke include the aspects of transcribing the data (if verbal), arranging it, and familiarising oneself with the data in the first step. Likewise, I name the second step ‘coding the data’ instead of using Braun and Clarke’s label ‘generating initial codes’. My viewpoint is that the label ‘generating initial codes’ implies that this process is limited to only assigning preliminary codes to the data, as in some data analysis approaches (e.g., grounded theory) which involve multiple rounds of coding. In contrast, my argument is that the label ‘coding the data’ refers to the coding process as a whole. Therefore, it is more appropriate than the label ‘generating initial codes’. Likewise, for the third and fourth steps I use the labels ‘developing themes out of codes’ and ‘interpreting the data and drawing conclusions’ respectively, as my viewpoint is that they refer to the underlying processes more aptly. Thus, I now explain the interview data analysis process in the following four steps:

i. Arranging the data and developing familiarity with the data
ii. Coding the data
iii. Developing themes out of codes
iv. Interpreting the data and drawing conclusions

i. Arranging the data and developing familiarity with the data

This was the first step that involved transcribing the audio-recorded interviews. The interviews were transcribed verbatim. However, as I was mainly interested
in the content of the respondents’ talk, not in the linguistic forms of the verbal data, I paid little attention to transcribing the features of verbal speech, such as intonation and pauses. To ensure accuracy, the written transcripts were re-checked against the original audio-recordings. The interviews conducted in English were transcribed in English and the interviews in Urdu were transcribed in Urdu. This was done to ensure accuracy in, and credibility of, the data analysis process. A specimen of a transcribed interview can be found in Appendix 4.9.

Since I myself conducted and transcribed all the interviews, I developed my initial familiarity with the data during this process. The next step was coding the data.

**ii. Coding the data**

The first step in the coding process was pre-coding that involved immersing myself deeply in the data through repeated readings and identifying the relevant data extracts (Dörnyei, 2007; Saldaña, 2013). This pre-coding process helped me to develop a broad, in-depth understanding of all aspects of the data. The next step was code-labelling that involved labelling the identified data extracts using appropriate codes (Dörnyei, 2007). Each data extract/concept was labelled with two codes—a broader main code and a sub-code. For example, when the data extract referred to the concept of ‘teacher training’, this was first labelled with a main code ‘teacher training’ and was further supplemented with a sub-code, such as ‘training focus’, ‘number of trainings’, or ‘training duration’. Likewise, when the data extract referred to the concept of ‘institutional constraints’, this was first coded with a main code ‘institutional constraints’ and was further supplemented with a sub-code, such as ‘lack of resources’, ‘large class size’, or ‘time constraints’. The reason for supplementing a main code with a sub-code was that it would help identify the concept clearly and would be very helpful to interpret the findings in detail (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Saldaña, 2013). The code-labelling was done via *analytical coding*, a process in which codes are not taken verbatim from the data text; rather they are developed by the researcher by applying their analytical and critical skills (Gibbs, 2007). The coding was mainly done via an inductive process. Hence, the codes were mainly data-driven (Dörnyei, 2007). However, in one respect, the coding may be regarded as deductive (Dörnyei, 2007), as its main purpose was
to identify the themes to address research questions 5 and 6 of the study, i.e.,
to identify teachers’ rationale for using, or deviating from, the recommended
pedagogical principles and the contextual factors that accounted for this
behaviour.

The data extracts were coded inclusively, i.e., the surrounding relevant
data were included in the coded data extract. This helped to identify the correct
meaning of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Some of the data extracts were
double coded (Saldaña, 2013) since they referred to more than one
concept/theme. MAXQDA, a computer assisted qualitative data analysis
software package, was used for coding. A list of the codes and sub-codes and the
themes that emerged out of the interview data is given in Appendix 4.10, and
the codebook to analyse the interview data is given in Appendix 4.11. Further,
an important step in the coding process was to ensure the inter-coder reliability
of the interview data. How this was carried out is explained below.

a. Inter-coder reliability of the interview data

An inter-coder reliability check is defined as a measure of the extent to which
two or more coders code the same dataset the same way (Mackey & Gass, 2005).
It involves asking ‘someone to look at a portion of the data and recode it using
the list of codes already developed as well as possibly introducing new ones’
(Dörnyei, 2007, p. 251). The inter-coder reliability check of 25% of the data
(three out of 12 interviews) was carried out with the help of two external coders
(Coder 2 and Coder 3). One of them (Coder 2) was a very experienced researcher
(Dr Nigel Harwood, my supervisor), having around 20 years’ experience in
qualitative research. He agreed to crosscheck the coding of one interview. The
other coder (Coder 3) was a fellow Ph.D. student who agreed to code two
interviews. The reason for engaging two external coders was that it would have
been time consuming for one coder to code the three interviews, as each
interview consisted of 15-25 A4 size pages of text. Second, had the same dataset
(one interview) been given to the two coders, this would have reduced the inter-
coder reliability check percentage to only 8% of the data, which is regarded as
insufficient. Mackey and Gass (2005) warn that the inter-coder reliability check
in any case should not be less than 10% of the data. They further explain that
25% of the data may be regarded as a good score to establish confidence in the inter-coder reliability check. Therefore, an inter-coder reliability check of 25% of the data was carried out. For the inter-coder reliability check, the data (interviews) were coded in Microsoft Word files and the codes were written in Microsoft Word’s comment boxes. Since the two external coders were given different datasets (interviews) for the inter-coder reliability check, the outcome of my inter-coder reliability check with each of them is explained separately below. First I explain the inter-coder reliability check with Coder 2.

Coder 2 (Dr Nigel Harwood, my supervisor), who is an experienced qualitative researcher, indicated the following points when crosschecking the coding of one interview:

i. At eight points in the data, he suggested the use of double-coding and also labelled the data extracts independently using the codes he deemed appropriate.

ii. At two points, he disagreed with the code I had used and labelled the data extracts independently using the codes he deemed appropriate.

iii. At six points, where I had not coded the data extracts, he coded them independently.

I now explain each of these points with the help of examples below.

At four points in the data, I (Coder 1) used the code ‘exam-oriented pedagogy’ and the sub-code ‘materials adaptation in line with the exam pattern’. Coder 2 suggested the use of double-coding and coded the same data extracts using the codes ‘textbook adaptation’ and ‘textbook use’. To exemplify, data excerpts are given in Figures 4.25 and 4.26 below. The Microsoft Word comment boxes in pink show the coding done by me (Coder 1), where the first line (exam-oriented pedagogy) represents the code and the second line (materials adaptation in line with the exam pattern) represents the sub-code. Coder 2’s comments can be seen in the purple and blue boxes, where he suggested the use of double-coding and also coded the data extract as ‘textbook adaptation’ and ‘textbook use’. Later, when engaged in face-to-face discussion, we agreed to use the double-coding as well as to merge the two codes ‘textbook adaptation’ and
'textbook use' into one code 'textbook adaptation/use', since they referred to a similar process.

RESP: Yeah, there was no need. I told you that these were not concerned with examination. So that is why I skipped them.

INT: Are you free to make adaptations in that book or you are bound to follow that book as it is?

Figure 4.25: Inter-coder reliability check between Coder 1 and Coder 2

Likewise, at three points, Coder 2 suggested the use of the code 'beliefs about textbook use'. To exemplify, excerpts are given in Figures 4.27 and 4.28 below. The pink boxes show the codes I used, whereas the blue boxes represent the codes suggested by Coder 2. Later, in face-to-face discussion, we agreed to include this code in the code list.

Figure 4.26: Inter-coder reliability check between Coder 1 and Coder 2

INT: Materials supplementation... Materials supplementation...you can say that the guide books for examination preparation and notes for the examination preparation. These supplementary things. They are added with the textbook. Otherwise, we don't need any other thing.

Figure 4.27: Inter-coder reliability check between Coder 1 and Coder 2

RESP: Lesson planning. I have already told you that there is no written lesson.

Figure 4.28: Inter-coder reliability check between Coder 1 and Coder 2
Further, at two points, Coder 2 suggested the use of the code ‘exam-oriented pedagogy’, whereas I had coded the data extracts using sub-codes only: ‘focus on marks in exams’ and ‘focus on memorisation’. Later, when engaged in face-to-face discussion, I explained to Coder 2 that these were my sub-codes under the main code ‘exam-oriented pedagogy’. Hence, when I coded the other interviews later, I consistently labelled the data extracts using both codes and sub-codes. In addition, at six other points where I missed to code the data text, Coder 2 coded the data extracts independently. The names of the codes and the number of times they were coded by Coder 2 are given in Table 4.8 below. I agreed with this coding of the data text by Coder 2.

Table 4.8: Codes used by the Coder 2 and their frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Coding frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inductive pedagogy</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints - Learners’ low proficiency in English</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints – Classroom discipline</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Urdu as a medium of instruction (MOI)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference between beliefs and practices about the use of Urdu as a MOI</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having done the inter-coder reliability check with Coder 2, I coded two more interviews and then again checked the inter-coder reliability with a third coder (Coder 3) who coded the same dataset (two interviews) independently. The inter-coder reliability agreement between Coder 1 and Coder 3 was calculated via NVivo 12. The individual agreement percentage between Coder 1 and Coder 3 for different codes for interview 2 and 3 separately as well the total agreement percentage for all the codes are given in Table 4.9 below. The total inter-coder reliability agreement was 98.62%, which was a very high score. This high inter-coder agreement score may be ascribed to the following reasons:

i. The codes had already been refined after getting them crosschecked by Coder 2 (Dr Nigel Harwood, the experienced qualitative researcher).

ii. The coding mainly involved ‘manifest level analysis’, which is referred to as interpreting the surface meaning of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Dörnyei, 2007; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). The interview data did not undergo any ‘latent level analysis’ (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Dörnyei, 2007;
Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005), a more complex procedure and one which would have likely led to less reliability and consistency among raters.

Having achieved a high inter-coder agreement percentage, no further changes were deemed necessary to the codes or codebook. The minor coding disagreements were resolved in face-to-face discussion. Hence, having developed an agreed framework of codes, the coding of the interview data (12 interviews) was done using MAXQDA.

Table 4.9: Inter-coder reliability agreement between Coder 1 and Coder 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Agreement % for Interview 2</th>
<th>Agreement % for Interview 3</th>
<th>Total agreement %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Beliefs about teaching methodology</td>
<td>96.91</td>
<td>97.35</td>
<td>97.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Beliefs about textbook use</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Constraints associated with the learners</td>
<td>97.39</td>
<td>97.79</td>
<td>97.59</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Constraints associated with the teachers</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>99.99</td>
<td>99.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Educational qualification</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>99.99</td>
<td>99.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Examination Constraints</td>
<td>98.68</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>99.34</td>
</tr>
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<td>Exam-oriented pedagogy</td>
<td>97.04</td>
<td>99.04</td>
<td>98.04</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Institutional constraints</td>
<td>96.57</td>
<td>99.48</td>
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<td>Learners' practices</td>
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<td>98.24</td>
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<td>Lesson plan</td>
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<td>99.78</td>
<td>99.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>No knowledge of the macro-level policy documents</td>
<td>99.98</td>
<td>99.99</td>
<td>99.94</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Social constraints</td>
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<td>Teacher training</td>
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<td>99.53</td>
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<td>99.99</td>
<td>99.99</td>
</tr>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Textbook use</td>
<td>94.29</td>
<td>88.57</td>
<td>91.43</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Use of teaching methodology</td>
<td>95.15</td>
<td>99.77</td>
<td>97.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Use of Urdu as a medium of instruction</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total agreement % for all codes</td>
<td>98.47</td>
<td>98.79</td>
<td>98.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

iii. Developing themes out of codes

Having done the coding, the next step was searching for patterns in the coded data and identifying the themes emerging out of them. Braun and Clarke (2006,
p. 82) explain that a ‘theme captures something important about the data in relation to the [research] question and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the dataset’ (italics in original). The themes to be identified in the interview data were teachers’ rationale for the pedagogical principles they employed or resisted in their lessons and the contextual factors that accounted for this behaviour. The following broader themes were identified in the interview data:

- Educational qualifications
- TEFL experience
- Teacher training
- Teachers’ pedagogical practices
- Teachers’ pedagogical beliefs
- Constraints
- No knowledge of the macro-level policy documents
- Learners’ practices

**iv. Interpreting the data and drawing conclusions**

Based on the ‘manifest level analysis’ (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Dörnyei, 2007; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) the interview data was interpreted. The findings of the thematic analysis of the interview data revealed teachers’ rationale for using, or deviating from, the recommended pedagogical principles and the contextual factors that accounted for this behaviour. The complete descriptive and analytical accounts of the findings of the interview data are given in Chapter 7 below.

**4.8.4 Interview data validity**

Another important aspect of the interview data is its validity, especially when an interview concerns complex phenomena, such as respondents’ feelings, beliefs, and experiences, as there is no perfect method to identify the element of truthfulness of such complex phenomena. In this regard, Denscombe (2017) suggests using triangulation a worthwhile strategy. For this purpose, Denscombe (2017) proposes some practical steps that include cross-verifying the interview data with the data obtained through other methods, such as
observations, documents, and other interviews. I employed all these data collection methods in this study. I conducted classroom observations to explore teachers’ pedagogical practices in their lessons, which served as a tool to authenticate what teachers told me about their pedagogical practices in their interviews. Likewise, I analysed various documents—both the national curriculum and textbooks—which also proved helpful in cross-verifying teachers’ pedagogical practices they reported in the interviews. Hence, concerns about threats to the interview validity were addressed.

The above sections (4.1 to 4.8) provide comprehensive information about the study’s research design, methodological procedures and frameworks, and data collection and analysis methods. Now I present information about some other important methodological aspects, such as the context of the study, participants, limitations of the study, ethical considerations, and the criteria to judge the credibility of the study.

4.9 Context

In this section, I provide information about three aspects that are related to the context of the study: (i) geographical context, (ii) why secondary level (grade 9-10) is chosen for the study, and (iii) why materials/textbooks are included in the study when the primary focus of the study is on pedagogy in policy and pedagogy in practice. I discuss all these points in turn.

4.9.1 Geographical context of the study

The study was conducted in one province, the Punjab, which is the largest province in Pakistan, having a population of approximately 105 million that makes up approximately 53% of the total population (200 million) of Pakistan (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2017). The Punjab consists of a total of nine sub-units called divisions. From an educational perspective, the Punjab is divided into three regions: South, North, and Central Punjab. The distribution of the nine divisions into three educational regions is given in Table 4.10 below.
The present study was conducted in the Bahawalpur region, which is one of the divisions in the South Punjab and consists of a population of approximately 11 million people (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2017). The reason for selecting only one region (Bahawalpur) was the predominantly qualitative nature of the study. Qualitative research emphasises examining a specific phenomenon in detail, and therefore suggests to keep the study focused on a specific context, involving a limited number of participants (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). However, though qualitative in nature and encompassing a specific aspect—pedagogy—the study has broader significance as well. At a broader level, the study involves the analysis of the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006) which is a national level policy document and is implemented across the country. Likewise, the study involves the analysis of the state-mandated ELT textbooks that are used across the province (Punjab) for the teaching of English in both government and private schools. Hence, 2/3 of the study—the analysis of the national curriculum and ELT textbooks—has considerable national and provincial level implications.

Furthermore, given time, logistics, and financial constraints, it was impossible to expand the evaluation of teachers’ pedagogical practices, effected by means of both classroom observations and interviews, to more than one geographical region. Therefore, only one region (Bahawalpur) was selected for the present study. Some more points justifying my choice of Bahawalpur are explained below:

i. I am a native of Bahawalpur, and from a logistics perspective, doing field work for data collection in and around my own city was comparatively easier for me. Therefore, I preferred to conduct this study in the Bahawalpur region.
ii. The data collected from the Bahawalpur region is as representative as the data collected from any other region in the province of Punjab, because from an educational viewpoint Bahawalpur is no different from any of the nine divisions in the Punjab. Hence, the selection of the Bahawalpur region for the field work (exploring teachers’ pedagogical practices) in no way affected the authenticity and credibility of the data.

iii. The study involved collecting data from both urban and rural government schools in order to make the data more representative and valid, and Bahawalpur is a region that includes both urban and rural populations.

Now I explain why I specifically chose the secondary level for the present study.

4.9.2 Why Secondary level (grade 9-10)?

The reason for choosing secondary level (grade 9-10) for the present study was that at these levels the same state-mandated curriculum and textbooks are used to teach the courses of English as a second language in all different systems of education—government Urdu medium schools, non-elite private English medium schools, and elite private English medium schools—across the province. Similarly, at these levels (grade 9-10), the students are assessed on the basis of a similar assessment pattern that is based on the same state-mandated curriculum and textbooks (Haidar, 2019; Shah, 2012). Hence, almost 97% of the total number of students (approximately 3.3 million) studying at secondary level in all different systems of education in the country study the same state-mandated curriculum, and approximately 2.1 million students studying at secondary level in all different systems of education in the province of Punjab study the same state-mandated textbooks, and are also assessed on the basis of a similar assessment pattern (Ministry of Federal Education and Professional Training, 2016). The only exception, in this regard, are those 3% students who study in elite private English medium schools and take O Levels under the Cambridge system of education.

In contrast, there is a lot of diversity at primary (grade 1-5) and middle (grade 6-8) levels in terms of different systems of education—government Urdu medium schools, non-elite private English medium schools, and elite private English medium schools. Further, even within the private sector schools there
is a vast variety of school systems. Each one of them has its own syllabus, different textbooks published by different publishers, and different examination patterns. Hence, it was not possible to evaluate the use of pedagogical practices with reference to so many different curricula, textbooks, and assessment patterns in a single study.

Additionally, being an insider (a person who is a Pakistani national, and has not only studied in Pakistan from primary to M.Phil. levels but also has 14 years’ experience of teaching at school, college, and university levels, and has also remained a member of various educational bodies in Pakistan), I can confidently inform the reader that secondary level (grade 9-10) is of crucial importance in a student’s life in Pakistan. It is regarded as a turning point in students’ educational careers. Their marks and learning in grades 9-10 determine their future in terms of their choice of field of study for higher education and for their professional career. Moreover, the students’ marks in grades 9-10 are usually considered as a reflection of their learning in their previous grades (1-8), as after being assessed by different institutions on the basis of different assessment patterns in their previous education (grades 1-8) they are assessed on the basis of a uniform assessment system at secondary level (grade 9-10) all over the province. Further, their examinations are conducted by the Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education (BISE), which are the government bodies responsible for conducting the exams, setting the examination papers, and marking them on the basis of a uniform assessment pattern all over the province.

Another reason for choosing secondary level was the government’s inconsistent English language education policies for primary and middle levels. Different governments have kept changing their policies regarding the teaching of English as a subject or as a medium of instruction (MOI) at primary and middle levels. For example, English was taught as a compulsory subject in schools from primary level onwards from 1947 to 1978. But in the National Education Policy (NEP) 1978-1988, the teaching of English as a compulsory subject at primary level (grade 1-5) was abolished. Hence, during this period English was not taught at primary level. But in the NEP 1988-1999, this decision was reversed and the teaching of English as a subject at primary level was
reinstated (Mahboob, 2002; Rahman, 2004). On the other hand, English has always been taught as a compulsory subject and a second/foreign language at secondary level since the emergence of Pakistan in 1947, as secondary level is of huge importance in the educational career of a student in Pakistan.

Likewise, the policy regarding the use of English as a MOI has also been inconsistent over the years. In the NEP 1948-1959, Urdu was recommended to be used as a MOI for primary level, and English as a MOI from grade 6 onwards (Rahman, 2005b). Whereas in the NEP 1959-1972, two major indigenous languages—Urdu and Bengali—were recommended to be used as a MOI at school level (grade 1 to 10) and English as a MOI in higher education (Mahboob, 2002). Then, in the NEP 1978-1988, the strict *Urdu only* policy was implemented and both government and private schools were advised to use Urdu as a MOI (Rahman, 2004). The NEP 1998-2010 does not say anything about the language-in-education policy (Mahboob, 2002). And now the latest NEP 2009 (Ministry of Education, 2009) recommends the use of English as a MOI at primary level not only for teaching English but also for sciences and mathematics. However, there remain tensions and inconsistencies at the heart of these policies, as at one point the NEP 2009 recommends the use of English as a MOI specially to teach the subjects of mathematics and sciences in addition to English itself, but then the very next point contradicts the previous one by allowing the use of either English or Urdu or any other regional language for the next five years. In this regard, the policy actions 4-8, section 3.5 of the National Education Policy are presented below:

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. (Ministry of Education, 2009, p. 28)

Hence, there has not been any consistency in government policies regarding the teaching of English and using it as a MOI especially at primary and middle levels,
which reveals that these junior levels are not given that much importance as is the case with the secondary level education in Pakistan.

Another reason for choosing secondary level for the present study was that the British Council of Pakistan in collaboration with the Government of the Punjab has already been conducting a project named *Punjab Education and English Language Initiative (PEELI)* at primary (grade 1-5) and middle (6-8) levels (British Council, 2013). The PEELI project primarily aims at evaluating the English language proficiency of the teachers teaching at primary and middle levels in both government and private schools in the Punjab, and subsequently improving their English language skills. Nonetheless, one of its secondary aims is to improve teachers’ pedagogical skills also. The project was started in 2013 and is still going on. In the first phase of the project, 2008 English language teachers’ English language proficiency was tested by using the British Council’s APTIS language testing system. The first report of the PEELI project (British Council, 2013, p. 1) reveals that ‘62% of private school teachers and 56% of government school teachers ... lack even basic knowledge of English, including the ability to understand and use familiar everyday expressions and simple phrases’. Most of the remaining teachers possess beginner’s level proficiency in English. The report also states that the teachers in Punjab are not only ‘ill-equipped to deliver the new English medium policy, but they also [have] deficiencies in overall teaching quality’ (British Council, 2013, p. 1). However, no such in-depth evaluation study investigating the teachers’ English language proficiency or their pedagogical skills has been conducted at secondary level so far. Therefore, the present study focuses on the secondary level.

Having discussed the rationale for choosing the secondary level, now I explain why textbook analysis was included as an integral part in the study.

**4.9.3 Why is textbook analysis a part of the study?**

English language teaching and learning in Pakistan is primarily based on the prescribed textbooks from primary (grade 1) to bachelor (grade 14) levels. The textbooks not only provide the content and a basic plan for day-to-day teaching and learning but learners’ assessment is also carried out with reference to the prescribed textbooks, and the examination papers are also based on the contents
provided in the textbooks. Further, as the teachers lack professional training and skills, the textbooks play a pivotal role in determining teachers’ pedagogical practices and learners’ outlook toward the learning process. This reality is accepted in the government’s official documents as well. For example, one of the official documents, ‘Quality Textbooks and Learning Materials’ (Punjab Curriculum and Textbook Board, 2014) says:

The first thing the students get in hand when they enter a school in Pakistan is a textbook. Most of their future academic life will be focused on textbooks with a high probability of experiencing a single textbook for each subject. (p. 1)

Students rely heavily on textbooks as their source for essential information and as the basis for examination and appraisal. In the absence of other learning materials, the importance of textbooks increases manifold. They provide the students with facts and knowledge and additionally provide examples of several exercises and assignments for students to practice what they have learnt. (p. 4)

Textbooks serve as the main resource for teachers by steering their teaching process and helping them in planning the lesson and lesson objectives. Textbooks are the source of assistance to underqualified and undertrained teachers as they set out the general guidelines of the syllabus in concrete form and provide a guide and foundation to the content. Teachers find it particularly useful as they provide order and pacing of instruction and serve as a framework for teaching throughout the year. (p. 4)

Hence, it was very important to include the textbook analysis as an integral part in this study. Any sort of evaluation of the pedagogical policy and practice in Pakistan will remain incomplete if textbooks are excluded from it. Now I provide information about the participants.

4.10 Participants

English language teachers (N=12) teaching secondary level (grade 9-10) English language courses in government schools in the Bahawalpur region participated in the study. The teachers’ selection was carried out by employing a purposive sampling method. ‘The main goal of [purposive] sampling is to find individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximise what we can learn.’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 126). The purposive sample consisted of 12 secondary-level-government-school English language teachers with varying degrees of teaching experience (1-35 years) who agreed to lesson observations and subsequent interviews. Six teachers were selected from urban area schools and the other six from rural area schools. The participants’ demographic details, such as their educational qualifications and
TEFL experience, are given in Table 4.1 below. It is important to mention here that both male and female teachers were invited to participate in the study. However, because of socio-cultural and religious reasons, observing female teachers’ lessons in the girls’ schools was not allowed by the administration, which resulted in the inclusion of only male English language teachers in the study.

Table 4.1: Teachers’ profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Education Qualifications</th>
<th>TEFL Experience (Years)</th>
<th>Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>M.A. English, Diploma in TEFL, B.Ed.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>M.Phil. English, M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>M.A. English, M.Ed., B.Ed.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
<td>M.A. English, M.A. TEFL, M.Ed., B.Ed.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T6</td>
<td>M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T7</td>
<td>M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T8</td>
<td>M.Phil. Islamic Studies, M.A. Islamic Studies, M.Ed., B.Ed.</td>
<td>3 English, 7 General</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T9</td>
<td>M.A. Islamic Studies, M.A. Economics, B.Ed.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T10</td>
<td>M.A. Pakistan Studies, B.Ed.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T11</td>
<td>M.A. English, M.A. Education, B.Ed.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T12</td>
<td>M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.11 Ethical considerations

A very important aspect of research is to address ethical concerns that might arise at any stage of the research. These concerns were duly addressed. It is worth mentioning that I successfully completed (securing a score of 91%) a research ethics course that is mandatory for every Ph.D. student enrolled at the University of Sheffield. This course developed my understanding of ethical concerns for researchers. Further, I obtained ethics approval from the University of Sheffield Human Participants Ethics Review Committee for my project prior to my data collection. The research ethics approval letter is included in Appendix 4.12.
For data collection, I first contacted the schools’ head-teachers and explained to them the purpose and background of the study. I explained the purpose and context of the study, data collection procedure, and rights of the participants, and sought their permission to contact the potential participants (teachers). Similarly to the head-teachers, I briefed the potential participants both verbally and via participant information sheet and consent forms about the purpose and background of the study, the data collection process (involving classroom observations and post-observation interviews), the process of ensuring the participants’ confidentiality and anonymity, and their rights. The teachers who agreed to participate in the study and their head-teachers were asked to give consent in writing. Further, as the study involved classroom observations, a similar process of explaining all information about the study, the data collection process, and the participants’ rights was followed for students also and their consent to participate in the study was obtained. However, as most of the students were below 16, their parents’ consent was also obtained by sending them the participant information sheet in which they were clearly informed that they may withdraw their child if they did not want him to participate in the study. For detailed information about how participants’ rights, including their integrity and the confidentiality and anonymity of the data obtained from them were ensured, see participant information sheet and consent forms given in Appendices 4.13 and 4.14.

4.12 Limitations of the study

Just like any other research study, this study also includes some limitations which are as follows:

i. The study was conducted at only secondary level (grade 9-10) in the government schools in the Punjab. The rationale for limiting the study to secondary level government schools only is discussed in detail in Section 4.9.2 above.

ii. The study was conducted in the Bahawalpur region only. The reasons for limiting the study to the Bahawalpur region only is discussed in detail in Section 4.9.1 above.
 iii. The third limitation of the study is the limited number of participants, which is however unsurprising in view of the predominantly qualitative nature of the study. This point is already discussed in detail at various places in this chapter above.

4.13 Judging the credibility of the study

A very important aspect of a research project is its credibility. In quantitative research, credibility is assessed via validity and reliability. These criteria are used in qualitative research also; however, their terms of reference are somewhat different. For example, validity in qualitative research refers to how accurate the findings are ‘from the standpoint of the researcher, the participants, and [the] readers’ (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 199). Some other researchers (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Guba & Lincoln, 1994 cited in Bryman, 2016) do not even use these terms and offer other alternate concepts, such as trustworthiness, to assess the credibility of a qualitative study. In this regard, Bryman (2016, p. 384) explains:

Trustworthiness is made up of four criteria, each of which has an equivalent in quantitative research:

1. **credibility**, which parallels internal validity;
2. **transferability**, which parallels external validity;
3. **dependability**, which parallels reliability;
4. **confirmability**, which parallels objectivity.

I explain below how I met these criteria in this study.

Credibility refers to the truth value/internal validity of a study. Since a social reality/phenomenon may have many possible interpretations, the credibility of the researcher’s interpretation of the reality ‘determines its acceptability to others’ (Bryman, 2016, p. 384). The three techniques to ensure the credibility of a study are triangulation, respondent validation, and prolonged engagement in the data collection process (Bryman, 2016; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Miller, 2000). I fulfilled all these requirements. I triangulated classroom observations and post-observation interviews to explore teachers’ pedagogical practices in their English language classrooms. The interviews served the purpose of respondent validation, since through them I followed up with the teachers to inquire into their rationale for their use/non-use of the
pedagogical practices I observed in their lessons. None of the 12 teachers either disagreed with, or objected to, any of the questions I asked with reference to their pedagogical practices. Hence the teachers appeared to accept my analysis of their classroom observation data and the inferences I drew about their use of pedagogical practices. It should also be borne in mind that, rather than relying wholly on reported behaviour (e.g., by relying on teachers’ interview narratives), I spent time observing each teacher’s actual behaviour in class, thereby strengthening the methodological rigour of the research design. Additionally, I spent a considerable length of time (three months) to collect data via 36 lesson observations of 12 teachers in 12 different schools (both urban and rural) and holding post-observation interviews with the teachers. All this involved my intensive engagement at the research site and with the data and developed my in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. All these features ensure the credibility of the findings.

Transferability corresponds to external validity and generalisability in quantitative research. A limitation often identified in qualitative research is the lack of generalisability of its findings since it often involves intensive exploration of a perspective with a limited number of participants (Mackey & Gass, 2005). However, this is not altogether the case with this study. The study has broader national and provincial level implications. It involves the analysis of the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006) which is a national level policy document and is implemented across the country. Likewise, the study involves the analysis of the state-mandated ELT textbooks that are used across the province (Punjab) for the teaching of English in both government and private schools. These two features enhance the generalisability of the findings. Further, transferability requires the researcher to provide a rich, thick description of ‘the setting, the participants, and the themes of a qualitative study’ (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 128) so that ‘the results become more realistic and richer’ (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 200) and the reader may be able to decide whether the findings are transferrable to other social contexts (Bryman, 2016). I have given rich details of the context of the study (see Section 4.9 above), the participants (Section 4.10 above), and have also explained the findings in detail (see Chapter 5, 6, and 7 below).
Dependability corresponds to reliability in quantitative research. In qualitative research, it is ensured by keeping an audit trail of every step and decision involved in the data collection and analysis procedures so that the reader may not have any doubt or ambiguity about the outcomes of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 cited in Bryman, 2016). Peer-checking is often recommended as a strategy to ensure reliability in qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). I have elaborated each and every step of the data collection and analysis procedures, including methodological frameworks for analyses, coding and theming of the data, and inter- and intra-coder reliability checks. Wherever necessary, figures are added to exemplify the intra-coder reliability checks (see Sections 4.5.1, 4.7.5, and 4.8.3 above). Additionally, for audit, a long trial of appendices, explaining each and every aspect of data collection and analysis, is attached at the end of the thesis.

Confirmability in qualitative research stands analogous to objectivity and replicability in quantitative research. This is ensured by revealing the data upon which the interpretations are made available to the reader. It also involves providing detailed accounts of the data analysis process, including the coding process and changes made to the codes as a consequence of inter-coder and/or intra-coder reliability checks. These revelations enable the reader to ‘confirm, reject or modify the original interpretations’ (Brown, 2004, p. 494). I fulfil all these requirements. I have quoted the relevant data extracts when presenting the findings to verify my interpretations of the data (see Chapter 5, 6, and 7 below). I have given detailed accounts of the analysis procedures, including inter-coder and intra-coder reliability checks when presenting the data analysis procedures of the national curriculum (Section 4.5.1), classroom observations (Sections 4.7.3 and 4.7.5), and interviews (Section 4.8.3). All these aspects ensure the confirmability and objectivity of the findings.

Having explained the research methodology, I move on to the findings and begin with the findings of the analysis of the national curriculum.
Chapter Five

Findings of the Analysis of the National Curriculum for English Language

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings of the analysis of the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006), which reveal the macro-level pedagogical policy for English language education (ELE) in Pakistan. Hence, this chapter addresses research question 1 given below:

RQ 1: What pedagogical practices does the national curriculum for English language stipulate for the teaching of English in Pakistan?

The findings of the analysis of the national curriculum are given below in the following order. First, I present a brief introduction to the national curriculum. This is followed by the findings of the analysis of the four sections (Introduction, Teaching Methodology, Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and Teacher Training) of the national curriculum. Then, I present findings of the analysis of the Course Contents section of the national curriculum and corroborate these findings with the findings of the four sections listed above. Lastly, I conclude the chapter.

5.2 A brief introduction to the national curriculum

The National Curriculum for English Language - 2006 is the main macro-level policy document regarding ELE in Pakistan. Its significance lies in the fact that it is the only document that reveals the government’s pedagogical policy for ELE and serves ‘as a point of reference for all involved in the process of teaching and learning of English’ in Pakistan (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 1). It is a detailed document, consisting of several sections. The three sections of the national curriculum that are closely linked to this study are: (i) Teaching Methodology, (ii) Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and (iii) Course Contents.
The Teaching Methodology and Guidelines for Textbook Writers sections are very important because they provide guidelines to English language teachers and textbook writers about the use of pedagogical practices in their respective domains. Likewise, the Course Contents section is also very important, since it provides information about all those aspects—the four language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening), subskills (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary), and the further extensions of those skills (such as essay-writing, summary-writing, oral-presentations, etc.)—that are required to be taught to learners in their secondary level (grade 9-10) English language courses. In addition, it conveys to teachers the learning processes they are required to involve learners in when teaching them English. Hence, carrying out a detailed analysis of the national curriculum is imperative to see what pedagogical principles and practices it endorses to implementers (especially teachers and textbook writers) to carry out ELE at secondary level (grade 9-10) in Pakistan.

The analysis of the national curriculum was carried out in the following order. First, the four sections, namely Introduction, Teaching Methodology, Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and Teacher Training were analysed. This was followed by the analysis of the Course Contents section. I follow the same order to present the findings.

5.3 Findings of the four sections (Introduction, Teaching Methodology, Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and Teacher Training)

The analysis of the four sections of the national curriculum surfaces 15 pedagogical principles that appear recurrently in the national curriculum and emerge as the recommended pedagogical principles for the teaching of English. Now I explain in detail what these principles are and what English language teachers and textbook writers are required to do to implement these principles in English language classrooms and ELT textbooks. The order in which I present

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20 It is important to mention here that there are 14 rather than 15 sections which follow. This is because below I tackle two pedagogical principles—materials adaptation and supplementation—together because of their close association with each other (see Section 5.3.4 below).
the pedagogical principles below is in line with their level of significance based on their frequency of occurrence in the national curriculum.

5.3.1 Use of the communicative approach

The national curriculum discourages the use of a teacher-centred method of instruction; it rather suggests teachers adopt a communicative, learner-centred language teaching approach. It encourages teachers to engage learners in purposeful tasks and activities which involve them in the learning process, making them work together to arrive at solutions and putting responsibility on them for their learning. Further, the communicative activities provide learners opportunities to interact with each other, generate student-talk-time in the class, and help them develop their language skills:

Language learning will be effective if the teacher does less of the talking in class and puts the learners in a communicative situation where they are provided with a purpose to speak, read, write or listen. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 9)

To achieve these aims, the national curriculum recommends using a variety of learner-centred activities, such as individual, pair, and group work:

Activities should be so devised and conducted that students have an opportunity for individual work as well as pair work and group work. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 150)

According to the national curriculum, the use of learner-centred activities may be a better method for providing input to learners about various aspects of language, such as grammar, vocabulary, etc., and developing their knowledge of these linguistic features:

Input: Input about different aspects of language such as grammar can be interspersed with tasks and activities to develop students’ ability to use language skills in real-life situations. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 152)

In this regard, the national curriculum suggests various methods, such as oral presentations, group discussions and role-plays, that may be used as learner-centred activities to put responsibility on learners for their learning and involve them in the learning process:

Presentations: Oral presentation on group and individual tasks and projects help shift the focus from teacher talk to the learners’ active participation in classroom discourse. This also helps develop confidence and enhances listening and speaking skills. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 152)
Discussion: A unique form of group interaction that helps students develop their listening and speaking skills through exploring a diversity of views and investigating assumptions in the light of different perspectives. Discussion can also be helpful in developing reading and writing skills such as enhancing comprehension of complex ideas in reading texts and generating ideas for writing argumentative essays. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 152)

5.3.2 Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge

Although the national curriculum emphasises the need to develop both, it gives priority to developing learners’ English language skills over developing their English language knowledge. It clearly states that the main purpose of ELE is to develop learners’ English language skills and enable them to use English to perform various academic and social tasks. It emphasises that even when efforts are made to develop learners’ English language knowledge, the ultimate aim should be to develop learners’ English language skills and make them proficient users of English. The following exemplary excerpt from the national curriculum endorses this idea:

To summarise, the curriculum places greater emphasis on the understanding and use of the English language in different academic and social contexts than on acquiring knowledge about the language for its own sake. Such an approach acknowledges, on one hand, the importance of teaching the knowledge about the language system; on the other, it moves a step forward to emphasise the appropriate use of that knowledge so that students’ ability to communicate in real life situations is improved and made effective for various purposes. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 2)

This is why the national curriculum repeatedly stresses the need to improve learners’ reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills. Many instances from the national curriculum may be quoted in this regard. Some are as follows:

It is important to develop students’ oral skills of listening and speaking throughout. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 150)

Reading is the first visual process that needs to be connected to an oral and aural experience. Reading instructions must take into consideration the general academic developmental needs of students as well as their individual abilities. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 151)

Writing abilities are mainly acquired by practice and frequent writing. Writing is a complex process interwoven with thinking as it allows writers to explore thoughts and ideas and make them visible and concrete. The ultimate aim of teaching writing through school years should be to make students fully independent writers. It is important for the teacher to realize that it is not only the final product that is important in teaching writing, but also the process in which learners and teachers collaborate for the benefit, advantage and encouragement of the learners. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 151)
To achieve the aim of developing learners’ English language skills, the national curriculum recommends teachers make learners learn English implicitly by increasing their exposure to English and making less use of explicit instruction methods, as a more explicit approach to instruction may not promote learners’ real-life-like use of English.

5.3.3 Promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes

This principle is the extension of the previous principle of developing learners’ English language skills. This emphasises the need to promote learners’ English language skills to enable them to use English to perform various academic and social tasks:

The new curriculum aims to provide holistic opportunities to the students for language development and to equip them with competencies in using the English language for communication in academic and social contexts... (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 1)

The English language holds a dominant status in the linguistic landscape of Pakistan. It plays a key role in determining people’s social, educational, and economic status. Having proficiency in English is one of the prerequisites to climb the ladder of success in Pakistan (Rahman, 2005b, 2010). Therefore, realising the significance of English, the national curriculum stresses the need to provide maximum opportunities for learners’ real-life-like use of English in both spoken and written form. This will help learners capitalise on the benefits of having proficiency in English and achieve success in their academic, professional, and practical life.

5.3.4 Materials adaptation and supplementation

The national curriculum states that the textbook is neither the only resource for teaching nor it should be the ultimate resource for assessing learners’ learning and progress. The textbook is rather intended to serve as a contributory resource to help teachers carry out everyday teaching in class:

It is to be noted that textbook will not be the only resource used for assessment. In fact, a textbook will be a contributing resource for acquisition of the SLOs [students’ learning objectives] given in this document. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 160)
The national curriculum urges teachers to be active practitioners and grants them autonomy to adapt the textbook and supplement it with additional instructional materials, keeping in view the demand of the situation and learners’ needs. Through these two principles—materials adaptation and supplementation—the national curriculum makes it clear to teachers that their main role and responsibility are not just to cover the textbook content; rather they should ensure they achieve the stated learning objectives and make learners proficient users of English. For instance, when explaining how instructional materials may be used to teach reading skills, the national curriculum states that ‘the aim should be to use text to teach reading, and not reading to teach texts’ (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 7). To accomplish this, teachers are encouraged to adapt and supplement materials, as doing so may prove helpful to achieve the learning outcomes more effectively. In this regard, an illustrative excerpt from the national curriculum is as follows:

Along with the printed materials, i.e., prescribed textbooks and teachers’ guides, the teachers are encouraged to use the following:

1. Encyclopaedias, source books, newspapers, journals, magazines etc.
2. Auditory materials such as radio broadcasts and tape recordings.
3. Visual materials such as cue cards, handouts, pictures, maps, charts, posters, overhead projectors, television, computers (audio-visual), etc.

(Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 152)

The national curriculum also recommends that materials adaptation and supplementation should be included as important components in teacher-training programmes so that teachers should be made aware of their significance and the ways of carrying them out:

The overall objective of teacher training programs should be to develop critically aware “self-directed”, reflective and analytical teachers who do not merely passively teach a textbook but are willing to adapt and supplement the existing material with their own teaching materials and classroom activities. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 165)

5.3.5 Integrated language teaching

The national curriculum recommends both English language teachers and textbook writers to follow an integrated language teaching approach and pay equal attention to all language skills and subskills. In this regard, some excerpts from the national curriculum are given below:
The teaching strategies ensure that work in speaking, listening, reading and writing is integrated. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 2)

It is, however, important to realize the need of integrated language teaching; if the focus of a lesson is on reading or writing, the oral/aural skills should not at all be neglected. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 150)

5.3.6 Collaborative learning

Collaborative learning refers to the concept of working together to achieve a learning objective. While this principle is closely linked with the use of the communicative approach principle and its underlying rationale is the same—to make the instructional process learner-centred, the national curriculum treats this theme differently, and therefore I also identify this theme as a distinct pedagogical principle. The national curriculum does not restrict the collaborative learning process to learners only; it includes teachers also, and hence presents this theme in its two forms—teacher-learner and learner-learner collaboration:

Students should be gradually introduced to the practice of editing and proofreading their own work. Initially, this should be done in collaboration with teachers; as a next stage, pairs of children might help each other. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 151)

According to the national curriculum, learning is not just about the achievement of a final product; developing an awareness of the learning process is equally important. Both these aims can be achieved by involving learners in collaborative learning processes. Hence, in order to ensure learners get the maximum out of the learning process, the national curriculum suggests teachers develop a collaborative learning environment in the class:

It is important for the teacher to realise that it is not only the final product that is important in teaching writing, but also the process in which learners and teachers collaborate for the benefit, advantage and encouragement of the learners. (Ministry of Education, 2006, 151)

Further, the national curriculum suggests some methods that may be used to promote a collaborative learning process in the class. For instance, it suggests making learners work in small groups to read and write texts collaboratively and to do peer correction to assess each other’s work:

Peer corrections should be encouraged; this is especially a good tool in large classes. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 150)
5.3.7 Promoting learner autonomy

In addition to collaborative learning, the national curriculum stresses the need to provide opportunities for individual work to learners. It suggests teachers are mindful of learners’ differing learning styles, interests and abilities while teaching them and assigning them tasks in the class. These concepts are identified as learner autonomy, which is defined as putting responsibility on learners for their learning and granting them freedom to work in accordance with their preferred learning styles and abilities (Benson, 2011). In many places, we find the national curriculum encouraging teachers to provide independent work opportunities to learners to develop their confidence and help them evolve as life-long learners. For instance, while explaining the process for teaching writing skills, it says:

The ultimate aim of teaching writing through school years should be to make students fully independent writers. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 151)

Likewise, at another point, it says:

The new curriculum aims to provide holistic opportunities to the students for language development and to equip them with competencies in using the English language for communication in academic and social contexts, while enabling them to be autonomous and lifelong learners to better adapt to the ever-changing local and world society, and to knowledge advancement. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 1)

Further, the national curriculum emphasises teachers should employ a variety of teaching strategies that may create a conducive learning environment and help learners learn in line with their preferred learning style and differing interests. Such an environment supposedly develops a sense of autonomy and independence among learners and makes them enjoy the learning process:

A range of instructional strategies should be used to create learning environments and achieve learning objectives, which cater to the differing interests, abilities and learning styles of students in order to make them independent and confident learners. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 152)

5.3.8 Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills

The national curriculum endorses the use of teaching processes and learning activities that develop learners’ higher order cognitive skills, ignite the habit of
critical thinking in them, and promote their creative use of language. For example, it says:

Such activities are to be incorporated at each grade that cater for progressive cognitive development from lower level intellectual skills of simple knowledge and comprehension to higher order skills of analysis, synthesis and evaluation so as to nurture the ability of reasoning, problem solving, critical thinking and creativity. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 3)

5.3.9 Use of inductive pedagogy

The national curriculum puts emphasis on engaging learners in inductive learning processes (problem-solving, self-discovery, and inquiry-based learning) and putting responsibility on them for their learning. It suggests the use of questioning as an effective tool to elicit knowledge and information from learners and make them solve their problems themselves by employing their critical and analytical abilities:

*Inquiry/Investigation:* A process of framing questions, gathering information about language structure and use, analysing texts and drawing conclusions about author’s purpose etc. It encourages students to actively engage with texts and take responsibility for their learning. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 152)

5.3.10 Use of deductive pedagogy

Along with advocating the use of inductive pedagogy, the national curriculum endorses the use of deductive pedagogy also. However, it does not encourage teachers to make excessive use of deductive pedagogy and make the class completely teacher-centred. It rather suggests they use a deductive method of instruction only when necessary; this can be done in the form of providing necessary explanation to learners, providing them some models, and making them learn via practice. For instance, the national curriculum says:

A learner will only be able to meet the student learning outcome specified for his/her level if the skill is first introduced, explained and then reinforced through practice activities. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 3)

5.3.11 Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher

The national curriculum advises teachers to work as facilitators and provide supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners, especially when they face problems in performing tasks independently. For example, while explaining the
process for teaching the reading skill, the national curriculum suggests teachers provide necessary supportive facilitation to learners:

Meaningful and supportive intervention, which makes students feel that they are being helped through their problems in reading, is important. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 151)

Moreover, teachers are advised to not be over-critical, but rather to take learners’ errors an integral part of their learning process:

Mistakes and errors should be taken as a learning opportunity. Teachers should not be over critical and should facilitate students to communicate and learn through activities and tasks which are enjoyable and intellectually stimulating. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 150)

5.3.12 Reviewing learners’ learning and progress

The national curriculum suggests English language teachers assess learners’ learning and progress on a regular basis. It emphasises the need to use activities and exercises to assess learners’ learning and progress. To accomplish this, it suggests textbook writers include sufficient review exercises in the textbook, as review exercises serve as an effective tool to assess learners’ learning and progress and also make the assessment process easier. Moreover, it demands the review exercises to be intellectually stimulating. In this regard, the national curriculum requires textbook writers to review and revise the textbook repeatedly to answer the following questions:

1) Is there a built-in review system?
2) Is the review system sufficient to develop an awareness of what is learnt?
3) Are the review activities effective to recall and check previous learning?
4) Do the review exercises engage students to develop their creativity and engage them in higher order thinking?
5) Is the review system adequate to prepare for terminal tests? (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 164)

5.3.13 Setting and achieving learning objectives

The national curriculum suggests teachers should have clear learning objectives for each lesson and think of different ways to achieve them successfully. In this regard, textbook writers are recommended to set clear learning objectives for each unit and mention them clearly in the textbook. They are also suggested to design such activities as help realise student learning objectives.
5.3.14 Lesson planning

The national curriculum highlights the importance of doing lesson planning. However, it neither sets out any specific guidelines for a written lesson plan nor puts any explicit demand on teachers for a written plan. The two lesson plan features the national curriculum highlights are:

i. Teachers should manage their time to ensure coverage of the whole syllabus. They should have a clear plan for how much time they can spend on each unit and how they can achieve the core learning objectives set in a textbook unit.

ii. They should have a clear idea of what language skills/topics they are to teach; what methodology, activities, and materials they will use; and ensure that they will review learners’ learning and progress.

Teachers should first find out the number of hours they can spend on each unit and the core SLOs of a unit [...] The teacher should have an overview of what each week’s lessons will look like

- based on the language skills, text material/topic
- variety of activities and methodology to be used
- teacher’s supplementary materials
- quizzes or tests to check student progress of the given SLOs.

(Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 150)

Having identified the pedagogical principles recommended in the four sections (Introduction, Teaching Methodology, Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and Teacher Training) of the national curriculum, the next step is to present the findings of the course contents section. This further enriches our knowledge and understanding of the pedagogical principles stipulated in the national curriculum.

5.4 Findings of the Course Contents section

The course contents section performs two main functions, which I define as the what and how functions. First, it provides a detailed account of what English language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) and subskills (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary) are to be taught to learners in their secondary level
(grade 9-10) English language courses. Second, it elaborates on how these skills should be taught to learners.

The first function—what English language skills are to be taught—is set out very clearly. The national curriculum divides the course contents into four parts, which are:

- Reading and thinking skills
- Writing skills
- Oral communication skills
- Lexical and structural aspects

The above-given description of the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical principles (see Section 5.3 above) already draws our attention to the emphasis the national curriculum lays upon the need to teach these English language skills in the secondary level (grade 9-10) English language courses. Hence, given space constraints and to avoid repetition, it is enough to say here that the national curriculum stresses the need to teach these English language skills at secondary level.

The second function—how the above-mentioned skills should be taught to learners—is revealed when we identify performative verbs used in the course contents section of the national curriculum. The reason for identifying and analysing the performative verbs is that they indicate the processes the curriculum designers want learners to be engaged in when studying the English language. This will supposedly enable them to acquire the required English language skills and become independent and life-long learners (Ministry of Education, 2006). To classify the performative verbs in terms of the language teaching and learning principles they entail, Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives (revised version) (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) was used. The rationale for using Bloom’s taxonomy as well as the prompts and processes identified by Krathwohl (2002) and Mishan and Timmis (2015) to classify the performative verbs into different categories (cognitive skills) is presented in detail in the methodology chapter in Section 4.5.2 above. Likewise, the procedure to classify and analyse the performative verbs is also explained in Section 4.5.2 above. Therefore, in order to avoid repetition and conform to space
constraints, I here directly present the findings of the performative verbs used in the course contents section of the national curriculum, beginning with Table 5.1, which reproduces an exhaustive list of the performative verbs found in the course contents section, together with the frequency with which they occur, and their corresponding cognitive skill level ranking according to Bloom’s taxonomy.

Table 5.1: Categorisation of performative verbs in line with Bloom’s six levels of cognitive development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Skill Level</th>
<th>Terms</th>
<th>Reading and Thinking Skills</th>
<th>Writing Skills</th>
<th>Oral Communication Skills</th>
<th>Lexical and Structural Aspects</th>
<th>Total Count</th>
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<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>03</strong></td>
<td><strong>08</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluate</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarify</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draw conclusion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluate</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justify</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respond</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State an opinion</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>07</strong></td>
<td><strong>03</strong></td>
<td><strong>08</strong></td>
<td><strong>00</strong></td>
<td><strong>18</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Create</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliver</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For ease of reference, the six levels of cognitive development were classified into two broader categories (lower level cognitive skills and higher level cognitive skills) and the number of performative verbs for each category was calculated (see Tables 5.2 and 5.3 below).

Table 5.2: Frequency of occurrence of performative verbs with reference to lower and higher level cognitive skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Skill Level</th>
<th>Cognitive Skill</th>
<th>Reading and Thinking Skills</th>
<th>Writing Skills</th>
<th>Oral Communication Skills</th>
<th>Lexical and Structural Aspects</th>
<th>Total Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lower level skills</td>
<td>Remember</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understand</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher level skills</td>
<td>Apply</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluate</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3: Frequency of occurrence of performative verbs with reference to different language skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Skill Level</th>
<th>Reading and Thinking Skills</th>
<th>Writing Skills</th>
<th>Oral Communication Skills</th>
<th>Lexical and Structural Aspects</th>
<th>Total Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lower level skills</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher level skills</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings show that overall 303 performative verbs are used in the course contents section of the national curriculum, which underlines that the curriculum designers want learners to participate actively in the learning process. Likewise, the number of performative verbs used with reference to both lower (N=109) and higher level cognitive skills (N=194) reveals that the national curriculum stresses the need to develop learners’ lower and higher level cognitive skills. Since this is the curriculum for the secondary level (grade 9-10) English language courses, as opposed to the primary level, the greater number of performative verbs representing higher level cognitive skills is quite logical.

Now I interpret the findings of the performative verbs in terms of how much emphasis is put on different language skills with reference to lower and higher level cognitive skills. The findings show that in terms of developing lower level cognitive skills (Remember and Understand) the national curriculum puts more emphasis on reading and thinking skills (N=50) and lexical and structural aspects (N=36), whereas writing skills (N=10) and oral communication skills (N=13) are less emphasised. This seems quite logical, as learners are first required to learn and understand the working of English by applying their thinking skills while reading the texts. During this process, they explore and understand how various lexical and structural aspects are used in English. The three most frequent performative verbs representing the lower level cognitive skills are: identify (N=22), recognise (N=30), and understand (N=08). This clearly shows that the curriculum designers want learners to first identify, recognise, and understand the working of various lexical and structural aspects of the English language and then apply their acquired knowledge to use English in both written and spoken forms.

Likewise, for the higher level cognitive skills (Apply, Analyse, Evaluate, and Create), reading and thinking skills (N=56) and lexical and structural aspects (N=59) are given more importance, and writing skills (N=45) and oral communication skills (N=34) are comparatively less emphasised. However, there appears an increase in the number of performative verbs used for writing and oral communication skills when we move from the lower level cognitive skills to the higher level cognitive skills. This signifies that the curriculum designers emphasise learners’ creative use of English in both spoken and written
form once learners have achieved sufficient mastery over English. For the higher level cognitive skills, there is not much difference between the number of performative verbs for lexical and structural aspects (N=59), reading and thinking skills (N=56) and writing skills (N=45). Likewise, though the number of performative verbs for oral skills (N=34) is relatively less than that of other skills, the skill is not neglected. This shows that with reference to the higher level cognitive skills, the national curriculum emphasises all language skills. The most frequently occurring performative verbs with regard to the higher level cognitive skills are: use (N=65), analyse (26), write (N=09), apply (N=07), express (N=06), and make/form (N=05). This shows that the curriculum designers require learners to use English with reference to all language skills. In sum, the findings of the performative verbs used in the course contents section of the national curriculum foreground two main themes:

1. The national curriculum assigns learners an active role and wants them to participate actively in the learning process. To bring this about, it recommends both teachers and textbook writers take the initiative and put as much responsibility on learners for their learning as possible.

2. Along with focusing on developing learners’ English language skills, the national curriculum puts lots of emphasis on developing learners’ cognitive skills.

Both these themes have recurrently appeared in the other four sections of the national curriculum (Introduction, Teaching Methodology, Guidelines for Textbook Writers, and Teacher Training), and have already been identified as two of the recommended pedagogical principles (see Section 5.3 above). Their repeated occurrence in the course contents section further strengthens their significance in the English language teaching and learning processes recommended by the national curriculum.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter presents the findings of the analysis of the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006) and thus addresses research question 1 given below:
RQ 1: What pedagogical practices does the national curriculum for English language stipulate for the teaching of English in Pakistan?

The findings show that the national curriculum recommends a suite of 15 pedagogical principles (explained in detail above) for the teaching of English in Pakistan. The next step is to explore whether and how these pedagogical principles are presented in the state-mandated ELT textbooks. The findings regarding this are presented in Chapter 6 below.
Chapter Six

Findings of the ELT Textbook Analysis

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the ELT textbook analysis. Four textbook units—two units from the grade 9 and two units from the grade 10 textbook—were analysed, which comprised 16% of the textbooks. The selection of this amount of material for detailed analysis is in line with Littlejohn (2011) and McDonough et al. (2013) who suggest 10-15 per cent of instructional materials or 2-3 chapters from a textbook is sufficient to conduct a comprehensive analysis of the textbook. The analysis mainly consisted of analysing the work plans given in the units to teach various language skills and subskills. Further, analysing the non-linguistic pedagogical aspects given in the textbook units, such as learning objectives, promoting learners’ cognitive skills, and providing supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners, also comprised part of the analysis, because all these were equally relevant to answer research questions 2 and 3 given below:

RQ 2: What pedagogical practices do the secondary level ELT textbooks embody?

RQ 3: To what extent are the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks congruent with the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum?

A detailed description of Ellis’s (2016) framework used to analyse the language skills/subskills work plans, a defence of its suitability to analyse the work plans, and the procedure to analyse the non-linguistic pedagogical aspects is given in Section 4.6 above. Hence, here I directly move on to the findings of the textbook analysis, which are given below in the following order:
1. First, I present two tables (Table 6.1 and 6.2) below. Table 6.1 contains a brief overview of the work plans, indicating skills/subskills they focus on, work plan types, and the number of work plans for each skill/subskill and for each work plan type. The table positions the linguistic skills/subskills in descending order with regard to the number of work plans found in the four textbook units that were selected for analysis. This gives the reader a quick view of which skill/subskill is prioritised in the textbooks and what type of work plans are used for a particular skill/subskill. Table 6.2 contains information about non-linguistic pedagogical aspects, presenting their frequency of occurrence in the four textbook units. In addition, Figure 6.1 indicates the number of work plans with reference to each work plan type. This gives the reader a quick view of what type of work plans are used in the textbooks.

2. Second, I present findings with regard to language skills/subskills work plans and non-linguistic pedagogical aspects. To explain the findings of the language skills/subskills work plans, I take each skill/subskill in turn and describe the work plan types associated with that. Each work plan type is explained by citing one or two examples from the textbooks. The explanation includes the rationale for classifying the work plan under a particular type and the pedagogical principle(s) it entails. Likewise, the findings of the non-linguistic pedagogical aspects, such as providing supportive facilitation to learners, promoting learners’ cognitive skills, and setting learning objectives, are given by citing examples from the textbook and commenting on the pedagogical principle(s) they embody. The whole description of the textbook findings given in step 2 addresses research question 2: What pedagogical practices do the secondary level ELT textbooks embody?

3. In the third step, I answer research question 3: To what extent are the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks congruent with the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum?

4. Lastly, I conclude the chapter.
6.2 A brief overview of work plans

The textbook analysis (see Table 6.1 below) reveals that grammar is given maximum importance in the textbooks, as the highest number of work plans (N=35 (51%)) in the four textbook units focus on grammar. The second highest number of work plans (N=12 (18%)) focus on vocabulary. In contrast, the number of work plans for language skills (writing, reading, speaking, and listening) are less. Among the skills, writing is given more importance; there are nine work plans (13%) for the writing skill. Reading and speaking are given less importance; there are five work plans (7%) for each of them. The listening skill is completely ignored, as no listening work plan was found in the four units. Further, the four units contain only two work plans (3%) for pronunciation.

Table 6.1: An analysis of language skills/subskills work plans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill/Subskill</th>
<th>Work plan type</th>
<th>Number of work plans</th>
<th>Proportion of work plans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>Knowledge-oriented</td>
<td>Knowledge-telling</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge-oriented</td>
<td>Knowledge-discovering</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use-oriented</td>
<td>Non-interactive input-oriented</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use-oriented</td>
<td>Output-oriented text-manipulation</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use-oriented</td>
<td>Output-oriented text-manipulation and creation</td>
<td>03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Knowledge-oriented</td>
<td>Knowledge-telling</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge-oriented</td>
<td>Knowledge-discovering</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use-oriented</td>
<td>Output-oriented text-manipulation and creation</td>
<td>03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Use-oriented</td>
<td>Output-oriented text-creation (creative writing, guided-writing)</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use-oriented</td>
<td>Output-oriented text-creation (creative writing, free-writing)</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Knowledge-oriented</td>
<td>Knowledge-discovering</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use-oriented</td>
<td>Non-interactive input-oriented, and output-oriented text-creation</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Use-oriented</td>
<td>Output-oriented text-creation</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>Knowledge-oriented</td>
<td>Knowledge-telling</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use-oriented</td>
<td>non-interactive input-oriented</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of work plan types (see Figure 6.1 below), there are more use-oriented work plans (N=49 (69%)) than knowledge-oriented work plans (N=22 (31%)). This shows that the textbooks put more emphasis on learners’ use of the target language, which is one of the pedagogical recommendations in the national curriculum. Of the use-oriented work plans, output-oriented (N=33 (46%)) are more in number than input-oriented (N=16 (23%)), revealing that the textbooks want learners to produce linguistic output. The output-oriented work plans involve both text-manipulation and text-creation, which reveals that the textbooks want learners to produce linguistic output either by manipulating the given text or creating a text of their own. Of the knowledge-oriented work plans, the number of knowledge-telling work plans (N=12 (17%)) is a little higher than the knowledge-discovering work plans (N=10 (14%)). This shows that the textbooks give slightly more importance to a knowledge-telling learning approach (involving deductive pedagogy) rather than a knowledge-discovering learning approach (involving inductive pedagogy).

As for non-linguistic pedagogical aspects, the textbooks emphasise providing supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners, promoting learners’ cognitive skills, and setting clear learning objectives. The frequency of occurrence of the non-linguistic pedagogical aspects, as found in the four textbook units, is given in Table 6.2 below.

Table 6.2: An analysis of non-linguistic pedagogical aspects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-linguistic pedagogical aspect</th>
<th>Frequency of occurrence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive skills</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning objectives</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having presented a brief overview of the language skills/subskills work plans, their types, non-linguistic pedagogical aspects, and their frequency of occurrence in the textbooks, I turn to the next part that addresses research question 2, presenting findings with regard to the work plan types with reference to each language skill/subskill, their underlying pedagogical principles, and non-linguistic pedagogical aspects.
Figure 6.1: An analysis of work plan types
6.3 Findings with reference to research question 2: Pedagogical practices the textbooks embody

This section presents findings of the analysis of the work plans related to language skills/subskills (reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary, etc.) as well as non-linguistic pedagogical aspects, such as providing supportive facilitation to learners, setting learning objectives, etc. To present the findings logically, I first describe the rationale for classifying a work plan under a particular type and then comment on what pedagogical principle(s) the work plan entails. Further, to explain the rationale clearly, examples from the textbooks are reproduced. All this is done to justify the rationale for classifying a work plan under a particular type and hence to illustrate the accuracy of the analysis. First, I begin with the findings of the language related work plans. The grammar work plans are presented first, as they are found most frequently in the textbooks.

6.3.1 Grammar work plans

The four textbook units contain 35 grammar work plans, of which 11 are knowledge-oriented and 24 are use-oriented. Of the 11 knowledge-oriented work plans, seven are associated with knowledge-telling and four with a knowledge-discovering learning approach. Two examples of knowledge-telling work plans and one example of a knowledge-discovering work plan can be seen in Figure 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4 below respectively:

**Past Perfect Continuous Tense**

The Structure of the Past perfect Continuous Tense is:

\[
\text{Subject + auxiliary verb + auxiliary verb + main verb} \\
\text{had} \quad \text{been} \quad \text{base + ing}
\]

**Use of Past Perfect Continuous Tense**

The Past Perfect Continuous Tense is like the Past Perfect Tense, but it expresses longer actions in the past before another action in the past.

Example

Rahim started waiting at 9am. I arrived at 11am. When I arrived, Rahim had been waiting for two hours.

We also use **for** and **since** with the Past Perfect Continuous Tense.

Figure 6.2: A knowledge-telling grammar work plan

Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 101)
B. Recapitulate your previous knowledge about Direct and Indirect Narration and answer the following questions.

1. Can you identify the tenses of the reported speech of above examples?
2. What are the rules to change direct statements into indirect statements?
3. What are the rules to change interrogative sentences?
4. What are the rules to change imperative sentences into direct speech?

### Direct and Indirect Narration

**Direct speech** means the exact words that someone says. These are enclosed with quotation marks, which are called inverted commas.

**Examples**

- a. I replied, “I’m trying to make her brain process by her sister’s voice.”
- b. “Are you looking for your patient?” she said.
- c. The doctor said, “Please go and see other patients.”

**Indirect speech** does not consist of the actual words of the speaker but conveys the full sense of what he said.

**Examples**

- a. I replied that I was trying to make her brain process by her sister’s voice.
- b. She asked me whether I was looking for my patient.
- c. The doctor requested me to go and see other patients.

---

The knowledge-telling work plans (see Figure 6.2 and 6.3 above) contain detailed information about grammar rules, e.g., the syntactic structure for past perfect continuous tense (Figure 6.2 above) and the difference between direct and indirect speech (Figure 6.3 above). These work plans are based on the principle of explicit instruction of grammar rules and hence they promote a deductive method of instruction. Contrarily, the knowledge-discovering work plan (see Figure 6.4 above) requires learners to identify rules, applying self-discovery and inquiry-based learning strategies. Such work plans embody the use of an inductive pedagogical approach.

In addition to the knowledge-oriented grammar work plans, 24 use-oriented grammar work plans were found in the four units. Of the use-oriented
work plans, 11 are non-interactive input-based. Two examples of non-interactive input-based work plans can be seen in Figure 6.5 and 6.6 below.

E. Complete the sentences with the given compound prepositions.
   along with, according to, in front of, away from, because of, instead of

1. _______ my teacher, it is a great book.
2. He had to retire _______ ill health.
3. I am standing _______ the school building.
4. He is coming _______ his friends.
5. I am _______ my home right now.
6. He left for Sialkot _______ Lahore.

   Figure 6.5: A non-interactive input-based grammar work plan
   Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 100)

C. Make the present indefinite or present continuous sentences.

1. You (not / like) _______ chocolate.
2. She (not / study) _______ at the moment.
3. They (not / eat) _______ rice every day.
4. We (not / work) _______ now.
5. It (rain) _______ a lot here.
6. I (go) _______ on holiday tomorrow.

   Figure 6.6: A non-interactive input-based grammar work plan
   Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 22)

Following Ellis’s (2016) framework, such work plans are identified as non-interactive input-based work plans because of the following reasons:

i. The essential information/input is already provided to learners and they are required to use the given information to perform the task.

ii. Such work plans do not require learners to produce any linguistic output, rather to perform the task using the given input.

iii. The work plan rubric does not require learners to interact with their classmates and work collaboratively, which implies that they are supposed to work individually. Hence, the work plans are non-interactive (Ellis, 2016).

Such non-interactive input-based work plans are mostly given in the form of fill in the blank exercises in the textbooks.
In addition to these, 10 output-oriented text-manipulation work plans were also found in the units. Examples of such work plans are given in Figure 6.7 below:

C. Rewrite paragraph 3 of the unit in the Indirect Speech.

D. Change the narration of the following sentences.

1. He said to him, “What are you reading?”
2. He said, “You have made a mistake.”
3. He said, “Do not waste your time?”
4. He said to me, “Will you watch a drama tonight?”
5. She said to her sister, “Please listen to me.”

Figure 6.7: Output-oriented text-manipulation grammar work plans
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 100)

The work plans C and D shown in Figure 6.7 above are classified as use-oriented output-oriented text-manipulation grammar work plans, because they meet the below-given criteria for a text-manipulation work plan identified by Ellis (2016) as follows:

i. they focus on a specific linguistic form (narration in this case);
ii. they have no communicative purpose;
iii. the use of the target-language is controlled (the use of narration); and
iv. the outcome of the activity is a predetermined linguistic display (the use of narration).

Further, it was found that the above-mentioned two work plan types (non-interactive input-based and output-oriented text-manipulation work plans) were placed in the textbooks next to the knowledge-telling and/or knowledge-discovering work plans. Hence, they seemed to provide controlled practice opportunities to learners. It is noteworthy that the provision of practice opportunities is one of the pedagogical recommendations in the national curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2006).
In addition to the text-manipulation work plans, three output-oriented text-manipulation and –creation work plans21 were also found in the textbook units. Examples of such work plans can be seen in Figures 6.8 and 6.9 below.

Figure 6.8: An output-oriented text-manipulation and –creation grammar work plan
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 136)

F. Make five sentences using the Past Perfect Continuous Tense and convert them into negative and interrogative sentences.

Figure 6.9: An output-oriented text-manipulation and –creation grammar work plan
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 101)

21 In addition to the two types of output-oriented work plans named text-manipulation work plans and text-creation work plans, Ellis (2016) identifies a third type: text-manipulation and –creation work plans. Such work plans feature a combination of both text-manipulation and text-creation work plans, since they contain some features of both.
According to Ellis (2016), a text-manipulation and –creation work plan has all those features that a text-manipulation work plan has. However, it has an additional feature of engaging learners in some creative use of language also. This is why such work plans are identified as text-manipulation and –creation work plans (Ellis, 2016). The above-given text-manipulation and –creation work plans (see Figures 6.8 and 6.9 above) have the following features of a text-manipulation work plan:

i. they focus on linguistic forms (narration and past perfect continuous tense respectively);

ii. they have no communicative purpose, since they do not involve learners in any communicative language use; and

iii. they focus on controlled target language use (the controlled use of narration and past perfect continuous tense respectively).

The additional text-creation feature is that they involve learners in making some creative use of English using their own linguistic resources. Hence, these work plans are identified as text-manipulation and -creation work plans.

Furthermore, it was found that, like non-interactive input-based work plans, the output-oriented text-manipulation and text-manipulation and –creation work plans are also intended to provide practice opportunities to learners. However, one difference is that the practice opportunity they provide has some element of production as well, as in such work plans learners are required to make some creative use of the target linguistic feature/target language also.

It is noteworthy that the above-given different grammar work plan types are placed in the textbook in a sequence. First, knowledge-telling and/or knowledge-discovering work plans are presented. They present the knowledge of a specific linguistic feature to learners. Then they are followed by use-oriented non-interactive input-based work plans, which provide controlled practice opportunities to learners. Lastly appear text-manipulation and/or text-manipulation and –creation work plans, which provide opportunities for controlled practice and partially controlled/free production of the target linguistic feature respectively. Ellis (2016) also states that the text-manipulation
and creation work plans may be used to provide practice opportunities to learners. This order of presentation of the grammar work plans in the textbooks reveals the use of a PPP model of language teaching, which is one of the pedagogical recommendations in the national curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2006). Now I turn to vocabulary work plans.

6.3.2 Vocabulary work plans

The textbooks contain three types of vocabulary work plans: knowledge-telling, knowledge-discovering, and text-manipulation and creation work plans. Examples of each are given below.

The work plan shown in Figure 6.10 below is a knowledge-telling vocabulary work plan, as the meanings of the vocabulary items are explained directly. Such work plans reveal a deductive method of instruction. I found four such vocabulary work plans in the four textbook units.

![Figure 6.10: A knowledge-telling vocabulary work plan](Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 132)

Five knowledge-discovering vocabulary work plans were also found in the four textbook units. An example of a knowledge-discovering vocabulary work plan is given in Figure 6.11 below:

A. Give the meaning of each word as used in the lesson.

  gatherings, customary, thoroughly, commonplace, partake, traits, reinvigorate

![Figure 6.11: A knowledge-discovering vocabulary work plan](Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 18)


GLOSSARY

| Attempt       | .......... try to do something |
| Convict       | .......... prove in a court of law that someone is guilty of a crime |
| Escape        | .......... to get away from a place where one has been a prisoner |
| Orphan        | .......... a child whose parents are dead |
| Recapture     | .......... to take back somebody that has escaped |
| Sentence      | .......... the punishment given by a law court |
| Warm-hearted  | .......... friendly and generous |

Figure 6.10: A knowledge-telling vocabulary work plan
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 132)

Figure 6.11: A knowledge-discovering vocabulary work plan
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 18)
Such work plans require learners to infer the meanings of the vocabulary items through examining the linguistic context in which they are used. Hence, they promote an inductive pedagogical approach based on a self-discovery learning strategy.

Furthermore, three output-oriented, text-manipulation and –creation vocabulary work plans were also found in the four textbook units. One such example is given in Figure 6.12 below:

B. Use the following words in sentences first as verbs and then as nouns.
   care, walk, surprise, request, need, state

   Figure 6.12: A text-manipulation and –creation vocabulary work plan
   Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 98)

Such work plans are identified as text-manipulation and –creation vocabulary work plans, because they fulfil all the requirements for such a work plan as identified by Ellis (2016): they focus on specific linguistic forms (verbs and nouns in the above-given example); the use of the target language is controlled; and they have no communicative purpose. Additionally, some element of creativity is there, as learners are required to make sentences using their own linguistic resources (Ellis, 2016). Such work plans underlie the principles of providing learners controlled practice of the target linguistic feature as well as the opportunity for some creative use of the target language, which are two of the pedagogical recommendations made in the national curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2006).

Now I present the findings of the writing work plans.

6.3.3 Writing work plans

Nine writing work plans were found in the four textbook units and they are all use-oriented output-oriented text-creation work plans. They are based on a creative writing approach. Two examples of such work plans are given in Figures 6.13 and 6.14 below. The two main reasons for identifying these as use-oriented output-oriented text-creation work plans are as follows:

i. They make learners use English and produce output in a written form.
ii. They fulfil the criteria for a text-creation work plan, i.e., they do not focus on any particular linguistic form, learners are required ‘to use their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources’, and ‘the language that results from performing the task is a means to an end, not an end in itself’ (Ellis, 2016, p. 208).

The writing work plans include writing a character sketch, a review of a story, a summary, a personal narrative, an essay, a paragraph, and an email. Some of these (e.g., review of a story, an essay, a paragraph) involve the use of English for academic purposes and some (e.g., an email, a personal narrative) involve less formal registers, focusing on English for social purposes. Hence, the textbooks, through their writing work plans, promote learners’ use of the target language for both academic and social purposes, which is one of the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2006).

Figure 6.13: An output-oriented, text-creation writing work plan (guided-writing)
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 3 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 29)
Additionally, it is found that of the nine writing work plans, eight have a guided-writing approach and one has a free-writing approach. In a guided-writing work plan, learners are guided or scaffolded, as in the work plan in Figure 6.13 above. On the other hand, a free-writing work plan does not provide any guidance to learners; rather, it requires them to do the writing task by using their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources (Ellis, 2016). An example of such a work plan is given in Figure 6.14 below:

A. Write a paragraph on “Uses and Abuses of Internet/Mobile Phones”.

Figure 6.14: An output-oriented text-creation writing work plan (free-writing)
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 3 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 29)

Now I turn to the reading work plans.

6.3.4 Reading work plans

Five reading work plans were found in the four textbook units. Common to all the units was that they contained a comprehension-questions-based work plan in which learners were required to answer the questions after reading the lesson text. Such work plans are identified as having two features of two different work plans: (i) non-interactive, input-based work plans and (ii) output-oriented, text-creation work plans. A typical example of such a work plan is given in Figure 6.15 below:

B. Answer the following questions.
1. When does Chinese New Year start?
2. Why do Chinese families do thorough cleaning of their houses before New Year’s Day?
3. Which colour is not allowed, and which colour is encouraged on Chinese New Year? Why?
4. What do decorations on doors and windows symbolise?
5. What is the significance of New Year’s Eve Dinner?
6. What do the little red envelopes filled with money symbolise?
7. What is the importance of Chinese New Year for Chinese families?

Figure 6.15: A non-interactive input-based and output-oriented text-creation reading work plan
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 20)

The element of non-interactive input is identified since the input to answer the questions exists in the text unit, and the element of text-creation lies in the fact that these work plans fulfil some of the requirements of a text-creation work
plan as identified by Ellis (2016). For instance, they require learners to create text, writing answers to the comprehension questions. Second, when answering the questions, learners’ primary focus is on meaning (to answer the question), not on form (any particular linguistic feature). Third, ‘the language that results from performing the task [writing answers] is a means to an end, not an end in itself’ (Ellis, 2016, p. 208).

In addition to such work plans, a knowledge-discovering reading work plan was also found in unit 2 of the grade 10 textbook. The work plan is given in Figure 6.16 below. This work plan may not be regarded exactly as a knowledge-discovering work plan, since it does not involve knowledge-discovery in a true sense as it is understood in inductive pedagogy. Nonetheless, I put it in this category because it involves some sort of discovery, even though the discovery is of only factual information.

**READING COMPREHENSION**

Analysis of patterns of text organization

A. Choose the correct option.

1. Chinese New Year falls somewhere ____________.
   a. on January 21st
   b. on February 20th
   c. between January 21st and February 20th

2. Paragraph 1 gives ________________.
   a. general details of festival
   b. specific details of the Chinese New Year
   c. general details of new year celebrations

Figure 6.16: A knowledge-discovering reading work plan
Source: Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 20)

Now I move on to the speaking work plans.

**6.3.5 Speaking work plans**

As for the speaking skill, five work plans were found in the four textbook units. They are all identified as use-oriented output-oriented text-creation work plans because they fulfil the below criteria for a text-creation work plan as set out by Ellis (2016):

i. they do not focus on any particular linguistic form;
ii. learners are required ‘to use their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources’; and

iii. ‘the language that results from performing the task is a means to an end, not an end in itself’ (Ellis, 2016, p. 208).

This reveals two things. First, the textbooks focus on providing learners language use opportunities. Second, the speaking work plans provide learners opportunities for real-life-like language use in both informal and formal contexts. For instance, the work plan in Figure 6.17 below presents an oral communication task about an informal situation—a pleasant break from dull routine life. On the other hand, the work plan in Figure 6.18 below (that requires learners to work in groups and make a presentation on “Great Expectations”) and the work plan in Figure 6.19 below (that presents a formal job interview situation) represent formal speaking situations. These examples show the textbooks focus on providing learners real-life language use opportunities, which is one of the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2006).

**ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS**

Form groups and discuss the following:

Festivals — A pleasant break from dull routine of life

You may focus on purpose, celebration and significance of festivals

Use the following expressions to given reasons:

- The fact is that ...
- It is obvious that ...
- One can say that ...
- There is no doubt that ...
- Because of ...
- That is why ...
- After all ...

Figure 6.17: An output-oriented text-creation speaking work plan (informal situation)
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 18)
ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Work in groups and make a presentation on story elements of “Great Expectations”.

Figure 6.18: An output-oriented text-creation speaking work plan (formal situation)
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 137)

![Interview diagram](image)

Another notable point is that all five speaking work plans are based on group work; none of them is based on individual or pair work. This is partially in line with the national curriculum’s communicative approach principle, suggesting the use of both pair and group work when recommending the use of learner-centred communicative activities (Ministry of Education, 2006).

Now I turn to the pronunciation work plans.
Pronunciation work plans

Only two pronunciation work plans were found in the four textbook units and both of them were in unit 2 of the grade 10 textbook. The work plans are shown in Figures 6.20 and 6.21 below.

**Primary Stress and Secondary Stress**

The mark /´/ shows the main or primary stress in a word. For example, **metalled** /`metl/ is stressed on the first syllable.

The mark / ˙/ shows secondary stress in a word. For example, in the word **metamorphic** /`metomafik/ there is a secondary stress on the first syllable.

---

*Figure 6.20: A knowledge-telling pronunciation work plan*

Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 24)

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*Figure 6.21: A non-interactive input-based pronunciation work plan*

Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 24)

The first one is a knowledge-telling work plan, as it provides explicit information about primary and secondary stress with the help of examples. The second is a use-oriented, non-interactive, input-based work plan. The input is provided to
learners in the form of a dictionary page (shown in Figure 6.20) and they are required to make a list of the words having primary and secondary stress and identify the syllables with primary and secondary stress. In the textbook, the second pronunciation work plan is put next to the first. This reveals the use of a PP (presentation, practice) model, as the first work plan presents the knowledge and the second is for practising the learnt knowledge. This is in line with the national curriculum recommendation that the learners be provided practice opportunities (Ministry of Education, 2006).

In addition to linguistic skills and subskills, some other non-linguistic pedagogic aspects that correspond to the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum were also noted in the textbooks. These include providing supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners, promoting learners’ cognitive skills, and setting learning objectives. The findings related to these aspects are presented below.

6.3.7 Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher

Guidelines about the provision of supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners are recurrently found in the textbooks. This shows the textbooks suggest teachers provide supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners and remind them how they can facilitate learners when teaching a particular language skill/feature. The four units contain 17 such guidelines. For example, two excerpts from the textbooks are given below:

For the Teacher:
- Encourage students to use appropriate expressions to support or modify their opinion with reasons.
- Guide them to summarize the main points of discussion for the benefit of the whole group.
- Writing Skills A: Guide students to develop the mind map to summarize the text. Remind students that only main ideas should be included in a summary. To determine if students have included all main ideas ask them if their summary is easily understood by someone who has not read the text. To help students include necessary information ask them if they exclude this information will their summary still sound complete.
- Help them analyze the order of arranging paragraphs chronologically.

Figure 6.22: Guidelines regarding the provision of supportive facilitation to learners
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 24)
Reminding teachers in the textbooks about providing supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners reveals compliance with this pedagogical principle as indicated in the national curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2006). In addition to this, the textbooks also contain work plans to promote learners’ cognitive skills. Findings relating to this are given below.

### 6.3.8 Promoting learners’ cognitive skills

Material which promotes the development of learners’ cognitive skills in the textbooks was analysed in two ways. First, the work plans that promote cognitive skills were analysed. Second, the rubrics of the work plans were analysed, as Bachman and Palmer (1996) note that rubrics are very important. They not only specify the purpose of a work plan in terms of its outcome but also stipulate what the textbook writers intend the learner to do. Hence, the work plan rubrics were analysed to see what cognitive skills they require learners to focus on.

As for the cognitive skills, four work plans were found in the four textbook units. Three of them, according to Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive development (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001), were related to the lower order cognitive skills (summarising and arranging) and one was associated with the higher order cognitive skill (analysing). An example of the former type of work plan, focusing on lower order skills, is given in Figure 6.24 below. The work plan in Figure 6.24 focuses on developing learners’ summarising skills that, according to Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive development (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001), is placed under the second level of cognitive development, ‘understanding’, which is regarded as a lower order cognitive skill. The other two work plans related to the
lower order cognitive skills involve summarising a unit, arranging the events in a chronological order and arranging the events of a story into a graphic organiser showing time sequence.

A. **Summarize the major points of the unit in the given mind map.**

![Mind Map]

Figure 6.24: A lower order cognitive skill work plan
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 3 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 25)

A work plan related to the higher order cognitive skill ‘Analyse’ was also found in one of the textbook units. The work plan is given in Figure 6.25 below:

B. **Analyze elements of the story “Great Expectations” with the help of following story map.**

![Story Map]

Figure 6.25: A higher order cognitive skill work plan
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 133)
The work plan in Figure 6.25 above requires learners to analyse the elements of the story ‘Great Expectations’ with the help of a story map. According to Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive development (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001), this skill of analysis is categorised as a higher order cognitive skill.

Table 6.3: The frequency of occurrence of the performative verbs used in the textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Skill Level</th>
<th>Frequency of occurrence</th>
<th>Total number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CREATE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answer (in the sense of write)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EVALUATE</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANALYSE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrange</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rearrange</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPLY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form (in the sense of change)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make corrections (in the sense of rewrite)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make (in the sense of transform)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convert (in the sense of transform)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewrite</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write (in the sense of rewrite)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDERSTAND</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fill in the blanks (in the sense of categorise)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarise</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classify</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REMEMBER</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give (in the sense of tell)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choose (in the sense of recognise)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Match (in the sense of recognise)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to analysing the cognitive skills work plans, their rubrics were also analysed, as they revealed what cognitive skills they want learners to focus on. To do so, the focus was on analysing the performative verbs used in the
rubrics. A performative verb is a word that demands some action to be performed (Malmkjaer, 2004). The performative verbs used in the rubrics, their frequency of occurrence, and their categorisation into different levels of cognitive development based on the prompts and processes indicated by Krathwohl (2002) and Mishan and Timmis (2015) with reference to Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive development is given in Table 6.3 above. It is important to note here that a detailed description of the prompts and processes to classify the performative verbs into different levels of cognitive development is already given in Section 4.5.2 above.

It is also important to mention that some of the performative verbs used in the textbooks are exactly the same as indicated in the prompts and processes by Krathwohl (2002) and Mishan and Timmis (2015) with reference to Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive development (for details see Section 4.5.2 above). Therefore, there was no difficulty in classifying these verbs under a specific cognitive skill. However, some performative verbs were different. Such words were classified under a cognitive skill based on their implied meanings, which are included in parentheses in Table 6.3 above. To exemplify how I deduced the implied meanings of these performative verbs in relation to the prompts and processes indicated by Krathwohl (2002) and Mishan and Timmis (2015) and then classified the performative verbs into different levels of cognitive development, two examples from the textbooks are given below:

A. Give the meaning of each word as used in the lesson.
   gatherings, customary, thoroughly, commonplace, partake, traits, reinvigorate

Figure 6.26: An example of deducing correct meanings of performative verbs
   Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 18)

In Figure 6.26 above, the word ‘give’ has an implied meaning of ‘tell’. ‘Tell’ is indicated as one of the prompts for the cognitive skill ‘Remember’, but ‘give’ is not (Krathwohl, 2002; Mishan & Timmis, 2015, see Section 4.5.2 above). Therefore, based on the implied meaning, I put ‘give’ in the category of the cognitive skill ‘Remember’.
B. Form a noun from the given words and use the nouns in sentences.

Example:

Celebrate – celebration
gather, symbolic, prosper, decorate, encourage

Figure 6.27: An example of deducing correct meanings of performative verbs
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 2 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 19)

The example in Figure 6.27 above reveals that the word ‘form’ implies to ‘change’ or ‘convert’ the given words into nouns. ‘Change’ or ‘convert’ are indicated as prompts for the cognitive skill ‘Apply’, but ‘form’ is not (Krathwohl, 2002; Mishan & Timmis, 2015, see Section 4.5.2 above). Therefore, based on the implied meaning, I put the word ‘form’ in the category of ‘Apply’.

The above findings relating to work plans and their accompanying instructions which seek to develop learners’ cognitive skills reveal that the textbooks focus on developing learners’ lower and higher order cognitive skills, which is one of the recommendations in the national curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2006). This shows textbooks’ compliance with this pedagogical principle. Now I move on to the setting learning objectives principle.

6.3.9 Setting learning objectives

A clear identification of learning objectives is another feature noted in the textbooks. Learning objectives are clearly mentioned at the beginning of every unit. This reveals textbooks’ compliance with this principle, as indicated in the national curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2006). In this regard, two examples from the textbooks are given in Figures 6.28 and 6.29 below:

**Learning Outcomes:**

*After completing this unit students will:*

- analyse story elements, characters, events, setting, plot, theme, point of view
- illustrate use of past perfect and past perfect continuous tense
- change the narration of statements, requests, orders and requests
- make presentation on story elements
- write a book review of a story

Figure 6.28: Learning objectives stated in the beginning of a unit
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 129)
Learning Outcomes:

By the end of this unit students will:

• scan the text to look for the contextual meanings
• recognise the rules of changing the narration of statement, requests, orders and questions
• know the use of compound prepositions
• illustrate the use of past perfect continuous tense
• organise the ideas in a clear, structured and logical manner

Figure 6.29: Learning objectives stated in the beginning of a unit
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 93)

To sum up, Section 6.3 above addresses research question 2: what pedagogical practices do the secondary level ELT textbooks embody? Based on this description, I now address research question 3: To what extent are the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks congruent with the ones recommended in the national curriculum?

6.4 Findings with reference to research question 3

In addressing research question 3, I make the reader aware that of the 15 pedagogical principles, four (learner autonomy, materials adaptation, materials supplementation, and lesson planning) are more concerned with the teachers than the textbooks and therefore the data relevant to them was not found in the textbooks. Consequently, they are not included in the textbook findings. The other 11 pedagogical principles, being relevant to the textbooks, constitute a part of the textbook analysis and these findings are elaborated below in turn. Further, on account of space constraints, it is not possible to devote the same space to coverage of all 11 principles. Therefore, to achieve an acceptable balance between the presentation of results in sufficient depth and the space constraints issue, I adopt the following strategy to present the findings with reference to research question 3:

i. The pedagogical principles that are given more importance in the national curriculum and need more space for their explanation are elaborated in detail.

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22 The reader is reminded that the pedagogical principles’ level of importance in the national curriculum was determined via their frequency of occurrence. For details see Section 4.5.1 above.
Some principles that are closely linked, such as the communicative approach and collaborative learning, are put together.

The pedagogical principles, such as providing supportive facilitation to learners, promoting learners’ cognitive skills, and setting learning objectives, which are already explained in detail above, are discussed only very briefly here to avoid repetition.

I start off with the use of the communicative approach and collaborative learning principles.

6.4.1 Use of the communicative approach and collaborative learning

The use of the communicative approach and collaborative learning are identified as two separate principles in the national curriculum, and I have also discussed them separately when presenting the analysis of the national curriculum (see Sections 5.3.1 and 5.3.6 above). However, given space constraints and the close association between the two, I present them together here. The findings reveal that the textbooks do not particularly promote the use of the communicative approach. All the work plans about grammar (N=35), vocabulary (N=12), writing (N=9), reading (N=5), and pronunciation (N=2) require learners to work individually. Only speaking work plans (N=5) require learners to work in groups. As for the two aspects of collaborative learning—teacher-learner and learner-learner collaboration—stipulated in the national curriculum, the textbooks exhibit both, but only to some extent. Some scant encouragement of teacher-learner collaboration can be read into the recurrent guidelines that suggest teachers provide supportive facilitation to learners (N=17). These may be taken as instances of promoting teacher-learner collaboration, albeit indirectly and implicitly. Likewise, the element of learner-learner collaboration appears via speaking work plans (N=5) only, which require learners to work in groups. Only one very brief instance of learner-learner collaboration via pair work appears in the four textbook units. Hence, as far as these two principles are concerned, the textbooks reveal a low compliance level with the recommended pedagogical policy, which suggests that ‘activities should
be so devised and conducted that students have an opportunity for individual work as well as pair work and group work. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 150)

6.4.2 Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge

The findings show that the textbooks give more importance to developing learners’ English language knowledge than developing their language skills since the number of work plans for grammar (N=35) and vocabulary (N=12) that represent the language knowledge aspect is greater than that of the work plans focused on language skills (Writing=9, Reading=5, Speaking=5, Listening=0). This is at odds with the recommended pedagogical policy that gives priority to developing learners’ English language skills rather than developing their language knowledge. The national curriculum clearly states that the main purpose of teaching English is to develop learners’ English language skills and that even if language knowledge is taught, it should be directed toward the ultimate aim of developing learners’ English language skills and making them proficient users of English. In this regard, an excerpt from the national curriculum is given below:

...the curriculum places greater emphasis on the understanding and use of the English language in different academic and social contexts than on acquiring knowledge about the language for its own sake. Such an approach acknowledges, on one hand, the importance of teaching the knowledge about the language system; on the other, it moves a step forward to emphasise the appropriate use of that knowledge so that students’ ability to communicate in real life situations is improved and made effective for various purposes. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 2)

6.4.3 Promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes

The findings reveal that the textbooks give importance to learners’ use of the target/English language, but that language use is less creative and more manipulative in nature. The importance given to language use is evident from the fact that the textbooks contain more use-oriented work plans (N=49 (69%)) than knowledge-oriented work plans (N=22 (31%)). However, it is important to note that not all of these use-oriented work plans require learners to make creative use of English. Of the 49 use-oriented work plans, 31 are input-oriented (that require learners to perform the tasks using the given linguistic input) and
text-manipulation work plans (that require learners to only manipulate the given language), and only the remaining 18 are text-creation work plans. Further, when we focus on the 18 text-creation work plans, four require creativity in the form of writing only a sentence or two. These are the reading work plans that require learners to answer reading comprehension questions. The remaining 14 work plans (Writing=9 and Speaking=5) require learners to make creative use of English and produce comparatively longer stretches of language. Hence, overall, while the textbooks give importance to learners’ use of the English language, this ‘use’ is less creative and more manipulative than we may assume.

As for the use of English for academic and social purposes, the writing and speaking work plans provide such opportunities. For example, the writing work plans, which include writing a character sketch, a review of a story, a summary, an essay, and a paragraph, help develop the use of English for academic purposes. Likewise, some other work plans, such as writing an email and a personal narrative involve less formal registers and help develop the use of English for social purposes. Similarly, the speaking work plans also target the use of English for both academic and social purposes. Of the five speaking work plans found in the four textbook units, one work plan (presenting a presentation on story elements) focuses on the use of English for academic purposes; whereas three work plans (a formal job interview, discussing the role of media in our lives, and talking about a pleasant break from dull routine life) focus on the use of English for social purposes. Hence, the textbooks, through both writing and speaking work plans, promote learners’ use of the target language for both academic and social purposes as is recommended by the national curriculum as follows:

The new curriculum aims to provide holistic opportunities to the students for language development and to equip them with competencies in using the English language for communication in academic and social contexts... (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 1)

However, as mentioned above, this is only partially in line with the national curriculum’ recommendations, since the number of work plans that promote learners’ creative use of English for academic and social purposes (N=14) is less
than that of the knowledge-oriented (N=22) and input-oriented and text-manipulation work plans (N=31).

6.4.4 Integrated language teaching

The use of an integrated language teaching approach is apparent in the textbooks, which contain work on all skills and subskills, except the listening skill. However, it is also a fact that some linguistic skills and features are given more importance than others. For example, grammar (N=35 (51%)) and vocabulary (N=12 (18%)) are given more importance; whereas writing (N=9 (13%)), reading (N=5 (7%)), and speaking (N=5 (7%)) are less emphasised.

The use of an integrated language teaching approach is also apparent when we see that some work plans focus on two aspects simultaneously. For example, see the two work plans given in Figures 6.30 and 6.31 below:

A. Use the following words in sentences first as verbs and then as nouns.
   care, walk, surprise, request, need, state

   Figure 6.30: A text-manipulation and -creation vocabulary work plan
   Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 98)

The work plan in Figure 6.30 above is a vocabulary work plan, but it focuses on two more aspects also:

i. It makes learners develop their understanding of grammar via making them use the words as both verbs and nouns.

ii. It promotes learners’ writing or speaking skills, requiring them to make sentences whichever way they (or their teachers) want—via writing or speaking.

Likewise, the work plan shown in Figure 6.31 below is a grammar work plan, but it also, to some extent, promotes learners’ writing or speaking skills, since it again requires production work on the part of the learners.

G. Make five sentences using the Past Perfect Continuous Tense and convert them into negative and interrogative sentences.

   Figure 6.31: A text-manipulation and -creation grammar work plan
   Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 101)
Hence the textbooks, to a great extent, follow the principle of using an integrated language teaching approach. The only exception in this regard is the listening skill, which is neglected.

6.4.5 Use of inductive and deductive pedagogy

Just like use of the communicative approach and collaborative learning principles, use of inductive and deductive pedagogy principles are taken together in this section because of space constraints and the close association between the two. The national curriculum suggests more use of inductive pedagogy and only a prudent use of deductive pedagogy (Ministry of Education, 2006). The findings show that, in the textbooks, there is slightly more of a focus on deductive than inductive pedagogy, since the number of the knowledge-telling work plans (N=12) that exhibit a deductive pedagogical approach is higher than that of the knowledge-discovering work plans (N=10) that underlie inductive pedagogy. Hence, the textbooks, in compliance with the stipulated pedagogical policy, promote the use of both inductive and deductive pedagogy; however, they differ from the recommended principle in terms of the ratio of the use of the two pedagogic approaches. Additionally, the overall presentation pattern of the work plans in the textbooks is based on a PPP model of language teaching (already explained in detail in Section 6.3.1 above). This also reveals textbooks’ compliance with the stipulated pedagogical policy since the national curriculum suggests the use of a PPP model of language teaching also. For example, it says:

A learner will only be able to meet the student learning outcome specified for his/her level if the skill is first introduced, explained and then reinforced through practice activities. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 3)

6.4.6 Reviewing learners’ learning and progress

This principle is also followed in the textbooks. The work plans given in the textbooks, especially the ones that are based on a use-oriented approach (N=49) in all its forms, including non-interactive input-based work plans (N=16) and output-oriented, text-manipulation (N=10), text-manipulation and -creation (N=5), and text-creation work plans (N=18), not only provide practice
opportunities to learners but also serve the purpose of assessing their learning and progress. Hence, this principle is also followed in the textbooks.

6.4.7 Other principles

The other three principles, namely providing supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners, developing learners’ cognitive skills, and setting learning objectives, are already discussed and exemplified in detail above (see Sections 6.3.7, 6.3.8, and 6.3.9). Hence, without going into detail again and to avoid repetition, suffice to say that with regard to these principles the textbooks comply with the recommended pedagogical policy.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter presents findings of the textbook analysis and addresses research questions 2 and 3 given below:

RQ 2: What pedagogical practices do the secondary level ELT textbooks embody?

RQ 3: To what extent are the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks congruent with the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum?

I discuss 11 of the 15 recommended pedagogical principles since they are relevant to the textbooks and the remaining four are only relevant to teachers. Of the 11 principles, the textbooks follow and embody four in the same spirit as they are suggested in the national curriculum. The four principles spoken of in the curriculum which are mirrored in the textbooks are: reviewing learners’ learning and progress, providing supportive facilitation to learners, developing learners’ cognitive skills, and setting learning objectives. Another five are also followed in the textbooks, but with some variation. For instance, the textbooks focus on developing learners’ English language knowledge and skills. However, they pay more attention to language knowledge than skills, which is at odds with the recommended pedagogical policy that gives priority to developing learners’ English language skills rather than developing their language knowledge. Likewise, in line with the macro-level pedagogical policy, the textbooks
prioritise learners’ use of the target language. However, the language use they promote is less creative and more manipulative in nature. The textbooks also promote both inductive and deductive pedagogy. However, contrary to the macro-level pedagogical policy, the element of deductive pedagogy in the textbooks is more commonly in focus than an inductive pedagogy. The textbooks present a PPP model of language teaching, which is also in line with the recommended pedagogical policy. The textbooks also promote an integrated language teaching approach. However, some skills (grammar and vocabulary) are given more importance than others (writing, reading, and speaking) and the listening skill is completely neglected. Most importantly, two pedagogical principles (use of the communicative approach and collaborative learning) are not significantly promoted by the textbooks. This is at odds with the recommended pedagogical policy that puts lots of emphasis on the use of both.

Having presented the findings of the textbook analysis, I move on to the next chapter that presents findings of the classroom observations and interviews.
Chapter Seven

Findings of Classroom Observations and Post-observation Interviews

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings of the classroom observations and post-observation interviews, which were carried out to address research questions 4, 5, and 6 given below:

RQ 4: To what extent do teachers comply with the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum, and what other pedagogical practices do they use?

RQ 5: What are teachers’ rationales for the pedagogical practices they use and the pedagogical practices they resist in their English language lessons?

RQ 6: Where teachers’ pedagogical practices are not compatible with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical principles, what contextual factors account for this behaviour?

The findings of classroom observations and post-observation interviews are given below in the following order. First, I present findings based on the quantitative analysis of the classroom observation data, revealing teachers’ collective as well as individual level of compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy. While presenting teachers’ individual compliance levels, a brief discussion on the tentative relationship between teachers’ professional profiles (educational qualifications and TEFL experience) and pedagogical characteristics is also presented. Next are presented detailed descriptive accounts of the teachers’ pedagogical practices with regard to the pedagogical principles identified in the observation schedule and the ones that emerged in their own right in the classroom observation data. Further, when describing
teachers’ pedagogical practices, their rationale for the pedagogical practices they employed or resisted in their lessons and the contextual factors that account for this behaviour are also explained. Lastly, I conclude the chapter.

7.2 Findings based on quantitative analysis

As the main purpose of the classroom observation data was to explore the extent to which the teachers comply with the 15 pedagogical principles stipulated in the national curriculum, the teachers’ level of compliance with the pedagogical principles was calculated. The procedure to calculate the results quantitatively is explained in Section 4.7.4 above. The 12 teachers’ level of compliance with each of the 15 pedagogical principles in their 36 lessons and their level of compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy as a whole are given in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1: Teachers’ collective score for each pedagogical principle in 36 lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Pedagogical principle</th>
<th>Score obtained by the teachers collectively</th>
<th>Score percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
<td>2 / 72</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge</td>
<td>7 / 72</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Promoting learners’ use of English language for various academic and social purposes</td>
<td>5 / 72</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Materials adaptation</td>
<td>18 / 72</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Materials supplementation</td>
<td>30 / 72</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
<td>23 / 72</td>
<td>31.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
<td>22 / 72</td>
<td>30.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Promoting learner autonomy</td>
<td>28 / 72</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills</td>
<td>7 / 72</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Use of inductive pedagogy</td>
<td>28 / 72</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Use of deductive pedagogy</td>
<td>28 / 72</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher</td>
<td>25 / 72</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
<td>28 / 72</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
<td>30 / 72</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Lesson planning</td>
<td>32 / 72</td>
<td>44.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total score obtained for 15 pedagogical principles in 36 lesson observations</strong></td>
<td><strong>313 / 1080</strong></td>
<td><strong>29%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23 This is the total/maximum score for compliance with the 15 pedagogical principles in 36 lesson observations.
It is important to note that the total/maximum score for a pedagogical principle in 36 lesson observations was 72, since a teacher was awarded a score of 2 for showing maximum compliance with a pedagogical principle in a lesson \(36 \times 2 = 72\). Details of this calculation process are given in Section 4.7.4 above. The teachers’ percentage score for each pedagogical principle and the collective percentage score for all 15 pedagogical principles, revealing teachers’ level of compliance with each pedagogical principle and the macro-level pedagogical policy as a whole, are given in Table 7.1 above.

To categorise and evaluate the teachers’ compliance level, I devised a scale given in Table 7.2 below. The scale is adapted from the Classroom Observation Evaluation Criteria used to evaluate teachers’ pedagogical performance in the English Language Institute of King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia\(^{24}\) and is based on a generally accepted standard criterion for performance evaluation. For more information about the scale, see Sections 4.7.1 and 4.7.4 above.

Table 7.2: Scale to categorise the teachers’ level of compliance with the recommended pedagogical policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of compliance with the stipulated pedagogical policy</th>
<th>Score obtained by teachers in 36 observations</th>
<th>Score percentage</th>
<th>Total maximum score for a pedagogical principle in 36 observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>65 and above</td>
<td>90% and above</td>
<td>72 (36 \times 2 = 72)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>54 - 64</td>
<td>75% - 89%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>43 - 53</td>
<td>60% - 74%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>36 - 42</td>
<td>50% - 59%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
<td>Less than 36</td>
<td>Less than 50%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show that the teachers display an unsatisfactory level of compliance (less than a 50% score) for all 15 pedagogical principles. However, on comparing the compliance level for each principle, we find that for three principles (materials supplementation, setting and achieving learning objectives, and lesson planning) the teachers obtained comparatively higher scores (scores between 41% and 44%). Likewise, they scored comparatively higher (38.9%) for

\(^{24}\) The information about how my experience of working with the Classroom Observation Evaluation Criteria at the English Language Institute of King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia, helped me in devising the scale given in Table 7.2 below is given in Sections 4.7.1 and 4.7.4 above.
another four pedagogical principles (use of inductive pedagogy, use of deductive pedagogy, promoting learner autonomy, and reviewing learners’ learning and progress). Whereas, they obtained extremely low scores (less than 10%) for the four principles that are highly emphasised in the macro-level pedagogical policy. These four principles are: use of the communicative approach (a score of just 2.9%), developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge (9.7%), promoting learners’ use of English for various academic and social purposes (6.9%), and developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills (9.7%). Further details about these pedagogical principles are given in Section 7.3 below.

The cumulative score for all 15 pedagogical principles (29%) is also very low, revealing a very low level of compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy. However, these results are in line with Parish and Arrends (1983, cited in Karavas-Doukas, 1998, p. 26), who point out that only a small proportion, i.e., ‘approximately 20 per cent of educational innovations enjoy successful implementation.’ Likewise, the results also correspond to the warnings in the literature on innovative education programmes and language programme evaluation (e.g., Hyland & Wong, 2013; Karavas-Doukas, 1998; Li, 1998; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Waters, 2009; Waters & Vilches, 2005; Waters & Vilches, 2008; Wedell, 2003), which underscore that education innovations mostly result in non- or limited-implementation of innovations.

In addition to calculating teachers’ collective scores for, and level of compliance with, the pedagogical principles, each teacher’s individual score for each lesson and the collective score for his three lessons, revealing his individual level of compliance with the recommended pedagogical policy, were also calculated and are presented in Section 7.2.1 below.

7.2.1 Teachers’ individual scores and pedagogical characteristics

To evaluate the teachers’ individual level of compliance, their score for each observation as well as the total score for their three observations were calculated. The scores are given in Table 7.3 below. The teachers’ individual level of compliance was evaluated on the basis of the criteria given in Table 7.4 below.
Table 7.3: Teachers’ observation scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Score for observation 1</th>
<th>Score for observation 2</th>
<th>Score for observation 3</th>
<th>Total score obtained in three observations</th>
<th>Score percentage</th>
<th>Level of compliance with the pedagogical policy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>11 / 30⁺²⁵</td>
<td>16 / 30</td>
<td>18 / 30</td>
<td>45 / 90⁺²⁶</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>6 / 30</td>
<td>5 / 30</td>
<td>19 / 30</td>
<td>31 / 90</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>5 / 30</td>
<td>15 / 30</td>
<td>6 / 30</td>
<td>26 / 90</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
<td>23 / 30</td>
<td>4 / 30</td>
<td>18 / 30</td>
<td>45 / 90</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>1 / 30</td>
<td>2 / 30</td>
<td>5 / 30</td>
<td>8 / 90</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T6</td>
<td>3 / 30</td>
<td>2 / 30</td>
<td>3 / 30</td>
<td>8 / 90</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T7</td>
<td>2 / 30</td>
<td>2 / 30</td>
<td>4 / 30</td>
<td>8 / 90</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T8</td>
<td>18 / 30</td>
<td>20 / 30</td>
<td>19 / 30</td>
<td>57 / 90</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T9</td>
<td>8 / 30</td>
<td>3 / 30</td>
<td>2 / 30</td>
<td>13 / 90</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T10</td>
<td>8 / 30</td>
<td>4 / 30</td>
<td>1 / 30</td>
<td>13 / 90</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T11</td>
<td>8 / 30</td>
<td>11 / 30</td>
<td>9 / 30</td>
<td>28 / 90</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T12</td>
<td>18 / 30</td>
<td>6 / 30</td>
<td>8 / 30</td>
<td>32 / 90</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average compliance by all the teachers | 29% | Unsatisfactory

Table 7.4: Scale to categorise a teacher’s compliance with the pedagogical principles in his three lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of compliance with the stipulated pedagogical policy</th>
<th>Score obtained by a teacher</th>
<th>Score percentage</th>
<th>Total maximum score for a teacher’s three observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>81 and above</td>
<td>90% and above</td>
<td>90 (30×3 = 90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>67 - 80</td>
<td>75% - 89%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>54 - 66</td>
<td>60%-74%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>45 - 53</td>
<td>50% - 59%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
<td>Less than 45</td>
<td>Less than 50%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further, when teachers’ individual compliance level scores were crosschecked against other data available in the form of teachers’ post-observation interviews, particularly their professional profiles (educational qualifications and TEFL experience), some interesting findings emerged, revealing a tentative

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²⁵ Total maximum score for a teacher’s one observation is 30 (15×2 = 30), where 15 stands for 15 pedagogical principles and 2 is the score allocated to a teacher in case of his maximum compliance with the pedagogical principle. For further details, see Section 4.7.4 above.

²⁶ 90 is the total maximum score for a teacher’s three observations (30×3 = 90). For further details, see Section 4.7.4 above.
relationship between teachers’ professional profiles and their pedagogical characteristics. The teachers’ individual level of compliance in relation to their educational qualifications and TEFL experience are given in Table 7.5 below.

Table 7.5: Teachers’ educational qualification, TEFL experience, and observation scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Educations qualifications</th>
<th>TEFL experience (Years)</th>
<th>Score obtained in three observations</th>
<th>Score percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>M.A. English, Diploma in TEFL, B.Ed.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>M.Phil. English, M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>M.A. English, M.Ed., B.Ed.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
<td>M.A. English, M.A. TEFL, M.Ed., B.Ed.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T6</td>
<td>M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T7</td>
<td>M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T8</td>
<td>M.Phil. Islamic Studies, M.A. Islamic Studies, M.Ed., B.Ed.</td>
<td>3 English 7 General</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T9</td>
<td>M.A. Islamic Studies, M.A. Economics, B.Ed.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T10</td>
<td>M.A. Pakistan Studies, B.Ed.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T11</td>
<td>M.A. English, M.A. Education, B.Ed.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T12</td>
<td>M.A. English, B.Ed.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show that Teacher 8 (T8) got the highest score (63%) in his three observations, which reveals a good level of compliance with the recommended pedagogical policy. An interesting fact about T8 is that he did not train to teach English as a subject. He was a teacher of humanities and his area of speciality was Islamic Studies. He had done an M.A. and M.Phil. in Islamic Studies and was also a part-time Ph.D. student in Islamic Studies. He was assigned to teach English by the head-teacher because of the non-availability of an English

\[^{27}\text{In government schools in Pakistan, there are two cadres of teachers who are assigned to teach English as a subject: (i) English Subject Specialists who hold a master’s degree in English, and (ii) General Subject Specialists who hold a master’s degree in any subject of Arts and Humanities or Social Sciences. However, they have studied English up to graduation (B.A) level in their academic career, as English is taught as a compulsory subject up to graduation (B.A) level in Pakistan. In cases where there is a shortage of English Subject Specialists in a school, these General Subject Specialists are assigned to teach the subject of English.}\]
language teacher in the school. He had three years’ experience of teaching English to grade 5 and was teaching English to secondary level classes (grade 9-10) for the first time. Another interesting feature was that he was a good speaker of English and volunteered to give his post-observation interview in English, whereas some other observed teachers (T5, T6, T7, and T11), who were English subject specialists, were reluctant to speak English and gave interviews in Urdu. On the top of this, as indicated above, T8 showed the highest level of compliance with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical policy. However, his post-observation interview revealed that his high compliance score was not because of his knowledge of the macro-level pedagogical policy; rather it was partly because of the teacher-education knowledge he had obtained in his B.Ed. and M.Ed. qualifications and partly because of the influence of one of his teachers whose pedagogical style he admired when he himself was a student. Thus, his good level of compliance with the pedagogical policy cannot be attributed to his knowledge of the macro-level pedagogical policy.

Another interesting fact becomes visible to us when we examine the teachers’ individual scores with reference to their educational qualifications. It is found that T1 and T4, who got the second highest scores (50%), hold a Diploma in TEFL and an M.A. TEFL respectively. However, on comparing teachers’ scores with their teaching experience, we do not find any particular pattern. For instance, on the one hand, we find T5, T6, and T7, who have 4 to 5 years’ TEFL experience, got a very low compliance score (9%). On the other hand, we find T2 and T4, who are similarly experienced (having 3 to 4 years’ TEFL experience), scored 34% and 31% for compliance respectively. Likewise, T8, who has only 3 years’ experience of teaching English at grade 5 and was teaching English for the first time at secondary level (grade 9-10), obtained the highest score (63%). Likewise, both T1 and T4, who hold 15 years’ TEFL experience, scored 50% for compliance; whereas T9 and T10, who have 34 and 24 years’ TEFL experience respectively, scored very low (14%).

The above description of the teachers’ level of compliance with regard to their educational qualifications and TEFL experience points to various tentative relationships between teachers’ profiles and their practices emerging in the data, but also to apparent lack of relationships—for instance, the relationship between
compliance and number of years’ teaching experience. As the study does not explore any correlation between teachers’ qualifications and experience and their level of compliance with the pedagogical policy, I am neither able to present any correlational scores to validate these suggestions nor to claim the existence of any correlation between them. Nevertheless, the data presented above suggests there are no simple and predictable correlations between teachers’ professional profiles (educational qualifications and TEFL experience) and their compliance with the pedagogical policy.

In addition to the above quantitative results, detailed descriptions of the teachers’ pedagogical practices that emerged as significant in their classroom observations are presented in Section 7.3 below. The descriptions are further supplemented with the teachers’ rationale, as explained by them in their post-observation interviews, for the pedagogical practices they employed or resisted in their lessons and the contextual factors that account for this behaviour. These descriptions address research questions 5 and 6, explicating what pedagogical practices teachers followed or resisted in their lessons, their rationale, and the contextual factors compelling them to do this.

7.3 Teachers’ pedagogical practices and their rationale

In this section, I first describe teachers’ pedagogical practices with reference to the pedagogical principles identified in the observation schedule. It is worth noting that providing descriptive accounts for all 15 pedagogical principles is not possible because of space constraints. Therefore, I focus on 10 of the 15 pedagogical principles identified in the observation schedule. This is followed by a description of three noteworthy pedagogical practices that emerged in their own right in the classroom observation data and two themes (teachers’ lack of knowledge of the macro-level pedagogical policy and teacher training) that additionally emerged as significant in the interview data. Wherever necessary, the descriptive accounts are validated by citing examples and excerpts from the classroom observation data, textbook data, and interview data28. The decision

28 To ensure the authenticity of the data, the data extracts from the teachers’ interviews are cited verbatim. These extracts, at some points, feature spoken, non-standard use of English. However, to facilitate the reader’s understanding, glosses in square brackets are added wherever necessary.
to select the 10 pedagogical principles for detailed descriptive accounts is based on their importance in the national curriculum and striking results (very low and comparatively higher scores, revealing variations in teachers’ compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy) in the classroom observation data. Further, I change the order in which I present the data associated with each principle below, according to the most important principles and the most striking results. First, I present results with regard to the principles that are important but for which the teachers scored very low in terms of compliance. Then I turn to the principles that are important and for which the teachers scored comparatively higher.

7.3.1 Use of the communicative approach

The teachers achieved the lowest overall compliance score (2.8%) for this principle, which reveals their minimal use of the communicative approach in their lessons. Each textbook unit contained one to two oral group activities, but nearly all of these were skipped by the teachers. For instance, T12 in his lesson 3 skipped the textbook’s oral activity (see Figure 7.1 below) that required learners to work in groups and pairs.

![Figure 7.1: An oral activity](source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 5 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 53))

![Figure 7.2: An oral activity](source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 97))

29 The pedagogical principles’ importance in the national curriculum was determined on the basis of their frequency of occurrence (For more information, see Section 5.3 above).
Likewise, T4 in his lesson 3 skipped a group work oral activity given in the textbook (see Figure 7.2 above). Another similar instance of skipping a group work oral activity was found in T7 lesson 1. Only one teacher (T5 in his lesson 3) did a group work oral activity given in the textbook (see Figure 7.2 above). However, he did not conduct the activity in the way the textbook writers envisaged. First, he modified the group work to individual work. Second, he made learners do the activity using Urdu\textsuperscript{30} instead of English, which was at odds with the activity’s intended purpose, i.e., to provide learners opportunities to communicate in English and develop their interpersonal skills (Ministry of Education, 2006). In the post-observation interview, when I asked the teacher the reason for using Urdu and changing the group work activity to individual work, he ascribed these decisions to learners’ low proficiency in English and time constraints respectively.

![Figure 7.3: A reading comprehension task](Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 133))

The 36 observed lessons featured just two group activities (in T1 and T2’s classes). T1 in his lesson 1 asked learners to work in groups and answer the reading comprehension questions given in the book (see Figure 7.3 above). He

\textsuperscript{30} Urdu is the national language of Pakistan and is commonly used in educational domains.
assigned two questions to each group and gave them five minutes to work together. Likewise, T2 in his lesson 3 formed learners’ groups and gave cue cards to each group with five sentences written on them. He then asked learners to work in groups and identify the transitive and intransitive verbs and direct and indirect objects in the given sentences. However, on both occasions, the learners were unable to move and form groups because of the fixed desks. They could only work collaboratively with the learner sitting next to them on the same desk. Hence, in this way, the intended group work turned into pair work. In sum, all 36 lessons revealed teachers’ minimal use of the communicative approach. Learners’ participation in the learning process in the majority of the lessons was done via individual work.

In the post-observation interviews, when I asked teachers about their minimal use of learner-centred activities in their lessons, they attributed this to the following constraints: (i) large classes, (ii) discipline issues, (iii) time constraints, (iv) learners’ low proficiency in English, (v) learners’ lack of interest in pair/group work, (vi) fixed desks, and (vii) lack of facilities, such as the facility to print handouts and the lack of audio-visual aids including projectors and screens. In this regard, an illustrative comment from T1 is as follows:

Pair and group work are least in our classroom. You know, we don't allow our students to go for pair work or group work. One reason is to maintain the discipline and the other is we don’t have such facilities in our classroom, and the third most important reason is that they can’t do the things by themselves. If they do things in a wrong way, the teacher doesn't have so much time that he may check all the students and he may correct them. So, that’s why teachers avoid pair work and group work in the classroom. (T1)

With regard to the issue of large classes, seven teachers (T1, T3, T4, T6, T7, T9, and T12) explained that the class size varies from 50 to 100 students. They elaborated that doing learner-centred activities in such large classes is problematic, since it creates discipline issues. Involving learners in learner-centred activities causes noise, which disturbs the neighbouring classes. The head-teachers and the teachers teaching in the neighbouring classes do not want the classes to be noisy. Consequently, the teachers feel disinclined to use learner-centred activities in the class. In this regard, T6 and T9 further explained that the only viable option for them in such situations is to take the class outside (to the school grounds), which results in a waste of time, as a lesson
lasts only 30-35 minutes. Eight teachers (T1, T4, T5, T7, T8, T9, T11, and T12) identified time constraints as a hindering factor in doing learner-centred activities. They explained when learners are asked to work in groups and pairs, lots of time is wasted in managing them. Hence, they avoid using learner-centred activities in their lessons.

Another reason teachers reported for their minimal use of the learner-centred activities in their English language lessons is learners’ low proficiency in English, which then leads to learners’ lack of interest in pair and group work. The teachers explained that when learners are asked to work in pairs or groups and talk to each other in English, they either start talking to each other in Urdu or mostly only one learner works, and the others sit idle and show a lack of interest in the activity. Hence, they prefer their learners to work individually, because they want all of them to be involved in the work. For instance, T12 expressed this as follows:

I prefer students work individually. If we have a group of four students, only one student will work and the other will be lazy and just see him. They sit idle. They don’t want to work. [...] So, I always prefer students to work one by one … (T12)

T5 also reported similar reasons for changing the group work activity given in the book to individual work and making learners use the Urdu language to perform the activity, though it was at odds with the intended purpose of the activity, i.e., to develop learners’ English oral and interpersonal skills.

Additionally, teachers reported a lack of facilities and inappropriate seating arrangements in the form of fixed desks as some other reasons that inhibit their use of learner-centred activities in their lessons. In this regard, some illustrative comments from T2, T3, T4, and T12 are as follows:

In the classes, sitting [seating] arrangement is made in a way that it is difficult for the students to move and work in groups. (T3)

Desks are welded and they can’t be moved. There are no chairs that can be dragged to sit in a group and work together. (T4)

In my opinion, there is no proper sitting [seating] arrangement in our classrooms. (T12)

Sorry to say we don’t have any screen, LCD, and multimedia or projector sort of things that are really helpful for English language learning, especially if we are teaching them the English language skills. (T2)
7.3.2 Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge

The teachers achieved a very low overall compliance score (9.7%) for this principle, which reveals their extreme deviation from this principle, i.e., they mainly focused on developing learners’ English language knowledge and paid minimal attention to their English language skills. Evidence of the teachers paying more attention to English language knowledge is seen by the fact that of the 36 lessons, 13 were devoted to teaching grammar, such as tenses, passive voice, narration, and parts of speech; seven lessons were devoted to teaching translation (translating the lesson text from English to Urdu); and three were devoted to translation and vocabulary teaching.

As for the four language skills, only reading was focused on. Nine lessons were devoted to reading comprehension. However, of those nine, only four were solely devoted to teaching reading comprehension; the rest were partly devoted to teaching reading comprehension. Further, the reading skill was not taught properly in those lessons. The teacher neither told learners about skimming and/or scanning (the two essential reading subskills) nor did they make learners practise either of these skills. Instead, teachers mostly dictated the answers of the reading comprehension questions to learners. To exemplify, some excerpts from the field notes are cited below:

Though the primary focus of the lesson was on developing learners’ reading comprehension skills, the teacher did not seem to have achieved the desired aim because of using an inappropriate method of instruction. The reading comprehension was not done properly. The teacher neither mentioned whether learners needed to do skimming or scanning or both nor made them do both the processes. He made the lesson completely teacher-centred, as he himself kept answering the comprehension questions and did not provide learners any opportunity to do the work on their own. (T4 lesson 2)

The reading comprehension was not done properly. The teacher did not mention at all whether learners needed to do skimming or scanning or both. (T1 lesson 1)

Other instances of the lessons revealing such inappropriate teaching of the reading skill are: T2 lesson 2, T4 lesson 3, T5 lesson 3, T6 lesson 1, and T9 lesson 2. On exploring the reason for this in the post-observation interviews, it was found that of the six teachers who taught reading comprehension five teachers did not focus on teaching skimming or scanning, but rather focused solely on having students practise answering comprehension questions, as they would
need to in the exams. The only thing the teachers did was to tell learners the answers to the reading comprehension questions to enable them to get marks in the exams as a reading comprehension task is given in the exams. For example, T2 reported this as follows:

First of all we don’t have any idea whether we are going to do this comprehension by using the skimming technique or scanning technique, but I have told you that we’re just focused on how to get good marks. So my students have just to write down the true answers of these questions. (T2)

Only one teacher (T8), in his lesson 2, taught the reading skill properly. This is evident from the fact that he first told learners clearly about what reading comprehension involves, including both skimming and scanning, and then made them do the reading comprehension task themselves. The learners also participated actively and completed the reading comprehension task successfully.

Of the 36 lessons, only two (T6 lesson 3 and T11 lesson 3) focused on the writing skill (letter and summary writing respectively). However, even in those lessons, the focus was not on creative writing; rather learners were asked to write both letter and summary via memorisation, as revealed to me by the teachers in their post-observation interviews. Likewise, of the 36 lessons, none was focused on the speaking skill as a whole. The three instances of promoting learners’ speaking skills noted in three lessons (T5 lesson 3 and T4 lesson 1 and lesson 3) were also very brief (3-4 minutes only). For example, T5 in his lesson 3 asked learners to make sentences orally, using five words given as both verbs and nouns in the textbook (see Figure 7.4 below).

C. Use the following words in sentences first as verbs and then as nouns.

- care, walk, surprise, request, need, state

Examples

- First go straight, then **turn** left. (verb)
- It is my **turn** now. (noun)

Figure 7.4: A sentence-making work plan
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 98)
T4 in his lesson 1 asked learners to answer the reading comprehension questions orally. However, it was interesting to note that when doing this his primary intention was not to improve learners’ speaking skill, but it was done because of some contextual constraints. The teacher explained in the interview that the reason for asking learners to answer the reading comprehension questions orally was that the answers were quite long and ‘it was not possible to write down all the answers on the whiteboard’ (T4). Lastly, it is important to note that even the above-given very brief instances of the speaking skill did not serve any communicative purpose, since they neither involved learners in real-life-like use of English nor did they involve learners in any meaningful interaction, which, according to the CLT approach, is the basic tenet for promoting learners’ communicative competence (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

On being asked about paying little attention to developing learners’ English language skills, the teachers not only affirmed this but also explained three main reasons for this lack of emphasis: (i) little relevance of the language skills to the exams, (ii) learners’ low proficiency in English, and (iii) teachers’ belief that if learners’ knowledge of the English language is developed, the skills will develop automatically.

The teachers reported that the examinations do not assess learners’ language skills. They explained that a substantial part of the examination paper includes questions related to grammar, vocabulary, and translation (English to Urdu and Urdu to English). The listening and speaking skills are completely ignored in the exams. The reading and writing skills are assessed, but learners answer these questions on the basis of memorisation, not by applying their creative writing skills. This is partly because of learners’ low proficiency in English and partly because of how the examination is designed. For example, teachers explained that the reading comprehension paragraph and questions that are given in the exams are taken from the textbook only: ‘No unseen reading comprehension paragraph is given in the exams’ (T6). So, learners memorise the answers to the reading comprehension questions and reproduce them in the exams. Doing this, they can get maximum marks. Teachers also encourage learners to memorise the answers, because if learners answer the questions by applying their creative writing skills, they make many mistakes and ultimately
lose marks in the exams. In this regard, two illustrative comments from T1 and T2 are as follows:

In reading comprehension, I ask my students to find out the questions [look at the answers they have been provided in the book]. But when they find out the questions, I ask them to cram them. I do not ask them to write by themselves, because actually the need is to get good marks and good marks are secured by the students only if they are not making mistakes in their exam. Mistakes are considered, you know, a loss for the student. That is why we do not give them a free hand to write by themselves. Their ideas, their own sentence structures, and their own choice of vocabulary is avoided. (T1)

But my students, and all the students, I think, are not capable enough to answer the questions themselves. So, they have to memorise it, they have to cram it. (T2)

Likewise, teachers explained that the questions to assess learners’ writing skills, such as writing a summary, a letter, and an essay, are given in the exams. But again, they are based on the material and topics given in the textbook. Learners memorise these topics and reproduce them in the exams. For example, T1 reported this as follows:

Even if they are writing essays, they learn essays by heart and then they transfer it on the paper. They don’t try to write the sentences or paragraphs by themselves. And the same, if they are writing a story, they learn it by heart, they cram it, and then they write it on the paper. They don’t try their own creative ability, and we also don’t encourage them to create, to write, sentences or paragraphs by themselves. (T1)

The teachers further explained that learners’ main target is to get good marks in the exams, which they can obtain even if they are not proficient users of English. Hence, they argued, when learners’ assessment involves only a minimal requirement to develop their language skills, with good exam marks being possible to obtain without focusing on their language skills, why should teachers focus on developing learners’ language skills? To exemplify this, two illustrative comments from T12 are as follows:

We don’t give importance to the four English language skills. They have no importance. They are not tested in the exam... So, they have no importance. They are not included in the examination. That’s why, in my opinion, we do not give importance to these four basic skills. (T12)

We teach the students just to [make them] pass the exams...We do not give importance to the English language. We just teach English to [make the learners] pass the exams. (T12)

Another reason for teachers paying little attention to developing learners’ language skills is their pedagogical beliefs. Some teachers expressed their belief
that knowledge is more important than skills and once learners develop their knowledge of the English language, their language skills will develop on their own. For example, T7 explained that he pays more attention to the teaching of vocabulary and grammar rules because if his learners develop a good understanding of these two aspects, they will be able to develop their language skills easily.

7.3.3 Promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes

The teachers achieved a very low overall compliance score (6.9%) concerning this principle, which reveals their extreme deviation from the ideal operational form for this principle, i.e., learners were provided minimal opportunities for real-life-like use of English in the class to foster their use of English for various academic and social purposes. Only four lessons showed some use of English for academic purposes. In those lessons, teachers made learners answer the reading comprehension questions, which provided them some opportunity for the use of English for academic purposes. Learners were given no opportunity to use English for social purposes.

As for the use of English for academic purposes, each textbook unit contained two to three work plans to promote learners’ academic/creative writing skills, but those work plans were skipped by the teachers on the grounds of their irrelevance to the exams. For instance, T4 in his lesson 3 skipped two academic writing tasks given in the book: (i) write a summary of the unit and (ii) write a personal narrative (see Figure 7.5 below). Likewise, T1 in his lesson 1, when teaching the exercise of a unit, skipped two creative writing tasks that required learners to (i) write a character sketch using a mind map and (ii) write a review of a story (see Figure 7.6 below).

Figure 7.5: A writing task
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 102)
Each textbook unit also contained one to two oral activities to promote learners’ real-life-like oral use of English, but again the teachers skipped all such activities in their lessons on the grounds of their irrelevance to the exams. For instance, T1 in his lesson 1 skipped an oral activity that required learners to work in groups, communicate with each other, and make an oral presentation. T4 also in his lesson 3 skipped a group work oral activity given in the textbook (see Figure 7.7 below). Another similar instance was found in T5 lesson 3, when the teacher made learners do the oral activity (see Figure 7.7 below) in Urdu instead of English, which was at odds with the purpose of the task, i.e. to improve learners’ English oral and interpersonal skills.
On being asked the reason for doing so, the teacher ascribed it to learners’ low proficiency in English, believing that the learners would not have been capable of performing the task in English. Some other similar instances of skipping writing and oral tasks were found in T5 lesson 3, T7 lesson 1, and T12 lesson 3. Hence, the above description and examples reveal that the teachers paid little attention to developing learners’ real-life-like use of English to perform various academic and social tasks.

On exploring the reasons for paying minimal attention to promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes, the teachers highlighted three main reasons: (i) examination constraints, (ii) social constraints, and (iii) learners’ low proficiency in English. With reference to examination constraints, the teachers argued that the exams do not include any element of assessing learners’ real-life-like use of English. Hence, neither learners nor teachers feel inclined to improve learners’ real-life-like use of English. For example, T1 reported:

> It is the examination of memory; it is the examination of cramming; it is not the examination of students’ skills, or a student’s proficiency in English. (T1)

T9 and T10 also explained that the assessment of learners’ real-life-like use of English is neither included in the exams nor is there any mechanism to assess learners’ real-life-like use of English in the class. That is why they focus on those aspects only that are important from the examination point of view. According to teachers, learners’ main academic need is just to pass the exams and get good marks, which they can achieve if they pay attention to a few aspects, such as grammar, vocabulary, and translation work. For example, T12 expressed this as follows:
Students are not interested in learning language skills, rather they just want to [make] clear the concept and pass the exams and want to get good marks. (T12)

As for social constraints, six teachers (T1, T3, T4, T6, T10, and T11) stated that the learners who attend government schools mostly belong to the working class. They neither need English in their social context nor in their future prospects, as they are likely to go into low status jobs where they would not need English in their social circle. Hence, there is no need to emphasise the real-life-like use of English for social purposes. In this regard, an illustrative comment from T1 is as follows:

Socially, they don't use English language and even at the workplace after their education where they go for earning, they don't need English language, and that's why, you know, we don't emphasise on their listening and speaking skills. (T1)

Likewise, T7 and T11 expressed that English is not used widely in society, being used only by a very small section of society, i.e., the higher social classes. They stated that the average man on the street does not use even Urdu, the national language, in their everyday life. They use their local/regional languages. So, there is no need to promote learners’ use of English for social purposes.

Thirdly, teachers highlighted learners’ low proficiency in English as an impediment in their real-life-like use of English. They reported that learners’ proficiency level in English is so low that they are even unable to understand it when it is spoken in front of them. In this regard, T5, T9, and T11 claimed that some learners face difficulty even in using Urdu and prefer to use their local language for everyday communication. Hence, on account of these reasons, they do not focus on developing learners’ English language use for social purposes. However, two teachers (T1 and T4) stated that when learners themselves speak English in the class, they encourage them to speak. In this regard, two illustrative comments from T1 are as follows:

...for social purposes, we encourage the students ...I especially appreciate those students who use the English language in the classroom and outside the classroom. But you know there is no specific kind of...you can say...promotion of English language outside the classroom. (T1)

Yes, when they use themselves, we encourage and appreciate. But we don’t insist them to use the English language outside the classroom in their social environment. It is only the love of learning in a student which makes him use English outside the classroom and in his social environment. (T1)
7.3.4 Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills

The teachers achieved a very low overall compliance score (9.7%) concerning this principle. Each textbook unit contained one to two work plans that focused on promoting learners’ cognitive skills, but the teachers skipped these work plans. For instance, when teaching the exercise of a unit, T1 in his lesson 1 skipped two work plans that required learners to practice their higher order cognitive skills: (i) analyse the elements of the story using a story map (see Figure 7.8 below) and (ii) ‘arrange the events from the story into the graphic organiser showing time sequence’ (see Figure 7.9 below) (Kiyani, 2017, pp. 133-134). Both analyse and arrange fall under the category of ‘Analyse’—one of the higher order cognitive skills in Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive development (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). Likewise, T7 in his lesson 1 skipped an analytical skill activity that required learners to identify words, phrases or sentences that showed cause and effect relationship in the unit text. Some other examples of skipping cognitive skills related work plans were found in T4 lesson 3 and T12 lesson 3. The only method the teachers used to involve learners in an analytical and critical thinking process was cross-questioning them during the teaching and learning process and exploring their rationale critically for the answers they gave.

B. Analyze elements of the story “Great Expectations” with the help of following story map.

![Story Map](image)

Figure 7.8: A cognitive skill activity/work plan
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 133)
When asked about cognitive skills in the post-observation interviews, the teachers affirmed they skip cognitive skills work plans in the class. For example, T3 said, ‘these are not done in the class.’ On being asked the reasons for skipping the cognitive skills work plans, the teachers underscored two main reasons: (i) cognitive skills’ lack of relevance to the exams, and (ii) learners’ low proficiency in English. According to teachers, learners do not need higher order cognitive skills, such as critical or analytical skills and creative use of English in their exams. The only thing learners need is to pass the exams and get good marks, which they can achieve by simply applying lower order cognitive skills, such as memorisation (in the case of the writing skill), understanding (in the case of grammatical aspects), and application of the learnt knowledge (in the case of questions linked with grammar and translation work). Therefore, teachers said they pay little attention to developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills. In this regard, some illustrative comments from T1 and T12 are as follows:

We don't put any kind of efforts to improve their [learners’] creative skills in the English language. (T1)

Yeah, these creative writing activities, which are included in the book, are not included in the examination. In the examination, we don’t have such questions. So, I skipped these activities because this was a wastage of time for the students. (T1)
I skipped them because these are not related to the examination. These are not given in the paper. (T12)

The teachers highlighted learners’ low proficiency in English as a reason for not paying attention to developing their creative writing skills. For instance, T2 and T6 reported that though learners are asked to write a letter and an essay in the exams, which principally require creative writing, mostly learners are unable to write them creatively because of their low proficiency in English. In this regard, T6 and T11 further explained that some learners are too weak in English to even write their name or spell the words properly in English. Therefore, they neither give learners any training in creative writing nor do they want them to do creative writing in the exams. Instead, they make learners memorise the essays and letters and reproduce these memorised texts verbatim in the exams, which should ensure a passing grade.

7.3.5 Materials adaptation

The teachers achieved an overall compliance score of 25% for this principle. They mostly followed their textbook as it is. However, some adaptations in the form of omission and modification (cf. McDonough et al., 2013) were observed in the lessons.

Omission occurred in the form of skipping exercises and activities, particularly the ones that involved speaking, creative writing, and analytical and critical thinking skills. For instance, T1 in his lesson 1, when teaching the exercise of a textbook unit, skipped two critical thinking activities (see Figures 7.8 and 7.9 above), two creative writing activities (see Figure 7.5 above), and one oral communication activity (see Figure 7.10 below) given in the unit. Likewise, T4 in his lesson 3 skipped a group work oral activity (see Figure 7.11 below) and two academic writing tasks given in the book: (i) write a summary of the unit and (ii) write a personal narrative (see Figure 7.12 below)

![ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS](image)

Work in groups and make a presentation on story elements of “Great Expectations”.

Figure 7.10: A speaking skill group work activity
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 137)
Similarly, T12 in his lesson 3, when teaching the exercise of a textbook unit, skipped a vocabulary exercise, a speaking skill activity (see Figure 7.13 below), and a reading comprehension task (see Figure 7.14 below).
T5 also in his lesson 3, when teaching the exercise of a unit, skipped an activity that required learners to identify the idioms and phrases given in the unit and use them in their own sentences. Some more similar instances of omission were found in T7 lesson 1.

On being asked the reasons for skipping these activities, the teachers pointed out two main reasons: (i) time constraints and (ii) little relevance of the activities/tasks to the exams. For example, five teachers (T1, T5, T7, T10, and T12) reported that they do not have enough time to cover every aspect of the syllabus. So, they focus on only those topics that are particularly important from the examination viewpoint. The teachers explained that the examinations in their present form do not assess learners’ speaking, creative writing, and analytical and critical thinking skills. Hence, they skip all those topics, exercises, and activities that are irrelevant to the exams. In this regard, some illustrative comments from T1 and T12 are as follows:

We teach the students only those things that are needed to get good marks in the examinations. Otherwise we skip those things. (T1)

I skipped many of the things because they were not important from the examination point of view. Whatever I taught to the learners were important from the examination point of view. (T12)

Modification mostly occurred when teaching vocabulary. The textbook presents four strategies for vocabulary teaching:

i. teaching vocabulary items via presenting their synonyms in English;
ii. explaining the meanings of the English vocabulary items in English;
iii. asking learners to understand the meaning of the English vocabulary items via the sentences (linguistic context) in which they are used;
iv. asking learners to use vocabulary items in their own sentences.

None of the teachers followed strategy (ii), (iii), and (iv), and only one teacher (T7) in his lesson 1 followed strategy (i). Instances of skipping the above-given vocabulary teaching strategies were found in T1 lesson 2, T3 lesson 1, T5 lesson 1, T6 lesson 1, T7 lesson 1, and T9 lesson 3. Contrary to these strategies, the teachers taught vocabulary by following a translation method. They presented the Urdu counterparts for the English vocabulary items. To exemplify, an excerpt from the field notes for T9 lesson 3 is presented in Figure 7.15 below:
On being asked the reasons for using this translation method for vocabulary teaching, the teachers attributed this to learners' low proficiency in English and their examination needs. Three teachers (T3, T5, and T11) explained if vocabulary items are taught by presenting their synonyms in English or by explaining their meanings in English, learners face difficulty in understanding them. Secondly, providing students with the target words' meanings in Urdu helps learners in translation (English to Urdu and Urdu to English), which is the focus of two questions in the exams. To exemplify, T3's response to a question about using the translation method for vocabulary teaching is as follows:

...our main purpose is to make students understand. How can they understand it? I taught them in Urdu because they will have to translate English into Urdu in the examination. (T3)

Another form of modification took place with regard to the reading skill. None of the teachers followed the pre-reading activities given in the book. Only one teacher (T2 in his lesson 1) used a pre-reading activity, but different from the one given in the book. Instead of having learners brainstorm using the pre-reading activity given in the book (see Figure 7.16 below), the teacher played video clips of the novel “Great Expectations” the lesson was about. Showing the

![Figure 7.15: Field notes (T9 lesson 3) - teaching English vocabulary via translation method](image-url)
video clips, he introduced learners to the novel’s main characters, briefly summarised the novel, and did the pre-reading brainstorming with the learners.

Figure 7.16: A pre-reading activity
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 11 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 129)

On being asked the reasons for modifying the pre-reading activity, the teacher answered that they are free to adapt materials keeping in view their learners’ needs. He further explained that he not only adapts materials but also uses audio-visual aids, which help his learners to understand the topic in a better way. T5 also in his lesson 3 modified an oral group activity given in the book (see Figure 7.17 below) into an individual task. Further, instead of making learners use English to perform the task he made them use Urdu, which was at odds with the requirement and purpose of the task, i.e. to make learners speak English and improve their English oral skills. On being asked the reason for doing this in the post-observation interview, the teacher ascribed this decision to learners’ low proficiency in English.

Figure 7.17: A speaking skill group work activity
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 97)

7.3.6 Materials supplementation

The teachers achieved an overall compliance score of 41.7% for this principle. With reference to materials supplementation, two points arose as significant in the data:
i. Supplementation occurred mostly in grammar lessons (N=13). Other lessons, which mainly comprised teaching reading comprehension (N=9) and translation of the lesson text from English to Urdu and vocabulary teaching (N=11), were predominantly based on the textbook. However, T2 was an exception in this regard. He used audio-visual aids (short videos, cue cards, and handouts) as supplementary materials not only in his grammar lesson but also in the other two lessons that focused on reading and translation. In this regard, two excerpts from the memos for T2’s two lessons, explaining his use of supplementary materials, are given below:

Along with using the textbook, the teacher made considerable use of supplementary materials from the sources other than the textbook. He made a good use of audio-visual aids to introduce the lesson and making learners’ concepts clear. For example, as a warm-up activity, he played the video of the novel “Great Expectations” and showed some video clips from that to describe the story of the novel to learners. He also made effective use of whiteboard to describe the main characters of the novel. Likewise, he used handouts/charts containing information about Charles Dickens (the author of the novel) and the map of the UK through which he explained to learners the difference between England and Great Britain. (T2 lesson 1)

... He also used cue cards for the group work activity. Each card contained five sentences. The learners were asked to work in groups and identify transitive and intransitive verbs and direct and indirect objects in the given sentences... (T2 lesson 3)

T4 also in his lesson 2 that focused on teaching reading comprehension used a guidebook, ‘Bright English Grammar,’ as supplementary material.

ii. The supplementation that took place in the grammar lessons was more a supplementation of knowledge than materials supplementation, as all the teachers delivered their grammar lessons mostly without the help of the textbook, using only a whiteboard as a teaching resource. A very limited use of the textbook took place in only three of the 13 grammar lessons. In those lessons the teachers used the formS-focused grammar exercises given in the book to give learners practice of the particular grammatical feature. Of the 10 grammar lessons, the use of audio-visual aids (short videos and cue cards) as supplementary materials featured in only two lessons by two teachers (T2 and T9). T2 used cue cards in his lesson 3, when teaching transitive and intransitive verbs. Each cue card contained five sentences. The learners were asked to work in groups and identify transitive and intransitive verbs and direct and indirect objects in the given sentences. Likewise, T9 in his lesson
1, when teaching participles, played native-speaker English teachers’ two YouTube videos, explaining the use of participles.

With regard to textbook use and materials supplementation, the majority of the teachers reported that the prescribed textbooks are sufficient to meet their and their learners’ needs. They stated that they are free to add supplementary materials, but they seldom do so because the examinations are primarily based on the textbook and whatever is given in the book is enough for learners to obtain maximum marks in the exams, which is their main learning objective. In this regard, two illustrative comments from T1 are as follows:

Most of the time we don’t need other resources. We have a textbook, which is good. We can utilise it in a proper way in the classroom... (T1)

We don’t use other resources which are outside the classroom. We don’t use those resources. We use only the book. (T1)

However, T2, who supplemented his lessons with additional materials in the form of videos, charts, and cue cards, claimed that the use of supplementary materials helps learners to understand the topic in a better way. When asked how often he supplements materials, he reported ‘sometimes’. He further explained that he wants to do it often but is unable to do so because of the lack of resources in the school. Likewise, T9, who used two native-speaker English teachers’ YouTube videos in his lesson 1 to teach participles, also argued in favour of the use of supplementary materials, stating they are useful for learners’ better understanding of the topic. However, he also said that he supplements such videos in his grammar lessons only and does so sometimes.

As for not using the textbook in the grammar lessons, all the teachers expressed their belief that there is no need for a textbook when teaching grammar. They explained that for teaching grammar a teacher’s knowledge and conceptual understanding of the topic is important. If a teacher has knowledge and understanding of the topic, they do not need a book. In this regard, some illustrative comments from T2, T3, and T12 are as follows:

Grammar could be taught from anywhere. I think so. Grammar is a concept-based thing [...] If I think I am good at teaching grammar, so, I mean, I am fine. It is sufficient that I am giving them whatever they need. (T2)

There is no need to have a textbook in a grammar period. (T3)
I want to say that in grammar topic, in my opinion, there is no need of any kind of book. [...] If you have clear concept about the topic and you have command over the topic, you have to deliver it. (T12)

Further, two teachers (T3 and T10) claimed that their teaching experience has made them capable enough to teach grammar without using a textbook:

We are experienced to teach grammar. I’ve been teaching grammar for the last 15 years. I don’t need a book or any other notes or resources to teach grammar. (T3)

However, two teachers (T1 and T2) regarded the textbook as a helpful resource for giving learners practice of the grammar topic. For example, T1 said:

For practice, I need a book. [...] I ask them to practice from the book in the end. (T1)

### 7.3.7 Use of inductive pedagogy

The teachers achieved an overall compliance score of 38.9% for this principle. In 10 lessons, the teachers involved learners in inductive learning processes (e.g., self-discovery and inquiry-based learning) to a considerable degree. They made learners learn by exploring their previous knowledge, and it was done via scaffolding and eliciting learners’ prior knowledge and information about the topic. To exemplify the teachers’ use of inductive pedagogy, an excerpt from the use of inductive pedagogy section of the memo written for T1 lesson 2 is given below:

The teacher considerably involved learners in inductive learning processes. He invited learners in turn, made them translate the text from English to Urdu, and helped them only when they needed assistance. While discussing grammar (differentiating between present and past tense and explaining the use of past participle in passive constructions), he regularly asked questions, elicited information from learners, and made them explore their prior knowledge.... Likewise, while teaching vocabulary, the teacher elicited the meanings of English vocabulary items from the learners. (T1 lesson 2)

In eight lessons, teachers involved learners in inductive learning to some extent. For example, T11 in his lesson 2, when teaching passive voice, made some use of an inquiry-based learning strategy. He involved learners in inductive learning by asking questions and eliciting their prior knowledge of passive voice. Likewise, T12 in his lesson 2, when teaching a poem, asked learners about the rhyming words and made them identify the rhyming words. Similarly, T12 in his lesson 3 used an inquiry-based learning strategy and elicited learners’ prior knowledge about collective nouns, conjunctions, and participles.
In 17 lessons, inductive learning processes were minimally used. In such lessons, teachers neither elicited knowledge and answers from learners nor made them do the work themselves. This pedagogy can be illustrated by citing the example of T5, who, when teaching the exercise of a unit in his lesson 3, did not let learners do any of the tasks. Instead, he dictated all the work to learners himself. He explained the meanings of vocabulary items, dictated the answers of the reading comprehension questions (see Figure 7.18 below), and also rearranged the sentences in correct sequence (see Figure 7.19 below).

![Figure 7.18: Reading comprehension questions](source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 97))

![Figure 7.19: A work plan for rearranging the sentences in correct sequence](source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 98))

The interview data revealed that the teachers’ views were in line with their pedagogical practices regarding the use of inductive pedagogy. The teachers who had exhibited the use of inductive pedagogy in their lessons
believed in it as an appropriate instructional approach and regarded it as important for learners’ learning. For example, when asked about the use of inductive pedagogy, such as self-discovery and inquiry-based learning, T1 expressed his belief in inductive pedagogy and its use in his teaching as follows:

This is my first love, means I always encourage my students to learn by themselves, to make their own rules, and to solve their problem themselves. (T1)

Yes, I always try my best that the students should use their own brain and they should make their own rules for grammar as well as if they are going to solve some kind of problems in language, they should also use their mind, and in that way, they get better understanding. (T1)

If the students are not involved in the lesson, then they won't be able to learn anything. (T1)

Likewise, T8 also expressed his preference for inductive pedagogy. He said, ‘I always like those teachers who involve learners in the learning process.’ T8 explained that he uses inductive pedagogy because he wants his learners to be confident and independent. T11 also claimed that the use of inductive pedagogy makes ‘learners participate in the lesson’ and keeps them active and alert in the lesson.

The use of inductive pedagogy particularly featured more in grammar lessons. The quantitative figures of the use of inductive pedagogy evidenced in different lessons are given in Table 7.6 below:

Table 7.6: ‘Use of inductive pedagogy’ principle in different lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of lessons observed</th>
<th>Grammar lessons</th>
<th>Reading comprehension lessons</th>
<th>Translation (English to Urdu) lessons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of lessons observed</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of lessons that featured considerable use of inductive pedagogy in line with the national curriculum recommendations</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of lessons that featured some use of inductive pedagogy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of lessons that featured the use of inductive pedagogy</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When asked about the reasons for the more frequent use of inductive pedagogy in grammar lessons, teachers explained that the use of inductive pedagogy proves helpful in developing learners’ understanding of grammatical concepts. For example, T12 and T1 commented as follows:

In grammar, you know, when you do not involve students; you will be unable to [make] clear the [concept of] narration. I also involved the students. I again and again asked them questions about narration, because I wanted to [make] clear their concepts of narration. (T12)

The real purpose is to make their mind active and to make them able to make their own rules for themselves. I never believe in spoon feeding for grammar or any other lesson. I just use the energies of my students, the talents of my students. If there is need, then I just tell them. (T1)

In contrast, the teachers (e.g., T3 and T12) who used two different methods of instruction in their different lessons (an inductive method in one lesson and a deductive method in another) explained that their method of instruction varied in relation to learners’ grade and their previous learning. For example, T3 reported that the reason for using an inductive, inquiry-based learning strategy with the grade 10 learners in his lesson 2 was that he had already taught them the topic of present indefinite tense the previous year when they were in grade 9. Whereas he preferred a deductive method of instruction when teaching narration to the grade 9 learners in his lesson 3 because he did not teach them this topic previously. T12 also presented a similar reason for using two different methods of instruction in his different lessons.

On the other hand, the teachers who made minimal use of inductive pedagogy attributed this to various reasons, such as large classes, time constraints, and discipline issues. For example, T6 and T9, who had 100 and 92 students in their classes respectively, reported when they involve learners in inductive learning processes, such as problem-solving, and make them work together, the learners pay less attention to the assigned task and start talking to each other, which produces a lot of noise and creates discipline issues in the class. Likewise, five teachers (T1, T4, T5, T7, and T11) highlighted the time constraints issue, explaining that the syllabus is too lengthy to be covered in the stipulated time using an inductive pedagogical approach. Further explanation of this point is given below in Section 7.3.8 that elaborates on teachers’ use of deductive pedagogy.
7.3.8 Use of deductive pedagogy

The overall compliance score for deductive pedagogy (38.9%) is also the same as for inductive pedagogy. The ideal operational form as per the curriculum stipulations for this principle in the observation schedule is that the teacher makes prudent use of deductive pedagogy, does not make his class completely teacher-centred, and provides practice opportunities to learners. Of the 36 lessons, 10 showed a selective and prudent use of deductive pedagogy. In these lessons, the teachers provided explicit instruction and explanation only when necessary, and also provided practice opportunities to learners. For example, T3 in his lesson 3, when teaching present indefinite tense, utilised an inquiry-based learning strategy during the first 15 minutes of the lesson and explored learners’ prior knowledge about present indefinite tense and noun-verb agreement. Then he devoted the next eight minutes to the presentation stage in which he used a deductive approach and explained the rules for forming affirmative, negative, and interrogative sentences of present indefinite tense. During the last 12 minutes of the lesson, he involved learners in the practice of forming the sentences featuring present indefinite tense and again made the class learner centred.

In contrast, eight lessons featured more than the required use of deductive pedagogy as per curriculum specifications. This is explained by giving the example of T10’s lesson 1, in which the teacher mainly used an explicit instruction method to teach the rules for forming the sentences featuring present, past, and future indefinite tenses and made some use of questioning (inquiry-based learning) to explore learners’ prior knowledge of the tenses and to involve them in the learning process. For example, see the excerpt from the field notes for T10 lesson 1 given in Figure 7.20 below. The excerpt reveals that the teacher mainly used an explicit instruction method to explain the rules for forming the sentences of past and future indefinite tenses. However, he also made some use of questioning (inquiry-based learning strategy) and involved learners in the learning process inductively.
However, 17 lessons were completely teacher-centred. In those lessons, the teachers made excessive use of explicit instruction and offered learners minimal opportunities to participate in the learning process. For example, T7 in his lesson 3 delivered a teacher-centred lesson. He neither involved learners in
the learning process nor let them do any of the tasks themselves. Instead, he dictated all the work to learners himself. He explained the meanings of vocabulary items, dictated the answers of the reading comprehension questions (see Figure 7.21 below), and explained the use of subordinating conjunctions to learners (see Figure 7.22 below).

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**READING COMPREHENSION**

A. **Answer the following questions.**

1. Which areas are most affected by incessant growth in population?
2. Why are developing countries going to suffer more due to over population?
3. What is the major cause of food shortages and malnutrition?
4. How are water resources under great stress?
5. What is the effect of depletion of fossil energy?
6. What is the limitation of improved technology?
7. How can sufficient food supply be made possible for the future generation?
8. What strategies should be adopted for safe future?

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**Figure 7.21: Reading comprehension questions**

Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 12 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 144)

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**GRAMMAR**

**Subordinating Conjunctions**

Subordinating conjunctions connect two groups of words by making one into a subordinating clause.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Cause and Effect</th>
<th>Contrast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>after, when, until, soon, before, once, while, as soon as, whenever, by the time</td>
<td>if, whether or not, provided, in case, unless, even if, in the event</td>
<td>because, as, since, in order that, now that, as much as</td>
<td>though, while, although, whereas, even though</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Figure 7.22: A grammar (subordinating conjunctions) task**

Source: ELT Textbook Grade 10 Unit 12 (Kiyani, 2017, p. 145)
Likewise, T6 in his lesson 3, when teaching letter writing, provided learners explicit instruction about the structure of a letter and its different parts. He did not ask learners even a single question. Further, he did not provide them any opportunity for practising letter writing even though he had 15 minutes left in the lesson. He utilised only 20 minutes of the 35-minute lesson and ended the lesson 15 minutes before the scheduled end of the class.

In the interviews, teachers not only affirmed their use of deductive pedagogy but also explained that their preference for a deductive instructional method in their lessons in general is due to (i) time constraints, (ii) learners’ low proficiency in English, (iii) learners’ inability to work independently, (iv) large classes, and (v) discipline issues. They reported that the syllabus is too lengthy to be covered in the stipulated time using an inductive approach. For example, T1 said:

These exercises are very long, and we have a short time. We can’t cover all these exercises. For that reason, I just go for the direct [teaching of] rules... (T1)

Secondly, teachers claimed that learners are unable to work independently because of their low proficiency in English and lack of confidence. For example, T5 explained that in his class learners’ proficiency in English is very low. When he asks them to work on their own, they ask a question ten times and even then they are unable to work independently. On the other hand, the learners who hold a good proficiency level in English lack confidence to work independently. Hence, he explained if he follows an inductive approach in such situations, he might need 15 days to complete one textbook unit. Additionally, the teachers explained that even students themselves want the teacher to use a deductive approach. For example, T2 said that his students do not want him to put on them the responsibility for their learning. They rather want him to explain everything to them. T6 and T9 also presented a similar reason for opting for a deductive, teacher-centred method of instruction in their lessons. They also highlighted large classes and discipline issues as some other reasons for using a deductive approach. They explained that their classes consist of 100 and 92 students respectively. When they involve learners in an inductive learning process, the learners pay less attention to the assigned work and start talking to each other which produces lots of noise and creates discipline issues in the class.
7.3.9 Integrated language teaching

The teachers achieved an overall compliance score of 31.9% for this principle. In seven of the 36 lessons, the teachers made considerable use of integrated language teaching. In nine lessons, some integration of different language skills took place. Whereas, in 20 lessons, no integration of language skills occurred.

The integration that took place was mainly of two types: integration of grammar and vocabulary. The integration of grammatical knowledge featured in eight lessons. For instance, when teaching translation from English to Urdu in his lesson 2, T1 explained grammatical features (differentiating between present and past tense and explaining the use of past participle in passive constructions). Likewise, when teaching reading comprehension in his lesson 3, T4 corrected learners’ verb errors and explained a grammar rule about the use of the correct form of verb. Similarly, T11 in his lesson 2 referred to some grammar aspects, such as past perfect tense, past form of verb, conditional sentences, and pronoun in a translation lesson. On being asked the reasons for integrating grammar instruction in reading and translation lessons, the teachers presented two reasons. First, they expressed their belief that grammar may be acquired when doing reading. For example, T1 and T8 claimed if grammar rules are explained when reading the text, these rules may be reinforced by reading text which features the rules. Second, they explained that the objective questions in the exam, such as multiple-choice questions and fill in the blank questions that are worth 19 marks, mainly include questions related to grammar. This is why they explain grammar rules to learners when doing reading and translation, as they want them to develop a better understanding of the grammar rules.

The integration of vocabulary teaching featured in all the lessons that focused on translation. While translating the lesson text from English to Urdu, the teachers told learners the meaning of the English vocabulary items by translating them into Urdu. Such instances were found in T6 lesson 2, T7 lesson 2, T8 lesson 1, T9 lesson 3, T10 lesson 2, and T11 lesson 1. When asked their reasons for doing this, the teachers explained that this helps learners to practise translation skills which are tested in the exam. This is also useful in developing
learners’ knowledge of English diction which may prove helpful to them when using the English language.

In addition to these two types of skill integration, five teachers (T1, T2, T3, T4, and T8) integrated pronunciation skills also, especially in their reading lessons. On being asked about this practice, the teachers explained this was intended to correct learners’ pronunciation.

Integration of other skills, such as writing and listening skills, did not happen at all. Integration of speaking skills occurred minimally in two lessons only. For example, T5 in his lesson 3, when doing the word-building exercise, asked learners to make sentences orally, using five words given as both verbs and nouns in the textbook (see Figure 7.23 below). The textbook does not say clearly whether learners need to make sentences orally or in writing, but the teacher asked learners to make sentences orally. Likewise, T4 in his lesson 1 asked learners to answer the reading comprehension questions orally. However, on being asked the reasons for doing this, it became clear that the teachers did not do this principally to improve learners’ speaking skills, but it was done because of some other reasons. T5 explained that he asked learners to produce sentences orally instead of in writing because he was running short of time. Likewise, T4 explained that he asked learners to answer the reading comprehension questions orally because the answers were quite long and ‘it was not possible to write down all the answers on the whiteboard’ (T4).

C. Use the following words in sentences first as verbs and then as nouns. 

care, walk, surprise, request, need, state

Examples
First go straight, then turn left. (verb)
It is my turn now. (noun)

Figure 7.23: An oral group work activity
Source: ELT Textbook Grade 9 Unit 9 (Malik et al., 2018, p. 98)

7.3.10 Setting and achieving learning objectives

The teachers achieved an overall compliance score of 41.7% for this principle. The ideal operational form (maximum compliance) for this principle consisted of two components: (i) stating learning objectives clearly at the beginning of the
lesson, and (ii) achieving learning objectives by the end of the lesson. In nine of
the 36 lessons, the teachers accomplished both of these. They stated learning
objectives clearly, delivered a good lesson, and achieved most of the learning
objectives. For example, T4 in his lesson 1, when teaching passive constructions,
stated learning objectives clearly at the beginning and set up a very good
brainstorming/warm-up stage that helped learners understand the importance
of learning passive constructions. Further, he utilised a balanced mix of
inductive and deductive pedagogy and presentation and practice stages. Finally,
he assessed learners’ learning, revealing he had achieved what he aimed to teach.
Some more examples of such lessons, accomplishing both the aspects are: T2
lesson 3, T3 lesson 2, and T8 lesson 2.

In contrast, in 12 lessons, the teachers did not state learning objectives
clearly. However, during the instructional process they were able to ensure the
learners understood what they intended to teach. They delivered a satisfactory
lesson and were moderately successful in securing their intended outcomes. For
instance, T10 in his lesson 1 did not state learning objectives clearly at the
beginning. However, when he started teaching, it was apparent that he wanted
to teach present, past, and future indefinite tenses. He mainly used a deductive
instruction method, explaining rules for forming sentences featuring present,
past, and future indefinite tenses. He then asked some concept check questions
to assess learners’ learning, and finally for practice he made them translate a
few Urdu sentences into English, which revealed that the teacher achieved the
learning objectives he had in mind for the lesson. Hence, following the features
identified in the observation schedule, I marked the teacher as having a middle
position (some deviation from the ideal operational form); that is, he did not
state learning objectives clearly at the beginning of the lesson but delivered a
satisfactory lesson and achieved the unstated learning objectives.

In 15 lessons, the teachers neither stated learning objectives nor were
successful in achieving any. Their lesson delivery revealed that they had set no
specific aims to achieve in the lesson. They seemed to rush from one task to
another without considering whether learners understood what they were being
taught. The teachers preferred to do most of the tasks themselves and neither
involved learners in doing any task nor assessed their learning. Consequently,
the teachers did not seem to have achieved any learning objective. For instance, T9’s lesson 2 was focused on teaching a reading comprehension paragraph from the textbook. He did not state any learning objective at the beginning of the lesson and directly started reading the comprehension paragraph text aloud and translating that into Urdu. Having read the paragraph, he neither told/asked learners about skimming and/or scanning (the two essential reading subskills) nor made them practise either of these subskills; rather he himself dictated the answers of all the reading comprehension questions to learners. Having dictated the answers, he asked learners to memorise the written answers. Hence, throughout the lesson, the teacher neither involved learners in the reading process nor assessed their learning at the end of the lesson. Consequently, he was marked as showing extreme deviation from the ideal operational form for the principle, since he neither stated any learning objectives at the beginning of the lesson nor achieved any unstated learning objective. Some more examples of these unsatisfactory lessons, having a very fast pace and rushing from one topic to another, revealing little evidence of setting clear learning objectives and achieving them are: T1 lesson 1, T5 lesson 3, T7 lesson 1, and T12 lesson 3.

An important feature in the majority of the lessons was that the learning objectives the teachers had set in their lessons explicitly or implicitly were not consistent with the learning objectives given in the textbook units. On being asked the reasons for this in the post-observation interviews, the teachers explained that they principally set their teaching and learning objectives in line with the examination requirements. They consider only those learning objectives given in the beginning of each textbook unit that correspond to their learners’ examination needs and ignore all such learning objectives that do not match learners’ exam requirements. They explained that the exams include mainly translation (English to Urdu and Urdu to English), grammar, reading comprehension, and questions related to the writing skill (e.g., summary writing, essay writing, and letter writing). Hence, they principally focus on these aspects only. To exemplify this, some illustrative comments from T1 and T12 are as follows:

No, objectives are never considered by the teachers... I also don't give attention to the objectives, which are related to the lesson, you know, even if they are given in the textbook. We have some SLOs given in the textbook, but we don't consider them
because we know that we have to teach translation, and we have to improve vocabulary, and we have to improve the comprehension of the students, and in the end, we have to make our students able to write the answers of the questions which are related to that lesson, and whatever grammar questions are given in the exercise we have to make them solve those questions. So, we know already all these things and according to that we teach lessons. We don't go for specific SLOs which are given in the textbook. (T1)

Our learning objectives are only specified to get good marks, to pass the exam. (T12)

7.3.11 Teachers’ use of Urdu as a medium of instruction

The teachers mainly used Urdu as the medium of instruction in their lessons. The use of English was minimal. None of the teachers delivered a whole lesson using English. On being asked the reasons for this, the teachers mainly attributed this to learners’ low proficiency in English, explaining that learners are unable to understand instructions in English. In this regard, the comments from T1 and T3 below are typical:

...students don't have ability to understand instructions in English.... So, for that reason I just give instructions in Urdu... (T1)

You know when they [the students] listen to English they become deaf and dumb and then they don't participate actively in the activities. They even don't know what they have been asked to do. So, I avoid English language... (T1)

We deliver the lecture in Urdu because the students, who are sitting before us, are not able to understand English or speak English. (T3)

One teacher (T11) even made some use of Punjabi (the local ethnic language) in his lessons. On being asked the reasons for this, he explained that his school is located in a rural area, where some of the learners even face difficulty in understanding instructions in Urdu because Urdu is not their native language. They use their local/ethnic language in their everyday life. Hence, to make learners understand the teacher has to use learners’ local/ethnic language. Likewise, T7, who was also teaching in a rural area school, also reported that sometimes he has to use learners’ local/ethnic language to make them understand what they are being taught.

In addition to learners’ low proficiency in English, teachers’ inability to speak English properly and fluently may also be a reason for their minimum use

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31 Urdu is the national language of Pakistan and is commonly used in social and educational domains.
of English in their lessons. No doubt this was not the case with all the teachers as some of them were very good speakers of English (as revealed to me in the post-observation interviews with them), but this appeared to be a reason for some of them. For example, some teachers (T5, T6, T7, and T11), despite holding master’s degrees in English and being English subject specialists, opted for Urdu for their post-observation interviews. This was because they were less assured speaking in English compared to Urdu. In this regard, two teachers (T9 and T10), neither of whom were English subject specialists, accepted that one of the reasons for their use of Urdu in their lessons was their inability to speak English fluently. T10 further explained that the use of Urdu as a medium of instruction is allowed in government schools even for English classes. T12 stated that the use of Urdu in not only allowed but is indeed enforced by head-teachers. In this regard, he cited his own example and explained that at the beginning of his professional career as an English language teacher he would deliver lessons in English. But since his learners would face difficulty in understanding English, his head-teacher advised him to use the local language in class instead. He stated this as follows:

Then my principal said to me that I should deliver lecture in local language or national language so that the students may be able to get the concepts. (T12)

Likewise, some other teachers (T1, T2, T3, and T4), who were all English subject specialists and were proficient users of English (as revealed to me in the post-observation interviews with them), used mostly Urdu in their lessons. Further, with reference to the preferred medium of instruction, they expressed a difference between their beliefs and practices. They argued that the use of English as a medium of instruction is essential in an English language classroom. However, they explained that on account of learners’ inability to understand instructions in English they feel obliged to use Urdu in their English language lessons. In this regard, T1’s example is particularly interesting. He was an excellent speaker of English as well as a British Council teacher trainer in Pakistan, but he delivered his lessons mainly in Urdu. On being asked why, he explained that being a teacher trainer he himself suggests his trainees use English in their lessons, but when it comes to his own teaching practices, he feels bound to use Urdu because learners mostly face difficulty in understanding instructions in English. I understood these arguments when I myself came
across such a situation in the course of data collection. Being an educationist (a university teacher and a Ph.D. student), I was asked by a teacher at the end of an observation to say something to his students to develop their interest in learning, and to motivate them. When I started talking to the students in English, I found they were unable to understand what I was saying. Hence, I had to switch to Urdu to talk to them.

The lesson observations revealed that the teachers used Urdu not only to give instructions but also when teaching reading comprehension. It was noticed in all reading comprehension lessons that the teachers first translated the text and the reading comprehension questions into Urdu, ensured learners understood the meaning of the text and questions in Urdu, and then asked them to answer the reading comprehension questions. On being asked the reasons for this, the teachers again attributed this to learners’ low proficiency in English, explaining that without translation learners are neither able to understand the text nor to answer the reading comprehension questions. For example, T7 explained that he first makes learners understand the reading passage by translating it into Urdu. Then he translates the reading comprehension questions into Urdu and after that he asks learners to tell the answer in Urdu. Finally, when learners tell the answer in Urdu, they are then asked to write the answers to the reading comprehension questions in English. T4 also presented similar reasons for his use of Urdu when teaching reading comprehension. For example, he commented as follows:

Though we are not demanded to translate comprehension paragraph into Urdu, but it becomes necessary and compulsory for us. Students are taught first Urdu translation so that they fully grasp the whole paragraph, what it is all about, and then they answer. This is how they answer [the reading comprehension questions].

7.3.12 Use of the grammar translation method

The lessons revealed an extensive use of the grammar translation method (GTM). For instance, translating the lesson text from English to Urdu was a salient feature in 10 lessons. Further, the 13 lessons that focused on grammar (such as tenses, narration, passive voice, and parts of speech) were principally based on the GTM. Learners were provided with explicit instruction on grammar rules and were asked to learn those rules. To exemplify this, some
excerpts from the field notes for T11 lesson 2 and T4 lesson 1 are given in Figures 7.24, 7.25, 7.26 and 7.27 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s teaching procedure:</th>
<th>Observer’s comments/remarks:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Teacher now moves to present continuous tense.  
**Active voice.**  
Subject + am/is/are + ing form of verb  
**Passive voice**  
Object + is being + 3rd + by + Subject  
am being  
are being  
| + object  
Explaining rules  
Deductive  
Explicit instruction of rules.  |

Figure 7.24: Field notes (T11 lesson 2) – explicit instruction of grammar rules

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s teaching procedure:</th>
<th>Observer’s comments/remarks:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Passive.**  
Object + H.V + 3rd + by + Subject  
*is* form of  
am *are* verb  
Sometimes elicits learner’s background knowledge.  
Teacher explaining rules of passive construction.  | explicit instruction  
Deductive pedagogy  
Eliciting learner’s background knowledge.  
Explicit instruction  |

Figure 7.25: Field notes (T11 lesson 2) – explicit instruction of grammar rules
Figure 7.26: Field notes (T4 lesson 1) – explicit instruction of grammar rules

Figure 7.27: Field notes (T4 lesson 1) – explicit instruction of grammar rules
A similar translation method was used to teach English vocabulary items, i.e., they were taught by presenting their Urdu counterparts instead of explaining their meanings in English or making learners understand their meanings through their linguistic context. Likewise, the teachers rarely asked learners to use the vocabulary items in their own English sentences. An example of vocabulary teaching via the translation method is given in Figure 7.28 below:

![Figure 7.28: Field notes (T9 lesson 3) - teaching English vocabulary via translation method](image)

On being asked the reason for using the translation method to teach vocabulary, the teachers ascribed this to learners’ low proficiency in English. For example, T6 explained that if he tells learners English vocabulary items by presenting their synonyms or explaining their meanings in English, they do not understand. He further explained that vocabulary teaching via the translation method helps learners in translating the text from English to Urdu, which is an important question in the exam.

When I asked the reason for using the GTM, the teachers expressed that the GTM is an appropriate instructional method in the given socio-educational context, claiming it fulfils learners’ examination needs. The examinations contain questions that involve assessing learners’ explicit knowledge of
grammar rules and their ability to translate the text from English to Urdu and Urdu to English. The examinations do not assess learners’ language skills, particularly their speaking, listening, and creative writing skills. Hence, they argued, they prefer using the GTM because it fulfils learners’ educational needs. For example, when comparing different instructional methods, T1 spoke in favour of the use of the GTM as follows:

Direct method or other teaching techniques or methods are not used in the language teaching here in our classrooms. We just go for the grammar translation method and that’s better for the students according to the examination point of view. (T1)

7.3.13 Exam-oriented pedagogy

The classroom observations and interviews revealed that the teachers’ lessons and their pedagogical practices were mainly driven by the demands the examinations place upon both teachers and learners. During classroom observations, it was observed that the teachers mainly focused on three aspects: reading comprehension (N=9), translating the lesson text from English to Urdu (N=10), and grammar, such as passive voice, narration, and parts of speech (N=13). In other words, of the 36 lessons observed, 32 focused mainly on the above-mentioned three aspects. On being asked the reasons for focusing on these aspects in their lessons, the teachers attributed this to the relevance of these aspects to the exams. For example, when asked about the rationale for teaching translation (English to Urdu), T4 and T8 responded as follows:

Translation work is also a part of our syllabus. Question number 2 is the translation question. Students are demanded to translate the paragraph into Urdu. Out of three they are bound to translate two paragraphs. We are also bound to teach them translation. (T4)

Basically, translation is a part of the examination... That’s why we have to teach them how to translate the text of English into Urdu. (T8)

Similarly, on being asked about the teaching of reading comprehension, T4 responded as follows:

Reading comprehension is a part of the syllabus. One question is compulsory, carrying 10 marks. It is always set in the paper and students can easily secure marks in them if they have some proper knowledge, some proper techniques. That’s why I was teaching comprehension in that lesson. (T4)

Similar arguments were presented by teachers when they were asked about the reasons for paying lots of attention to the teaching of grammar, such as
narration, passive voice, and parts of speech. To exemplify, two illustrative comments from T8 and T12 are as follows:

Narration is a part of our examination. That’s why I teach that. (T8)

In the exam, there is one question of narration, carrying 5 marks. That’s why I taught that topic. (T12)

On the other hand, teachers were found paying minimal attention to many other aspects that are emphasised in the national curriculum. These include developing learners’ English language skills (particularly speaking, listening, and creative writing), promoting learners’ real-life-like use of English, and developing their higher order cognitive skills (critical, analytical, and creative abilities). Further, when teaching, teachers skipped all those textbook activities that involved creative writing, critical and analytical thinking, and oral skills32. With reference to these omissions, teachers explained that since these aspects do not constitute any part of learners’ assessment, they are neglected. They further explained that the main criterion to assess learners’ learning is their marks in the exams, not how skilful they are in using the English language. Likewise, they reported that a teacher’s pedagogical skill and performance are assessed on the basis of the passing percentage of their learners and the marks their learners obtain in the exams. For example, T7 and T9 explained if a teacher teaches only exam-related topics and more of their learners pass the exams and get good marks, the teacher is regarded as a good teacher without examining whether they have developed learners’ ability to use English or whether the learners have merely been coached to achieve exam ‘success’ via memorisation. On the other hand, if a teacher strives to improve learners’ language skills, but more of their students fail the exam, the teacher is not only held responsible for the learners’ failure but is also regarded as an unskilled teacher. Hence, teachers argued that when everything revolves around the exams, they also teach learners in line with the demands the exams place on them. In this regard, some illustrative comments from T1, T2, and T12 are as follows:

The real purpose is to prepare them [the learners] according to the examination. Whatever lesson we are teaching, we focus on those things which are concerning

32 Textbook excerpts regarding these activities are reproduced in Figures 7.1, 7.2, 7.5, 7.6, 7.7, 7.8, 7.9, 7.10, 7.11, 7.12, 7.13, and 7.14 above. To avoid repetition, they are not reproduced here again.
the examination, and we put less emphasis on those things which are not according to the examination pattern. (T1)

We teach our students from the examination point of view throughout the year. (T2)

Our learning objectives are only specified to get good marks, to pass the exams. (T12)

In addition to the above-mentioned pedagogical practices as found in the teachers’ classroom observations and their rationales explained by them in the post-observation interviews, the teachers explained some more reasons for their limited compliance with the stipulated pedagogical policy. These include their lack of knowledge and awareness of the macro-level pedagogical policy and inappropriate teacher training they are given. These two points are explained below.

7.3.14 No knowledge of the macro-level pedagogical policy

The interviews revealed that the teachers had no knowledge of the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006), and hence they had no idea of what pedagogical policy it recommends. Only a few teachers mentioned that they had heard of the national curriculum, but they had never read it. None of the teachers reported being aware of the macro-level pedagogical policy. For example, T1 described his unfamiliarity with the national curriculum as follows:

No, no, no…I never read it, and I don’t have any information about it. (T1)

Likewise, when asked whether he knew about the national curriculum and had any idea of what pedagogical policy it recommends, T12 responded as follows:

No, this is new for me. I have come to know about it for the first time. (T12)

Further, when asked if he had read any other macro-level policy document, he replied:

In 9 years’ teaching experience, I never heard about these things. (T12)

The teachers’ unfamiliarity with the national curriculum is very significant and provides a strong reason for their limited compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy.
On being asked the reasons for their unfamiliarity with the national curriculum and the pedagogical policy it stipulates, the teachers reported that they never received a copy of the national curriculum from the education department nor were they aware that the national curriculum is available on the Ministry of Education website. In addition, they reported, they never received any training with regard to what pedagogical policy the national curriculum recommends. Hence, they did not know what pedagogical practices the national curriculum requires them to follow in their English language classrooms.

Further, on being asked about the source of guidance for teaching methodology in view of their unfamiliarity with the macro-level pedagogical policy and lack of teacher training, the teachers mostly reported their professional education (B.Ed. and M.Ed.) and teaching experience. For example, T2, T3, T8, T10, T11, and T12 reported that for teaching methodology, they rely on what they learnt in their B.Ed. and M.Ed. programmes. Likewise, some teachers (T1, T3, T7, T9, and T10) explained that their teaching experience helps them in their use of teaching methodology in their classes. In this regard, teachers further explained that the national curriculum is of no importance for them, as the instruction in the classroom is mainly based on the textbook and the exams. As the exams are completely based on the textbook, their teaching revolves around the syllabus given in the textbook. Secondly, the exam-pattern determines what and how they need to teach the learners. Both these points (textbook use and exam-oriented pedagogy) are already explained in detail in Sections 7.3.5, 7.3.6, and 7.3.13 above respectively.

7.3.15 Teacher training

With reference to teacher training, the teachers reported that they are given only one induction/pre-service training course by the government at the beginning of their career. Previously, this training used to last one week and now it lasts one month. For example, the teachers whose teaching experience ranged from 15-34 years (T1, T3, T4, T9, and T10), reported having attended a one-week induction training course. Whereas the teachers whose experience ranged between 4 and 6 years (T2, T5, T6, T7, and T11) reported that the induction
training lasted for one month. In this regard, some teachers’ comments are as follows:

I got only one training as a teacher... The duration of that training was one week. (T1)
It was a pre-service training... It was of one month only. (T2)
I attended an induction training and it was of one month. (T6)

The teachers reported that there is no tradition of continuous, ongoing in-service training for teachers’ continuous professional development. However, when a teacher is promoted to a different teaching role, they receive induction training with reference to their new post. For example, when I asked T12 how many training courses he had attended, he responded as follows:

Only two times. First time in 2009, and second in 2015 for 30 days. Both trainings were induction trainings. When a teacher is recruited in the education department, he is given induction training. It consists of three to four weeks. I have taken two trainings. (T12)

On being asked about the topics covered in these training courses, the teachers explained that the main focus of the training is on providing information about different administrative rules and regulations, such as how to maintain a school register, how to take leave, and the number of leaves a teacher can take in an academic year, etc. The topics related to teaching and teaching methodologies are given less importance in this training. For example, T7 and T12 explained this as follows:

I got [a] 30 days induction training, but in that we were not guided about how to teach and how to deal with classes. They just told us about different rules and regulations of the [education] department... Mostly they taught us about rules and regulations. They did not train us about English Language teaching. I think 10% they taught us about teaching. (T7)

I can say that the trainings were a wastage of time. They were not productive from teaching perspective. When teachers are appointed, they should be given training regarding the topics which they have to deliver in the class. But the trainings which are given are about things such as how to manage the classes, how to handle different kind of problems, how to administrate, how to keep records. All these aspects are covered in the trainings, but not teaching skills. (T12)

The teachers further explained that the training courses are general in nature. All the teachers, irrespective of their subject or level, receive the same training. There is neither any distinction with reference to the levels the teachers are supposed to teach (primary, elementary, or secondary) nor is there any
distinction with regard to their subject; there is no training specifically for English language teachers. For example, T12 said:

All the teachers were given the same training. There was no special training for me... I was appointed as an English teacher. The government or the department should have arranged the training especially for English [language teachers], but there was general training that included record maintaining and administration. Little bit was included about lesson planning. (T12)

In addition, none of the teachers reported having received a training with reference to the pedagogical policy or educational innovations introduced in the national curriculum. This may be regarded as one of the reasons for teachers’ lack of awareness of the pedagogical policy the national curriculum stipulates and consequently their limited compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy.

7.4 Conclusion

This chapter presents findings of the classroom observations and post-observation interviews, and hence addresses research questions 4, 5, and 6 given below:

RQ 4: To what extent do teachers comply with the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum, and what other pedagogical practices do they use?

RQ 5: What are teachers’ rationales for the pedagogical practices they use and the pedagogical practices they resist in their English language lessons?

RQ 6: Where teachers’ pedagogical practices are not compatible with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical principles, what contextual factors account for this behaviour?

The findings of the classroom observation data show that overall the teachers displayed a very low compliance level (29%) with the macro-level pedagogical policy. They showed an unsatisfactory level of compliance (less than a 50% score) for all 15 pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum. However, for three principles (materials supplementation, lesson planning, and setting and achieving learning objectives) they scored comparatively higher (in
the range of 41%–44%). Whereas, they obtained extremely low scores (less than 10%) for the four principles that are highly emphasised in the macro-level pedagogical policy. These four principles are: use of the communicative approach (2.9%), developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge (9.7%), promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes (6.9%), and developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills (9.7%). However, analysing teachers’ individual level of compliance, we find one teacher showed a good compliance level (with a score of 63%) and two teachers displayed a satisfactory compliance level (with a score of 50%).

Further, the findings of the classroom observations and post-observation interviews reveal that teachers’ pedagogical practices are mainly driven by the demands the examinations place upon both teachers and learners. Teachers focus on only those aspects that are relevant to the exams. These include translation (English to Urdu and Urdu to English), grammar, and reading comprehension. English language skills, particularly speaking, creative writing, and listening; real-life-like use of English; and higher order cognitive skills are not focused on because of their irrelevance to the exams. Though reading and writing are included in the exams, teachers prefer to prepare learners for the exams by having them apply a memorisation strategy. Teachers further claim their memorisation approach to reading and writing is motivated by learners’ low proficiency in English. In terms of teaching methods, teachers mostly rely on the GTM, as it fulfils learners’ exam requirements. Teachers avoid using the communicative approach due to its irrelevance to the exams and various contextual constraints. Further, teachers mainly use Urdu as a medium of instruction due to learners’ as well as their own low proficiency in English. Lastly, teacher training, particularly with reference to ELT and macro-level pedagogical policy, is lacking. This may be regarded as one of the main reasons for the teachers’ scant knowledge and awareness of the macro-level pedagogical policy and their limited compliance with this.
Chapter Eight

Discussion

8.1 Introduction

This study explored the level of harmony between pedagogy in policy and pedagogy in practice with regard to English language education (ELE) at secondary level (grade 9-10) in government schools in Punjab, Pakistan. The study was conducted in four stages. The first stage involved analysing the national curriculum for English language to determine what pedagogical policy it stipulates. The second stage entailed analysing the ELT textbooks using Ellis’s (2016) framework to determine the pedagogical practices the textbooks embody and the extent to which these practices coincide with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical policy. The third stage involved observing teachers’ English language lessons to determine the extent to which teachers comply with the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum. The fourth stage consisted of post-observation interviews with the observed teachers to inquire into their rationale for the pedagogical practices they use(d) in their lessons and to explore what factors compel(led) them to resist or adapt the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum and the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks.

In this chapter I discuss the findings of this study in relation to those of other studies that deal with various topics that overlap with my concerns in this thesis—studies of ELT curricular innovations, innovation implementation, teachers’ pedagogical practices, factors that account for teachers’ limited implementation of innovations, textbook use, and textbook analysis. I discuss all these aspects in turn below.
8.2 Curriculum innovation and ELT pedagogy

The findings of the national curriculum analysis in this study reveal a suite of 15 pedagogical principles as the macro-level pedagogical policy. This policy mainly endorses the use of a communicative, learner-centred pedagogy and the need to give priority to developing learners’ English language skills rather than merely developing their English language knowledge. These findings are in line with many ELT curricular innovation studies that report on the implementation of communicative language teaching (CLT)–based curricular reforms in various ESL/EFL contexts across the world. Some significant examples in this regard are: Carless (2003, 2004, 2007), Hamid and Honan (2012), Karavas-Doukas (1998), Kirkgöz (2008), Li (1998, 2001), and Orafi and Borg (2009). Carless (2003, 2004, 2007) reports on curricular reforms which require task-based language teaching (TBLT) to be implemented in primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong. Hamid and Honan (2012) give an account of the implementation of CLT-based curricular innovations in primary and secondary schools in Bangladesh. Karavas-Doukas (1998) presents a case of the implementation of CLT-based curricular innovations in secondary schools in Greece. Kirkgöz (2008) presents a case of the implementation of CLT-oriented curriculum change in primary schools in Turkey. Li (1998, 2001) elaborates on teachers’ perceived difficulties in implementing the communicative approach in South Korean secondary schools. Orafi and Borg (2009) report on the implementation of CLT-based curriculum in secondary schools in Libya. However, in one respect, these studies differ from this study. None of these studies feature an analysis of the relevant policy document(s); instead they directly report that the policy seeks the implementation of TBLT or CLT. This implies that the pedagogical innovations reported in these studies are explicitly stated in the relevant policy documents. An example of this is found in Kirkgöz (2008, p. 1861) who reports the explicit assertion of the new pedagogical policy in the ELT curriculum in Turkey as follows:

New curriculum guidelines make it clear that the ELT curriculum should promote student-centred learning, encouraging Turkish teachers to develop learners’ communicative performance in English. Pupils should take an active part in the learning process through various pair and group-work activities. The role of the teacher is specified as that of a guide or facilitator of the learning process, rather
than a transmitter of knowledge addressing variations in pupils’ learning styles.
(Italics in original)

In contrast, this was not the case in my study. The national curriculum
document in my study did not begin by telling the reader about the previous
version of the national curriculum and did not spell out explicitly what changes
in the pedagogical policy were being introduced compared to pedagogical policy
in the previous curriculum documents. Additionally, it presents the pedagogical
policy in such an incoherent manner that a simple reading of the document may
not clearly reveal to the reader what pedagogical practices the national
curriculum stipulates. Therefore, I subjected it to a detailed qualitative content
analysis and explored the pedagogical policy it endorses.

All the above-cited curriculum innovation studies reveal that they are
based on a mechanistic/top-down model of innovation (Kennedy, 2013) in
which the innovation policy is formulated at the national level and then
implemented on the ground. However, the drawback of the mechanistic/top-
down model as highlighted by Kennedy (2013) and Wedell (2009) is also evident
in all these studies; that is, the policy of implementing CLT or TBLT is
formulated at the highest policy making level without considering whether the
innovations coincide with the local socio-educational norms and realities. When
there is a lack of alignment, this results in the limited implementation of
innovations as found in all these studies. This is exactly the point that has been
made by many researchers (e.g., Baldauf et al. 2011; Holliday, 1994; Kaplan et
al., 2011; Nunan, 2003; Wedell, 2003)—that the success of educational
innovations, to a large extent, depends on the level of compatibility between the
innovations and the socio-educational context where they are implemented. All
these studies also reveal that despite many scholars (e.g., Holliday, 1994, 2016;
Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; McKay, 2003) advising
policy makers and implementers to prefer the use of a culture-sensitive pedagogy, policy makers in ESL/EFL contexts tend to formulate CLT-oriented
pedagogical policies which have little in common with the local socio-
educational norms.

None of the above ELT curriculum innovation studies reveal innovation
implementation based on Kennedy’s (2013) ecological model, which is based on
the decentralisation principle and advocates devolving responsibilities (such as of curriculum design and implementation) to change operators in line with their skills and expertise. However, some instances of Kennedy’s (2013) individual model, which signifies that sometimes individual teachers may follow the guidelines of an innovation more closely than their colleagues, are found in some of these studies. For example, in my study, only one of the 12 teachers appeared to show a comparatively higher compliance (a score of 63%) with the national curriculum’s pedagogical principles. In Carless’ (2003, 2004) case study research, one teacher appeared to follow the TBLT-based curricular innovations more closely than the other two. In Kirkgöz (2008) also, only six of the 32 teachers appeared to follow the CLT-based pedagogical innovations in their classes.

8.3 Implementation of the ELT curricular reforms

With regard to the implementation of macro-level pedagogical policy (the curricular innovations) in English language classrooms, the findings of my study reveal teachers’ very low overall compliance (a score of 29%) with the macro-level pedagogical policy. These results are in line with Parish and Arrends (1983, cited in Karavas-Doukas, 1998, p. 26) who point out that only a small proportion, i.e., ‘approximately 20 per cent of educational innovations enjoy successful implementation.’ These results are also unsurprising keeping in view the warnings in the literature on innovative education programmes (e.g., Grassick & Wedell, 2018; Hyland & Wong, 2013; Karavas-Doukas, 1998; Waters, 2009; Waters & Vilches, 2005; Waters & Vilches, 2008; Wedell, 2003, 2009), which underscore that ELT innovations mostly result in non- or limited implementation. Likewise, a number of studies of ELT curricular reforms in various ESL/EFL contexts (such as Carless (2003, 2004; 2007) in Hong Kong; Hamid and Honan (2012) in Bangladesh; Karavas-Doukas (1998) in Greece; Kirkgöz (2008) in Turkey; Li (1998, 2001) in South Korea; and Orafi and Borg (2009) in Libya) report only limited implementation of ELT curricular reforms. However, in one respect my study differs from the other curricular innovation studies. In this study, I report teachers’ innovation implementation not only via presenting the qualitative, analytical descriptions of their pedagogical practices but also give quantitative scores which reveal their compliance with each
pedagogical principle and their overall compliance (a score of 29%) with the macro-level pedagogical policy. In contrast, the other studies report teachers’ limited implementation of innovations via qualitative descriptions only.

The findings of these studies also reveal that various ESL/EFL contexts, both in general and in Asia in particular, are broadly similar to each other with regard to their socio-educational norms, such as the dominance of a transmission model of language teaching, teacher-centred classrooms, exam-driven pedagogy, lack of material resources, and textbook-based language teaching. Consequently, the ESL/EFL teachers in these contexts exhibit the use of similar normative, teacher-centred, exam-driven, and textbook-based pedagogical practices and face similar issues that account for the limited implementation of interactive, learner-centred pedagogical innovations. Researchers such as Baldauf et al. (2011), Kaplan et al. (2011), and Nunan (2003), based on their comprehensive reviews of innovative education programmes in various Asian ESL/EFL contexts, report similar results. For example, Baldauf et al. (2011), having reviewed nine different studies of ESL/EFL programmes in nine East and Southeast Asian countries (Bangladesh, China, Japan, Malaysia, Nepal, Singapore, Taiwan, Timor-Leste, and Vietnam), point out that in all these contexts there are common reasons for the failure of innovative ELE programmes, which are the requirement to implement an inappropriate curriculum along with difficulties regarding methods, materials, personnel, evaluation, and resourcing policies and lack of coherence between these policies. Nunan (2003), in his study on ELE policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region countries (China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, and Vietnam), reports similar findings. Grassick and Wedell (2018), in their review of 11 different curriculum innovation studies of individual teachers in ten different countries (Argentina, China, Cuba, India, Kenya, Korea, Philippines, Poland, Senegal, and Vietnam), also report many similar findings.

The findings of this study in many ways corroborate the findings of above-cited studies. These studies bear similarities not only in terms of the limited implementation of ELT curricular innovations but the teachers’ practices and the factors that account for teachers’ limited implementation of innovations and deviation from the proposed pedagogical reforms reported in
these studies are also identical in many ways. All these aspects are discussed below. First, I discuss teachers’ use of established pedagogical practices.

8.4 Teachers’ use of established pedagogical practices

The teachers in this study appeared to mostly follow established pedagogical practices instead of changing them in line with the pedagogical innovations. They mostly followed the grammar translation method (GTM) and the presentation-practice-production (PPP) mode of language teaching in their lessons. This corresponds to Li (1998, p. 685) in which ‘all [18 participants] reported that the grammar-translation method, the audiolingual method, or a combination of the two characterised their teaching.’ Similarly, in Carless (2007) both teachers and teacher educators also stated their preference for the explicit instruction of grammar using a PPP approach when officially they were required to use TBLT in secondary level English language classrooms in Hong Kong. Likewise, Karavas-Doukas (1998) reports teachers’ widespread use of the audiolingual method in Greek secondary schools as follows:

Classrooms were generally teacher-centred and form-focused [and] consisted of activities which provided practice on discrete language items, while activities that encouraged spontaneous genuine communication were almost non-existent. (p. 44)

Kirkgöz (2008) also reported similar findings, stating that of the 32 teachers she observed, 16 teachers used the GTM and audiolingual method extensively, ten teachers tended to combine these traditional methods with the new officially prescribed CLT approach, and only six teachers exhibited considerable use of the communicative approach.

The teachers in this study appeared to mostly follow a teacher-centred, lecture-type teaching method exhibiting a deductive, transmission model of language teaching. The two resources they mainly relied upon when teaching were the prescribed textbooks and whiteboard. Just as in this study, Ali (2017) reports the prevalence of the transmission model of language teaching with teacher-centred classrooms in Pakistani schools on the basis of his extensive mixed-method study that involved classroom observations, post-observation interviews with teachers, focus-group discussions with teachers, and qualitative responses from survey questionnaires. The Pakistani teachers’ dominant use of
a traditional, teacher-centred, textbook-based instruction method in English language classrooms as well as in other subjects was also highlighted a number of years ago by Kanu (1996) and Shamim (1993) on the basis of their classroom observations in various primary and secondary schools in Pakistan. This reveals that despite the pedagogical reforms introduced in the national curriculum, teachers’ pedagogical practices have not changed much in Pakistan over the course of time.

The findings of this study regarding the prevalence of a teacher-centred, deductive, lecture-type mode of instruction based on teachers’ extensive use of the prescribed textbooks and whiteboard also correspond to the findings of Hamid and Honan’s (2012) study of the implementation of CLT in primary and secondary schools in Bangladesh which also reveals the dominance of a teacher-centred, textbook- and blackboard-based instructional method in Bangladeshi English language classrooms as follows:

Taking the evidence from the two sets of observations together, teachers in English classrooms in Bangladesh spend a significant portion of the body of the lesson writing on the blackboard, and the students in these classrooms are engaged in passive listening or observing the teacher. (p. 149)

The teacher provides knowledge and information through lectures and explanations, allegedly resulting in learning, provided students listen to the teacher, follow his/her reading of the texts line by line or copy into their exercise books what the teacher writes on the blackboard. (p. 150)

The observed teachers were found conducting mainly lecture-type teaching, using the blackboard as a pedagogic tool. (p. 150)

Likewise, the findings of this study corroborate Kirkgöz’s (2008) findings that 16 of the 32 teachers she observed in Turkish primary schools mainly relied on textbooks and board as their ‘main teaching resources’ (p. 1868) and tended to maintain firm control in the class by using a teacher-centred instructional method. Karavas-Doukas (1998) and Orafi and Borg (2009) also report teachers’ dominant use of a similar teacher-centred method of instruction in secondary level English language classrooms in Greece and Libya respectively.

8.5 Teachers’ scant use of the communicative approach

The teachers’ scant use of the communicative approach (with a compliance score of just 2.9%) found in this study is in line with some other studies, such as
Hamid and Honan (2012), Karavas-Doukas (1998), and Orafi and Borg (2009), which also report teachers’ sparse use of the communicative approach in primary and secondary schools in Bangladesh and secondary schools in Greece and Libya respectively. Likewise, the majority of the teachers’ preference for involving learners in the learning process individually via questioning and elicitation rather than engaging them in pair and group work activities found in this study corresponds to the findings reported by Hamid and Honan (2012), Karavas-Doukas (1998), and Orafi and Borg (2009) about English language teachers’ practices with regard to the implementation of CLT in primary and secondary schools in Bangladesh and secondary schools in Greece and Libya respectively. Kirkgöz (2008) also reported similar results in her study of the implementation of CLT in Turkish primary schools. However, a minority of teachers in her study complied with the innovations: of the 32 teachers she observed, 16 teachers mostly involved learners in individual work via questioning and elicitation and made scant use of pair and group work; ten teachers tended to combine the established practices and the new CLT approach; and six teachers made considerable use of pair and group work and put ‘greater emphasis on the development of pupil’s communicative abilities’ (1869).

All these studies also agree that teachers cannot solely be held liable for their limited implementation of the CLT-based pedagogical innovations, as various contextual factors, namely teachers’ lack of awareness of the features of innovation on account of limited teacher training, examination constraints, institutional constraints, and constraints associated with learners and teachers, account for teachers’ limited implementation of innovations. I now discuss the findings with regard to these constraining factors in turn.

8.6 Teachers’ lack of knowledge of innovation features

Teachers’ lack of knowledge of the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical policy on account of a lack of innovation-specific training appeared to be a very important reason for teachers’ limited implementation of pedagogical reforms in this study. Similar reasons for teachers’ limited compliance with the ELT policy guidelines are reported in other studies also. For example, Karavas-Doukas (1998) noted that ‘only 21 per cent of the sample [87 Greek secondary
school teachers] had taken part in some kind of teacher training during their teaching career’ and 88 per cent of them reported being ‘inadequately trained in the communicative approach’ (p. 46), which led to their lack of understanding of CLT and consequently to the limited implementation of innovations in Greek secondary schools. Likewise, in Li (1998, p. 688), ‘all 18 participants named lack of training as one of the main obstacles they faced in applying CLT’ in secondary schools in South Korea. Teachers’ lack of understanding of innovation features due to limited teacher-training leading to their limited implementation of innovations is also reported by Orafi and Borg (2009) in their study of the implementation of CLT-oriented curricular innovations in Libyan secondary schools. Kirkgöz (2008) also reported similar findings but with some variations. She noted that the ‘curriculum document including guidelines on ELT […] was disseminated to primary schools’ in Turkey (p. 1861) and teachers were also given short training sessions, but attending those trainings was optional for teachers. Additionally, many teachers were transferred from secondary schools to primary schools and they received no training for teaching English to young learners (TEYLs). Consequently, of the 32 teachers, only six teachers who were familiar with the principles of CLT and had also attended a course on TEYLs during their university education appeared to implement the innovations successfully. The other 26 teachers failed to show clear evidence of implementing the required innovations because they had only ‘a fragmentary understanding of CLT and that of TEYLs’ (Kirkgöz, 2008, p. 1873).

The findings of my study—that the pre-service training focused more on teachers’ administrative obligations and paid less attention to pedagogy—also corroborate the findings of Yan (2018) and Tetiurka (2018) who report a similar focus in the limited training courses that were offered to teachers in China and Poland respectively. In contrast, in their study of an individual teacher’s ELT innovation implementation in Maharashtra (India), Padwad and Dixit (2018) report that the provision of better training helped the teacher to develop his understanding of the innovations and to boost his confidence which helped him to implement the innovations in a better way and to experience the change in a positive manner. This implies that proper training helps teachers better understand the innovations and implement them successfully.
Lack of opportunities for teachers’ ongoing professional development also emerged as a reason for teachers’ inability to implement the innovations in this study as well as in others. The majority of the teachers in this study had received only a one-month or one-week pre-service training, and even that training did not cover teaching methodology related topics in detail. Further, there is no proper mechanism to enable teachers’ ongoing professional development as active professionals and creative thinkers. These findings corroborate Karavas-Doukas (1998, p. 47), who reports a lack of ‘systematic and ongoing teacher training’ opportunities for Greek secondary school teachers as a reason for their lack of understanding of the communicative approach which ultimately led to their limited implementation of CLT-based innovations in secondary schools in Greece. Li (1998, 2001) also notes that the teachers regarded the lack of both general and innovation-specific training as a reason for their inability to implement CLT in secondary level English language classrooms in South Korea.

8.7 Examination constraints

The impact of examinations on teaching and learning processes, known as the washback, is well-known (Cheng, 1997; Green, 2007; Hughes, 2003). With regard to the role of examinations in innovation implementation, Wedell (1992, p. 338) notes that ‘the success or failure of any proposed changes in teaching content and methods depends on whether the examination system is altered to reflect the proposed changes.’ Like other pedagogical innovation studies, the findings of this study show a disjunction between the roles and the teaching/learning processes the pedagogical policy requires teachers and learners to perform and the demands the examinations place on them. The pedagogical policy requires teachers to follow a communicative, learner-centred pedagogy to develop learners’ communicative competence rather than merely developing their knowledge of discrete linguistic items, such as grammar and vocabulary. In contrast, the exams mainly assess learners’ knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and translation skills and do not assess learners’ communicative competence, which discourages both teachers and learners to use the communicative approach in the class. The speaking and listening skills are not assessed. The reading and writing skills are assessed, but in a way that
encourages learners to rely on memorisation and rote learning strategies. Hence, the teachers feel bound to teach to the tests. Aftab et al. (2014) report similar findings in their study, stating that the Pakistani English language teachers’ and learners’ practices are ‘directly influenced by the assessment procedures’, which ‘tend to ignore [the] speaking and listening skills’ and assess the writing and reading skills ‘through memorised answers’ (p. 151). Orafi and Borg (2009) also report that ‘despite [the implementation of] a new communicative curriculum [in Libyan secondary schools], classroom practices continued to be shaped by discrete item examinations based on the memorisation of grammar and vocabulary’ (p. 252). Li (1998, 2001) also found grammar-based examinations a hurdle to implementing CLT in secondary schools in South Korea. Kirkgöz (2008) also reports in her study of CLT-based curriculum innovations in Turkish primary schools that of the 32 teachers she observed and interviewed, 10 teachers made some use and 16 teachers made no use of ‘activity-oriented approaches’ as the exams did not support the use of the communicative approach (p. 1868). Carless (2007, p. 602) also reports that the ‘examinations act as a barrier towards the implementation of task-based approaches’ in secondary schools in Hong Kong. Some other innovation implementation studies of individual teachers, such as Ong’ondo (2018) in Kenya, Tetiurka (2018) in Poland, Tran (2018) in Vietnam, and Yan (2018) in China, also report discrepancies between the intended innovations and the examinations as a reason for the teachers’ limited implementation of innovations.

8.8 Institutional/official constraints

Institutional/official constraints, such as large classes, discipline issues, lack of support from administrative officials, time constraints, and lack of resources are reported to account for teachers’ limited implementation of the CLT-based curricular innovations in my study as well as in other pedagogical innovation studies. Li (1998, p. 691) reports that ‘in South Korea, a secondary school class usually contains 48-50 students’ which makes the implementation of CLT difficult for teachers. The class size (50-100 students) reported in my study is even larger than the one reported by Li (1998). The large classes compel teachers to employ a deductive, transmission method of instruction rather than engaging leaners in communicative activities. Teachers in my study as well as in Li (1998,
reported that using communicative activities, especially in large classes, causes discipline issues. Both teachers and teacher educators in Carless (2007) also claimed that the use of interactive tasks gives rise to loss of control and noise in the class. Both parties are therefore discouraged from taking task-based approaches on account of discipline issues in the educational culture in Hong Kong. Likewise, all three teachers in Carless (2003, 2004) highlighted similar discipline issues with regard to the use of TBLT. However, two of the teachers appeared to have a favourable attitude towards TBLT, stating that noise and discipline issues are unavoidable in an interactive class and both teachers and administrators should accept them as indispensable to interactive teaching. In this regard, the role of school administration is very important. The teacher in Padwad and Dixit (2018) reported head-teachers’ unsupportive attitude to noise caused by interactive activities in the class. Similarly, head-teachers’ lack of support for the use of English in classes was also highlighted by teachers in my study. Two teachers reported that they were advised by their head-teacher to use their native language in the class as learners face difficulty when they are taught in English. Likewise, the teachers’ assertion in my study that the administrative officials are more concerned with learners’ marks in the exams rather than their learning of the English language is also reported by teachers in Li (1998) and Tran (2018). Time constraints because of the pressure to cover the syllabus in the stipulated time is reported as a hurdle to the use of learner-centred activities in classrooms in this study as well as in Carless (2003, 2007), Li (1998), Padwad and Dixit (2018), Tran (2018), and Yan (2018). Inappropriate seating arrangements in the form of fixed desks are also reported in this study as well as in Li (1998) and Padwad and Dixit (2018) as a constraint in doing group work activities in class. Lack of resources and equipment, such as the facility to print handouts and audio-visual aids, including projectors and screens, are reported in this study as hurdles to carrying out learner-centred activities in classrooms. This is similar to what Kirkgöz (2008, p. 1863) reported; that ‘many Turkish state primary schools were not equipped with the necessary infrastructure facilities to enable the use of communicative approach required by COC [Communicative Oriented Curriculum].’ Li (1998) also highlights lack of funds to procure the necessary resources, such as equipment, resource books and materials, as a hurdle to implementing CLT in secondary schools in South Korea.
Karavas-Doukas (1998, p. 48) also highlights ‘inadequately resourced classes’ as an obstacle to the use of CLT in secondary schools in Greece. Similar findings related to institutional constraints are reported in some other studies conducted in Pakistan. For example, Rafiq and Sharjeel (2014) conducted a survey-based research with 100 secondary school teachers to inquire about their working conditions in which the majority of the teachers reported being dissatisfied with the working conditions. The teachers reported a lack of infrastructural resources, large class sizes, and a lack of support from administration as the main factors that inhibit them from operating effectively. Likewise, Ali (2017) carried out a detailed study involving classroom observations, post-observation interviews with teachers, group discussions with teachers, and qualitative responses from survey questionnaires to inquire into teachers’ working conditions and professional development needs in Pakistan. A vast majority (85%) of the 981 teachers who participated in the study reported being dissatisfied with their working conditions. The main constraining factors teachers indicated were: (i) large classes, (ii) shortage of time, (iii) lack of infrastructural facilities, (iv) inappropriate policies regarding curriculum and assessment, and (iv) lack of support from administration.

**8.9 Constraints associated with learners and teachers**

Constraints associated with learners, particularly their low proficiency in English and lack of interest in developing their communicative competence in English, are highlighted as hurdles for teachers to implement the CLT-based curriculum innovations in my study as well as in other studies of pedagogical innovations. For instance, learners’ low proficiency in English emerged as an important reason for not involving learners in communicative activities in my study and was also highlighted by Li (1998) and Orafi and Borg (2009) in their studies of the implementation of CLT in secondary level English language classrooms in South Korea and Libya respectively. Similarly, teachers in my study claimed implementing CLT was difficult because of learners’ lack of interest to participate in communicative activities and their lack of motivation to improve their communicative competence; and similar reasoning was also reported in Li (1998) and Orafi and Borg (2009). Aziz and Quraishi (2017) also report similar results in their survey-based study of 664 Pakistani secondary
school students to explore their beliefs regarding English language learning. Aziz and Quraishi (2017) report that the majority of the learners’ main reason for learning English was to pass their exams and not to learn the English language for its own sake. Additionally, some teachers in my study report that learners themselves avoid taking responsibility for their learning and want the teacher to use a deductive, teacher-centred method of instruction. This is similar to what Shamim (1996, p. 107) reported in her case study ‘with a small class of ten postgraduate students doing a course in Linguistics and Language Teaching’ in Pakistan. Shamim explains that when she tried to implement the use of innovative practices of learner-autonomy and learner-centredness in her classes, the learners resisted her use of innovative practices via ‘both overt and implicit forms of behaviour’ (p. 106), and even requested her to revert to a traditional style. The teachers in my study also reported that when they put responsibility on learners and involved them in pair or group work, most of the learners lacked interest to rise to the challenge. They either refused to do the activities or started speaking in their native language which is at odds with the purpose of communicative activities. These reactions reportedly compelled teachers to stick to a teacher-centred, deductive method of instruction. A similar issue of learners’ use of their native language during group work activities is also reported by teachers in Carless’ (2007) study of the suitability of TBLT in secondary schools in Hong Kong.

In addition to learners’ low proficiency in English, teachers’ inability to speak English fluently also appeared to explain some teachers’ motivation for using the L1 rather than English and for involving learners minimally in communicative activities in their lessons in this study. Although this was not the case with all the teachers as some of them were in fact fluent in English, this appeared to explain some teachers’ behaviour. The heavy use of Urdu as a medium of instruction in some classes could at least in part be attributed to both learners’ and teachers’ low proficiency in English. In Li (1998, p. 686), ‘all 18 participants considered that their own deficiency in spoken English constrained them from applying CLT in their classrooms.’ Likewise, the teacher in Tran’s (2018) study of an individual teacher’s implementation of CLT in Vietnam also reported that her low proficiency in English prevented her from implementing
CLT in her classrooms and even made ‘it hard for her to deliver some topics in the textbook’ (p. 89). Hamid and Honan (2012) and Orafi and Borg (2009) in their studies of the implementation of CLT in primary and secondary schools in Bangladesh and in secondary schools in Libya respectively also report teachers’ extended use of their L1 and scant use of the target language (English). Kirkgöz (2008) also reports that of the 32 Turkish primary school teachers she observed, 22 preferred to use Turkish in their English language lessons due to learners’ low proficiency in English. Carless (2004) reported two of the teachers in his study made some use of their L1 in their classes with low ability learners. Both the teachers also favoured low ability learners’ use of mother tongue in classes. However, one teacher neither used the mother tongue in her classes nor favoured learners’ use of their mother tongue.

**8.10 Incompatibility between teachers’ beliefs and the features of innovation**

Incompatibility between teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning processes and pedagogical innovations also emerged as a reason for teachers’ limited implementation of CLT-based curricular reforms in my study as well as in other studies of pedagogical innovations. For example, in my study, some teachers claimed that knowledge is more important than skills and once learners develop their knowledge of the English language, their language skills will develop on their own. These beliefs motivated the teachers to pay more attention to the teaching of vocabulary and grammar rather than developing learners’ language skills. This is similar to what Karavas-Doukas (1998) reported; her Greek secondary school teachers appeared to believe that the role of a teacher is to ‘transmit information about the language to learners’ rather than acting as guide and facilitator and promote learners’ communicative competence in English (p. 47). The teachers in my study also skipped the speaking and creative writing tasks given in the book and ascribed these omissions to learners’ low proficiency in English, believing that the learners would not have been capable of performing the task in English. Similarly, a main reason for not developing learners’ creative writing skills appeared to be teachers’ beliefs regarding learners’ low proficiency in English. This is similar to what Orafi and Borg (2009)
reported in their study of three teachers’ implementation of CLT in secondary schools in Libya—the teachers’ beliefs about their learners’ low proficiency in English kept them from involving learners in communicative activities in the class. Another reason for teachers not promoting learners’ real-life-like use of English in my study was teachers’ belief that learners who attend government schools mostly belong to the working class and would likely secure only low status jobs in future where they would not need English in their social circle. However, teachers’ beliefs were not always contradictory to the stipulations of the national curriculum in my study. For example, the teachers who exhibited the use of inductive pedagogy in their lessons believed in it as an appropriate instructional approach and regarded it as important for learners’ learning.

8.11 Textbook use

A very important aspect of this study is teachers’ textbook use. With regard to textbook use, this study corroborates the findings of other studies. For example, like Hamid and Honan (2012) and Kirkgöz (2008), the teachers’ lessons in this study were mainly based on the textbook. However, the grammar lessons were an exception in this regard. The teachers rarely used the textbook to teach grammar. The grammar topics were mostly taught by teachers on their own, using only a whiteboard as a teaching resource. Only two of the 12 teachers (16%) observed in this study used audio-visual aids (short videos and cue cards) as supplementary materials in their two lessons. This is very similar to what is reported by Kirkgöz (2008): that only six of the 32 Turkish primary school teachers (18%) used visual aids (puppets, pictures) in their lessons. These results are also similar to Hamid and Honan’s (2012) findings that the use of teaching aids other than the textbook and blackboard was rarely observed in classes in primary and secondary schools in Bangladesh. Additionally, my findings that the teachers mostly replaced the textbooks in their grammar lessons and mostly taught grammar on their own without using the textbook partially align with Menkabu and Harwood (2014), who report that their Saudi EFL teachers were found supplementing grammar knowledge ‘by explaining grammar rules and presenting additional examples of these rules in action before doing the textbook exercises’ in their ESP lessons (p. 161).
As for textbook adaptation, only six of the 12 teachers in my study engaged in some textbook adaptation, which is evident from teachers’ low compliance (a score of 25%) with this principle. The textbook adaptation occurred in the form of omission and modification (cf. McDonough et al., 2013). Omission was done by mainly skipping the speaking, writing, and critical thinking skills tasks because of their irrelevance to the exams. These findings corroborate those of Menkabu and Harwood (2014), who also found their Saudi EFL teachers skipping the textbook speaking and writing activities in their ESP classes because of the irrelevance of these activities to their in-house exams. The exam-driven textbook use reported by teachers in my study also corroborate the findings of Cheng (1997), Lee and Bathmaker (2007), and Pelly and Allison (2000), who report teachers’ exam-driven textbook use in their studies. Another reason for teachers skipping the textbook activities in my study was the pressure to cover the syllabus in the stipulated time. This again corresponds to Menkabu and Harwood (2014, p. 165), who report that ‘a constant complaint was the time pressures teachers were under because of the institutional requirement to cover two books in one term.’ All three teachers in Carless (2003) also reported similar reasons for skipping the tasks and activities given in the book. As for the omission of speaking skill activities due to noise and discipline issues, the findings of this study align with those of Lee and Bathmaker (2007) who also report teachers’ lesser use of pair work and group work activities given in the book because of disciplinary, disruption, and noise issues.

The findings of my study with regard to textbook adaptation also match with those of Shawer (2010) in which curriculum-developers were found skipping the activities/tasks given in the book. However, Shawer’s curriculum-developers’ textbook adaptation differed from those of the teachers in my study in many ways. For example, Shawer’s curriculum developers adapted materials to a greater degree than the teachers in my study. Shawer’s curriculum developers not only skipped tasks but sometimes skipped a whole unit, whereas none of the teachers were found skipping a whole unit in my study. This might be because I observed each teacher only three times; whereas Shawer (2010) observed each teacher 9 to 26 times. However, in post-observation interviews, none of the 12 teachers in my study reported skipping a whole unit in their
teaching. Therefore, it may be implied that my teachers do not adapt materials to the same extent as Shawer’s teachers. Shawer’s (2010) curriculum-developers created their own materials and supplemented them also; whereas in my study only one teacher created cue cards and used them in his grammar lesson for a group work activity. Shawer’s curriculum-developers used authentic materials, such as newspapers, internet articles, and drawings. In contrast, none of the 12 teachers in my study were found to use any authentic materials in their lessons. In Shawer (2010), each curriculum-developer ‘added five to ten lessons from outside the textbook’ (p. 179); whereas in my study, it was only the grammar lessons that were added by the teachers outside the book. Despite my teachers’ less radical adaptations compared to Shawer’s teachers, it can be said that the six teachers who were found doing textbook adaptation in my study were partly like Shawer’s (2010) curriculum-developers. The other six teachers who were not found adapting materials in my study were like Shawer’s (2010) curriculum-transmitters who followed the textbook as it is. None of the teachers in my study were like Shawer’s (2010) curriculum-makers, who carried out a learners’ needs analysis at the beginning and created their own curriculum instead of following the textbook.

In addition to teachers’ textbook use, this study also includes the aspect of textbook analysis, which makes this study distinct from the other curriculum innovation studies. This aspect is discussed below.

8.12 Textbook analysis

A distinctive feature of this study is textbook analysis. None of the curriculum innovation studies I reviewed include the aspect of textbook analysis in their research designs, though some of them very briefly report on teachers’ use of the textbook in their lessons. However, Kirkgöz (2008) presents some brief comments about textbooks despite the fact it also does not involve a detailed textbook analysis. For example, Kirkgöz (2008, p. 1864) points out that ‘an examination of textbooks for grades 4 and 5 revealed that textbooks could not capture the spirit of COC [Communicative Oriented Curriculum], i.e., the listening and speaking components of CLT were not adequately catered for.’ In contrast, this study involved a detailed and systematic textbook analysis which
revealed the pedagogical practices the textbooks embody and also the extent to which these pedagogical practices align with the macro-level pedagogical policy.

On comparing the textbook analysis carried out in this study with other studies of textbook analysis, particularly in the Pakistani context (e.g., Ali et al., 2015; Fatima et al., 2015; Naseem et al., 2015; Shah et al. 2015), some interesting features emerge. With regard to the presentation of, and importance given to, different language skills/subskills in the textbooks, the findings of this study corroborate those of Ali et al. (2015) (who analysed grade 6, 7 and 8 state-mandated local ELT textbooks used in Punjab, Pakistan), Naseem et al. (2015) (who analysed a grade 9 state-mandated local ELT textbook used in Punjab, Pakistan), and Shah et al. (2015) (who analysed two grade 6 and two grade 7 global ELT textbooks used in a private school in Pakistan). The textbook analyses in these studies show that the textbooks emphasise the teaching and learning of grammar and vocabulary and give comparatively less importance to language skills. To provide a fuller explanation, the proportions of different skill/subskill work plans reported to be found in the books in these studies are given in Table 8.1 below.

Table 8.1: Language skills/subskills occurrence percentage in global/local ELT textbooks

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textbook type</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill/Subskill</td>
<td>Occurrence percentage of the work plans</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>31.58%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>17.11%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>17.98%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>15.79%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>15.35%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>1%</td>
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These findings show that both local and global ELT textbooks give more importance to formS-focused instruction. These findings are also in line with Tomlinson’s (2013b) analyses of six global ELT textbooks in which he found that
all the books were formS-focused in nature as ‘the majority of their activities [were] language item practice activities’ (p. 16). However, some contradictory findings were found in Fatima et al. (2015) who analysed two global ELT textbooks used at grade 7 and 8 in a private school in Pakistan. The textbook analysis in Fatima et al. (2015) revealed that the books gave more importance to English language skills and less to grammar and vocabulary. In general, however, it seems that both local and global textbooks emphasise language practice activities, and in that sense the local textbooks analysed in my study are not out of step with their global counterparts.

An interesting feature noted in the textbook analysis studies in Pakistan is that the textbook analysis in these studies is mainly restricted to numeric data in the form of presenting the number of the textbook units and of the tasks/activities (work plans) related to each language skill and subskill given in the book. Even if they dig deeper, at most, they classify the activities into different types. For example, while evaluating the speaking skill, they simply count 2 speaking activities in the form of a dialogue, 3 interview activities, 2 presentation activities, and 13 individual and group work activities. These studies neither present detailed qualitative interpretations of the pedagogical implications of the activities/tasks nor do they explain how these activities/tasks impact on teaching/learning processes.

**8.13 Conclusion**

In this chapter I discuss the findings of this study in relation to those of other studies that deal with various topics that overlap with my concerns in this thesis—studies of ELT curricular innovations, innovation implementation, teachers’ pedagogical practices, factors that account for teachers’ limited implementation of innovations, textbook use, and textbook analysis. I now proceed to the final conclusion chapter.
Chapter Nine

Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

My main aim in this study was to investigate the level of alignment between pedagogy in policy (the macro-level pedagogical policy stipulated in the national curriculum) and pedagogy in practice (the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks and enacted by teachers in the classroom) with regard to ELE at secondary level (grade 9-10) in government schools in Punjab, Pakistan. While investigating this, I also explored the nature of interplay between the curriculum, materials, assessment (exams), personnel, and resourcing policies from the perspective of the methods policy in Pakistan. To achieve these aims, I first carried out a detailed qualitative content analysis of the national curriculum for English language to determine what pedagogical policy it stipulates. Secondly, I analysed the ELT textbooks using Ellis’s (2016) framework to determine the pedagogical principles the textbooks embody and the extent to which these principles coincide with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical policy. Having done this, I observed 12 teachers’ 36 English language lessons to explore their pedagogical practices and to determine the extent to which they comply with the pedagogical policy stipulated in the national curriculum. Lastly, I conducted post-observation interviews with the observed teachers to inquire into their rationale for the pedagogical practices they use(d) in their lessons and to explore the factors that compel(led) them to resist or adapt the pedagogical practices stipulated in the national curriculum and the pedagogical practices embodied in the ELT textbooks.

I now draw my conclusion based on the findings of my study and explain the implications these findings have for all stakeholders. I first summarise the findings of the study with reference to the research questions and then reflect on the implications of the study. Lastly, I enumerate the limitations of the study and give suggestions for future research.
9.2 Summary of the findings

Drawing on the findings of the study it is concluded that a wide gap exists between pedagogy in policy and pedagogy in practice. The national curriculum stipulates a suite of 15 macro-level pedagogical principles which mainly recommend the use of a communicative, learner-centred pedagogy, giving more importance to developing learners’ communicative competence in English to enable them to use English for various academic and social purposes. It suggests teachers make more use of inductive pedagogy, involving problem-solving and inquiry-based learning strategies, and develop learners’ critical, analytical and creative skills and make them autonomous and lifelong learners. In this regard, it assigns teachers the role of a facilitator rather than that of a transmitter of knowledge. Further, it suggests teachers do not rely solely on textbooks; instead, they adapt and supplement materials where necessary and also review learners’ learning and progress regularly.

The findings of the textbook analysis show that the ELT textbooks partially comply with the stipulated pedagogical policy. Though the textbook writers claim in the books that the books are developed in line with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical policy, the textbook analysis reveals that only four of the 11 textbook-related national curriculum-mandated pedagogical principles feature in the textbooks the same way as intended in the national curriculum. These four principles are: reviewing learners’ learning and progress, providing supportive facilitation to learners, developing learners’ cognitive skills, and setting learning objectives. Five pedagogical principles feature in the textbooks, but with some variation. For instance, the textbooks focus more on developing learners’ knowledge of English language knowledge and pay less attention to language skills, which is at odds with the stipulated pedagogical policy that gives priority to developing learners’ communicative competence in English. Further, although in line with the pedagogical policy the textbooks promote an integrated language teaching approach, they focus more on the teaching of grammar and vocabulary and pay less attention to language skills (writing, reading, and speaking), and the listening skill is completely ignored. Similarly, in line with the pedagogical policy, the textbooks prioritise learners’ use of the target (English) language; however, the language use the textbooks
promote is less creative and more manipulative in nature than the approach stipulated in the curriculum, the textbooks mostly requiring learners to produce linguistic output by manipulating the given text. For example, the books contain many gap-fill activities and drilling exercises, which require learners reproduce only a word, a phrase, or a sentence (such as the correct form of a verb or preposition, or the formation of a sentence containing the target structure) to practise the correct use of language. Such language practice exercises/activities do not promote the creative and real-life-like use of English. The textbooks also appear to promote deductive pedagogy more than inductive pedagogy, which is at odds with the stipulated pedagogical policy. Most importantly, the two pedagogical principles (the use of the communicative approach and collaborative learning), which are highly emphasised in the pedagogical policy, are not significantly promoted by the textbooks.

As for teachers’ compliance with the macro-level pedagogical policy in their English language classrooms, the findings show that overall the teachers displayed a very low level of compliance (29%) with the macro-level pedagogical policy. They showed an unsatisfactory level of compliance (less than a 50% score) for all 15 pedagogical principles stipulated in the national curriculum. For three principles (setting and achieving learning objectives, materials supplementation, and lesson planning) they scored comparatively higher (in the range of 41%–44%). Likewise, they scored comparatively higher (38.9%) for another four pedagogical principles (use of inductive pedagogy, use of deductive pedagogy, promoting learner autonomy, and reviewing learners’ learning and progress). Whereas they obtained extremely low scores (less than 10%) for the four principles that are highly emphasised in the national curriculum. These four principles are: use of the communicative approach (2.9%), promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes (6.9%), developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge (9.7%), and developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills (9.7%). However, the analysis of teachers’ individual level of compliance with the stipulated pedagogical policy revealed that of the 12 teachers, one teacher showed a good compliance level (with a score of 63%) and two teachers displayed a satisfactory compliance level (with a score of 50%).
As for teachers’ pedagogical practices and their rationale for employing those pedagogical practices, the findings reveal that teachers’ pedagogical practices are mainly driven by the demands the examinations place upon both teachers and learners. Teachers pay more attention to the teaching of grammar, reading comprehension, and translation (English to Urdu and Urdu to English) because of their relevance to the exams. However, teachers ignore the teaching of English language skills (particularly speaking, creative writing, and listening), learners’ real-life-like use of English, and higher order cognitive skills, claiming these skills are irrelevant to the exams. Teachers reported that although reading and writing are included in the exams, they prefer to prepare learners for the exams by applying a memorisation strategy. Teachers further claim their memorisation approach to reading and writing is motivated by learners’ low proficiency in English. In terms of teaching methods, teachers mostly rely on the GTM, as it fulfils learners’ exam requirements. Teachers avoid using the communicative approach particularly because of its irrelevance to the exams and various contextual constraints, such as learners’ low proficiency in English, time constraints, discipline issues, and a lack of material resources that facilitate the use of learner-centred activities. Further, teachers mainly use Urdu as a medium of instruction due to learners’ as well as their own low proficiency in English. Lastly, teacher training, particularly with reference to ELT and macro-level pedagogical policy, is lacking. This may be regarded as one of the main reasons for the teachers’ scant knowledge and awareness of the macro-level pedagogical policy and their limited compliance with this.

9.3 Pedagogical implications

The study has many pedagogical implications for all stakeholders, including education policy makers, curriculum developers, administrators, teachers, and textbook writers. No doubt the effective functioning of all stakeholders is essential for the successful implementation of innovations; but the role of education policy makers and administrators is particularly important, as being the initiators and managers of change, they set the agenda for the implementers of change, that is, teachers, textbook writers, and teacher educators. In addition, education policy makers and administrators are responsible for taking other necessary measures, such as disseminating information about the innovations
to the implementers of change, arranging teacher training, making decisions
about developing new instructional materials, and providing infrastructural
resources. In sum, education policy makers and administrators are responsible
for ensuring institutional as well as individual readiness for the successful
implementation of innovations. Wedell (2009) notes that the most essential
factors education policy makers need to consider ‘to identify institutional and
individual ‘readiness’ for, or ‘fit’ with, the hoped-for outcomes of a proposed
change’ are:

1. Teachers’ understanding of, and attitude to, the proposed changes
2. The type and level of training the teachers have received and teachers’
   level of professional expertise to implement the proposed changes
3. Level of compatibility between the instructional materials and the
   proposed changes
4. Level of compatibility between the assessment pattern and the proposed
   changes
5. Availability of teaching and learning resources
6. Class size – is the class size appropriate to make the change happen? If
   not, then are the funds available to adjust the class size?
7. Institutional heads’ and educational administrators’ understanding of,
   and attitude to, the proposed changes
8. Institutional heads’ and educational administrators’ cultural
   assumptions about the teaching and learning process and the teachers’
   and learners’ roles
9. Teacher educators’ ‘understanding of the proposed change, and hence
   their readiness to support teachers in developing confidence in new
   practices’ (pp. 24-25)

The findings of this study show that the ELE context in Pakistan is found
wanting with reference to most of the items in Wedell’s list cited above, resulting
in the limited implementation of the stipulated pedagogical policy at the level of
textbooks and teachers’ pedagogical practices in their English language
classrooms. Hence, success in implementing the ELE reforms in Pakistan will
be possible only when these issues are addressed, and the most important role
in this regard is that of education policy makers and administrators. A main
reason for teachers’ limited implementation of innovations found in this study is their lack of knowledge of the pedagogical innovations. This is particularly relevant when considering the role of the education policy makers and administrators who neither ensured the provision of the policy document (The National Curriculum for English Language – 2006) nor the dissemination of knowledge about the macro-level pedagogical policy to the implementers. None of the 12 teachers who participated in this study reported having received a copy of the national curriculum either in hard or soft form from the Education Department. The teachers were even not aware that the national curriculum is available on the Ministry of Education website and could be downloaded from there. Hence, the teachers appeared to have no knowledge of what pedagogical policy they are required to follow. Secondly, even if they had received a copy of the national curriculum, it would have been hard for them to understand the stipulated pedagogical policy, as the pedagogical principles are presented in the national curriculum in an incoherent and vague manner. A simple reading of the document may not clearly reveal to the reader (the implementers) what pedagogical practices the national curriculum requires them to follow. It was due to this reason that I carried out a detailed analysis of the national curriculum and found that it stipulates a suite of 15 pedagogical principles. Implementers (teachers, head teachers, teacher trainers, and textbook writers) who are directly responsible for implementing the policy on the ground may lack both expertise and time to analyse the policy document and understand the stipulated pedagogical policy. Therefore, the provision of policy documents with clear guidelines about the pedagogical policy to the implementers is essential. This will facilitate the implementers to understand the policy, who would then be able to implement it more effectively.

It is also important to note that the provision of only written policy documents and innovation guidelines to the implementers is not enough to ensure their understanding of the innovations (Wedell, 2009), as the change initiators’ (policy makers’ and curriculum developers’) perception that the teachers are trained professionals and can easily understand what they are asked to do may not be entirely accurate (Karavas-Doukas, 1998). Teachers cannot develop a full appreciation of the policy unless they are properly trained.
This is evident in the findings of this study. A main reason for teachers’ lack of knowledge and understanding of the pedagogical policy was that they were given no training about the pedagogical policy they were required to follow. Hence, the teachers appeared to lack the ‘how’ element of the pedagogical innovations also, that is, how they can implement the pedagogical policy successfully. None of the 12 teachers reported having received any innovation-specific training. The only training they received was a one-off pre-service training, which was general in nature, not innovation specific. Secondly, this training reportedly focused more on telling teachers about their administrative obligations and paid less attention to pedagogy, which did not facilitate teachers’ broader understanding of pedagogical issues. No doubt it is important that teachers should know their administrative obligations, but teachers’ main responsibility is to teach, which they can perform effectively only when they are fully aware of what pedagogical policy they are required to follow and how they can perform this. Therefore, there is a need to provide innovation-specific training to teachers to explain to them both the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of the pedagogy they are required to follow. Moreover, participation in this training must be mandatory for teachers. Otherwise, the purpose of training may not be achieved, as happened in Turkey (Kirkgöz, 2008) where participation in the training was optional for teachers. Only six of the 32 teachers (18%) reported having attended the training, which consequently resulted in teachers’ lack of clarity about the pedagogical innovations and thus in their inability to implement the innovations.

Further, the successful implementation of innovations depends not only on teachers’ theoretical understanding of the innovations, but also requires an equal understanding of the application of theoretical principles in the classroom (Carless, 2001; Wedell, 2009). Hence, the training should not only inform teachers about the theoretical construct of the innovations but should also train teachers about how they can implement the innovations practically. In this regard, it is important that the training should not be restricted to the four walls of a training centre only but should also relate closely to the actual classroom and classroom conditions. This will make teacher trainers aware of the problems teachers face in their classroom and then they may be able to advise teachers as to how to deal with these problems, providing them with practical solutions.
which will facilitate teachers’ understanding about how innovations can be implemented successfully. It is also important to note that the provision of only one-off training about the innovations is not the solution. Instead, multiple training sessions should be conducted. They are useful in developing implementers’ comprehensive understanding of the innovations and may also be a source of reminding them of their responsibility to implement the macro-level pedagogical policy on the ground (Grassick & Wedell, 2018). In this regard, a notable example is found in Padwad and Dixit’s (2018) study of an individual teacher’s ELT innovation implementation in Maharashtra (India), where the provision of multiple rounds of innovation-specific training helped the teacher to develop his understanding of the innovations and to boost his confidence which helped him to implement the innovations in a better way and to experience the change in a positive manner.

In addition to innovation-specific training, the provision of ongoing professional development opportunities is equally essential, but this was also found wanting in the Pakistani ELE context. Of the 12 teachers, only two reported having attended a few training sessions, workshops, and conferences other than the one-off pre-service and in-service training sessions which were offered by the Education Department and attending those training sessions was obligatory for the teachers. The literature (e.g., Brindley & Hood, 1990; Fullan, 2007; Wedell, 2009) explains that the provision of only one-off pre-service/in-service training sessions, as practised in Pakistan, is not enough to develop teachers’ broader understanding of pedagogy, as these sessions often explain theoretical knowledge, provide only general solutions, and do not focus on the needs of individual teachers and institutions. Further, in ESL/EFL contexts like Pakistan where innovations require teachers to undergo a major cultural shift in their existing pedagogical practices, a one-off training session is not enough to ensure teachers implement the innovations successfully (Wedell, 2003). Hence, the provision of ongoing professional development opportunities to teachers is necessary, as these training sessions help in bringing change in teachers’ beliefs and practices and enable them to evolve as active thinkers and creative implementers rather than acting as passive implementers (Grassick & Wedell, 2018). Change remains short-lived when teachers are regarded as
uncritical implementers only. In such a situation, teachers cannot become change agents. Change is an ongoing process, not a singular activity. Teachers face new situations every day in their classes, and they should have the ability to cope with any new changing situations. Therefore, there is a need to make teachers creative thinkers, not just passive implementers. The main purpose of educating teachers should be to make them life-long learners, who keep on reflecting on their teaching practices, analyse them critically, and improve them on regular basis. This is possible only when teachers are provided with ongoing professional development opportunities. In this regard, Grassick and Wedell (2018) suggest the provision of INSET (IN-SErvice Training) courses to teachers. Some examples of such INSET courses are found in Khamis and Sammons’ (2004, 2007) studies of teachers’ professional development in Pakistan, where teachers were given the opportunity to do an M.Ed. programme during their service with the purpose of developing them as exemplary teachers, teacher educators, and change agents after completing the M.Ed. programme. The INSET (M.Ed. programme) improved teachers’ teaching practices and also helped them in becoming teacher educators, who then inspired and helped their colleagues to become good teachers. Another such example of the positive impact of a six-month INSET course in changing a teacher’s beliefs and practices is found in Lee’s (2018) study of a teacher’s implementation of CLT-based innovations in South Korea. In Lee (2018), the teacher (Chang) joined a six-month INSET course which along with her personal commitment helped her to improve her teaching skills and to implement the curriculum-mandated pedagogy. One of the advantages of such INSET courses is that they provide teachers time and space to reflect on their teaching practices and improve them (Grassick & Wedell, 2018). Hence, ‘in-service training programmes should [be designed in a way that they] emphasise a reflective approach to learning in which practical work, small action-research projects and reflection should be made important ingredients of teachers’ learning’ (Ali, 2017, p. 24). The provision of such INSET especially designed with regard to the ELE reforms in Pakistan may help teachers to improve their pedagogical practices.

Success in implementing innovations is impossible unless there are changes at the level of head-teachers’ and educational administrators’ cultural
assumptions about teaching and learning processes and to their attitudes and practices in line with the proposed reforms (Fullan, 1993; Sarason, 1990; Wedell, 2009). The head-teachers’ traditional assumptions about teaching and learning processes in the form of their preoccupation with learners’ exam marks rather than with learners’ learning of the English language is reported by teachers in this study as well as in Li (1998) and Tran (2018). Similarly, head-teachers’ unfavourable attitudes to interactive classes due to noise and discipline issues are reported in this study as well as in Padwad and Dixit (2018). Hence, along with teachers there is a need to develop conceptual understanding in head-teachers also that noise and discipline issues to a certain extent are inevitable in an interactive class. They should accept these as unavoidable and have a more positive attitude towards these (Grassick & Wedell, 2018). This will facilitate teachers’ use of interactive activities in the class. In addition, there is a need to develop an overall understanding of the innovation in head-teachers and educational administrators, and this can be done by providing them with the policy documents, innovation-specific training and ongoing professional development opportunities.

Textbook writers should also be provided with clear policy guidelines and training about textbook development. Although the textbook writers claim to have developed the ELT textbooks in line with the national curriculum-mandated pedagogical policy, the textbooks appeared only to partially follow the stipulated pedagogical policy. Most importantly, the textbooks did not appear to follow the communicative approach, which is a prominent part of the pedagogical approach advocated by the curriculum. The textbooks contained many gap-fill activities and drilling exercises which particularly focused on the teaching of grammar and vocabulary. This preoccupation with language practice activities and the neglect of the use of communicative approach needs to be addressed by bringing the ELT textbooks in line with the communicative approach. This is particularly important in educational contexts like Pakistan where textbooks not only provide day-to-day content for language teaching but also play a significant role in determining teachers’ pedagogical practices. The change in the textbooks in line with the communicative approach will facilitate the implementation of CLT in classrooms as is reported by Padwad and Dixit

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(2018) in their study of a teacher’s implementation of CLT in Maharashtra (India), where the change in the textbook in line with the communicative approach helped the teacher to regularly engage learners in communicative activities in the class. Similarly, along with changes in the textbooks, teachers should be given training about textbook use and materials adaptation and supplementation. These topics should also be included in pre- and in-service training (Menkabu & Harwood, 2014). None of the teachers in this study reported having received any training about textbook use. Again, in educational contexts like Pakistan where ELT to a great extent relies on textbooks, teachers’ understanding of how to use and adapt a textbook effectively and how to supplement additional materials is essential to improve the standard of ELT. In this regard, again the example of Padwad and Dixit’s (2018) teacher is very relevant. Initially, despite the change in the textbook, the teacher kept teaching the textbook the same way as he had taught previously. However, having received training about textbook use, his teaching practices improved a lot.

It is also important to note that in educational contexts where teachers have to teach to the test, changes in textbooks only may not bring a change in teachers’ pedagogical practices unless changes are made to the assessment pattern also. For example, in this study the teachers were found skipping the speaking and creative writing activities given in the book simply because of the irrelevance of these activities to the exams. This study as well as other studies (e.g., Karavas-Doukas, 1998; Li, 1998; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Tetiurka, 2018; Tran, 2018; Yan, 2018) reveal that despite the stipulations of the pedagogical policies that require the use of interactive approaches, teachers have to teach to the test not only to make their learners pass the exams but also to ensure their own job security. As long as the exams assess learners’ knowledge of discrete linguistic items and neglect learners’ communicative competence as found in this study, the aim of implementing an interactive approach may not materialise (Grassick & Wedell, 2018). Therefore, there is a need to amend the assessment pattern in line with the national curriculum stipulations. No doubt this is not an easy task and may not be implemented overnight as it requires skills and resources, yet steps may be taken in this direction gradually, as reported by Tran (2018), where ‘a short listening test part [was] added to the continual assessment’ at secondary
level in Vietnam as a part of the CLT-based curriculum reforms (p. 89). Similarly, when working at the English language institute of a university in Saudi Arabia in 2013-2014, I found that the end-of-course exams included the assessment of learners’ reading, writing, and speaking skills, and therefore the teachers would teach these skills to learners in the class. A similar practice can also be followed in Pakistan. For example, the formative assessment of the speaking and listening skills as introduced in Vietnam (Tran, 2018) can be added to the assessment pattern. Change in the assessment pattern to introduce assessed components focusing on the speaking and listening skills will encourage teachers to teach these skills to learners. Further, this will not require a large amount of resources. The only measures that are required to be taken in this regard are to train the teachers to assess the speaking and listening skills and to provide them with some basic resources, such as CD players and listening materials in the form of audio files to assess learners’ listening skills and printing and copying machines to print out the materials (such as handouts) which may be used when assessing learners’ speaking skills. Similarly, there is a need to discourage the learners’ habit of memorising to do the creative writing tasks. This can be done by changing the assessment rubric, which in its current form gives more importance to accuracy in the use of language. No doubt accuracy is important, but along with accuracy some marks can be allocated to creativity. This will encourage both teachers and learners to do the writing tasks using creative writing skills rather than just doing them via memorisation.

There is also a need to make the exams concept-oriented rather than textbook-oriented, and this is easily possible in the case of languages. In language teaching, the factual information given in the books is used only as a tool to transmit the knowledge of language to learners. Learners’ assessment of their linguistic knowledge and competence in no way relies on the factual information given in the books. Therefore, there is a need to take maximum advantage of this freedom in the assessment of English language by making the exams assess learners’ conceptual and communicative competence of the English language. This will also lower the pressure of syllabus-coverage on teachers which has been reported in this study and will help teachers to pay more attention to develop learners’ English language skills. Further, this will
encourage teachers to supplement their classes with additional materials and
will reduce their dependency on the prescribed textbooks, which often takes
away teachers’ freedom, creativity, and innovation and compels them to act as
passive implementers rather than acting as creative thinkers (Allwright, 1981;
Thornbury & Meddings, 2001 cited in Harwood, 2005). This will also help to
make teachers realise that textbooks ‘should be seen as resources rather than
courses’ (Harwood, 2010, p. 4). In this regard, a good example is found in
Padwad and Dixit’s (2018) study of an individual teacher’s implementation of
curricular reforms in Maharashtra (India), where ‘the new question paper
depend[ed] less on familiar texts from the textbook and require[d] learners to
work with unfamiliar texts’ (p. 110). This change in the examination pattern
made learners ‘depend less on memorisation and more on acquired skills’ (p.
110). A similar sort of assessment pattern, which relies less on the prescribed
textbooks and is based on assessing learners’ English language skills, is required
to be implemented in Pakistan.

Institutional constraints, such as large class sizes, discipline issues, lack
of support from administration, and lack of material resources also emerge as
important issues in this study. Achieving a reduction in class size may be a
difficult task for the administration, as it needs a huge budget and substantial
measures, such as the availability of additional classrooms, teachers, and
material resources, which is unlikely in the near future in Pakistan which spends
only 2.4% of its GDP (gross domestic product) on education and only 29% of
this 2.4% is spent on secondary education (Amin, 2019; Ministry of Education,
2015). Likewise, replacing the fixed desks with moveable chairs (to encourage a
more communicative, interactive classroom atmosphere) also needs a lot of
funds and is also unlikely in schools in the near future for the same reason.
However, a more realistic measure would be to train teachers how to use
learner-centred activities in large classes with fixed desks. Literature on these
issues both in general and in the Pakistani educational context in particular (e.g.,
Jin & Cortazzi 1998; Locastro, 2001; Sarwar, 2001; Sikoyo, 2010) is available.
Hence, these topics can be included in pre- and in-service training to train
teachers to address these constraints skilfully until arrangements are made for
the provision of these resources.
Another important issue found in this study is the dominance of only textbook- and blackboard-based teaching, which seems quite strange in the present technologically advanced world. This issue needs to be addressed urgently, as the teachers in this study reported this as one of the main reasons for their limited use of learner-centred activities and making the class teacher-centred. In this regard, the provision of material resources, such as audio-visual aids and printers, is necessary, as they facilitate the use of learner-centred activities in the class. For example, in this study, one teacher (T9), who had the facility of a smart TV (i.e., a TV with internet connectivity) in his class, used it when teaching grammar (focusing on participles). He played two YouTube video lessons of native speaker teachers in his lesson, which I noticed helped learners to understand the topic in a better way. The availability of a smart TV in a class shows that the government has already started paying attention to this issue, but this is taking place on a very small scale. Of the 12 different schools in six different towns of the Bahawalpur district I visited to carry out classroom observations, the facility of a smart TV was available in only one class in one school. There is a need to provide such facilities in every class.

Teachers’ and learners’ low proficiency in English also emerged as a reason for their limited use of English and the scant use of interactive activities in the class. The implementation of the communicative approach with teachers and learners having low proficiency in English is not possible as found in this study as well as in Li (1998). Hence, there is a need to improve teachers’ English language proficiency. In this regard, a good example of how to achieve this is reported in Tran (2018) in the Vietnamese context. In Vietnam, a macro-level policy was developed to improve both teachers’ and learners’ English language proficiency in line with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). According to this policy, ‘secondary [level] students must obtain an English level proficiency equivalent to CEFR level B1 upon completing secondary education, and teachers of English at upper-secondary levels have to attain level C1’ (Tran, 2018, p. 85). Further, the ministry of education in Vietnam not only set this criterion for teachers’ English language proficiency but also provided them with INSET opportunities to improve their English language proficiency. Tran (2018) reports that although initially it was stressful for the
teacher (Lan, who participated in Tran’s study) to improve her English language proficiency, the INSET improved her English language proficiency and ‘she was [also] capable of applying a number of good ideas from the language upgrade course in her daily English language instruction’ (p. 93). A similar step is required to be taken in Pakistan to improve teachers’ English language proficiency. Similarly, there is a need to make learners realise that along with passing the exam, achieving proficiency in English is very important, as the ultimate aim of learning English is to develop the ability to communicate in English, not just to pass the exam (Aziz & Qureshi, 2017).

To implement a large-scale change, learning is essential not only for implementers but for policy makers also (Wedell & Malderez, 2013). In this regard, an important step is to develop policy makers’ understanding of modern pedagogical approaches, particularly of the communicative approach, as policy makers’ misunderstanding of ‘what CLT means’ may contribute to the lack of success of the many ELT curriculum change policies that claim to be based on the communicative approach (Wedell, 2003, 2009). There is also a need to make policy makers aware that CLT is not a method and does not entail a set of prescribed activities or classroom behaviours. Therefore, expecting a uniform implementation of CLT in different classrooms is unrealistic. Policy makers and educational administrators need to understand that the communicative approach represents a way of thinking about the nature of language and the language learning process. It does not prescribe a fixed set of procedures or methods. It rather implicitly acknowledges that the realisation of ‘being communicative’ in any classroom will differ in accordance with the existing socio-educational norms in any given teacher’s context. This realisation at the level of all stakeholders—initiators, managers, and implementers of change—will result in the better implementation of CLT-based curricular innovations.

There is also a need for regular interaction between policy makers, curriculum developers, administrators, school officials, and teachers. Such interaction makes policy makers learn from other stakeholders’ experiences and develop ‘awareness of existing cultural and material realities’ (Grassick & Wedell, 2018, p. 266). It also ‘develop[s] the sense of stakeholder involvement in, understanding of, and perhaps even commitment to the change process’
(Grassick & Wedell, 2018, p. 267) and provides opportunities to all stakeholders to clarify the meanings of innovations, resolve implementation problems, and achieve success in implementing innovations. It is therefore suggested that the initiators and managers of change get in touch with the implementers regularly, get feedback from them, extend necessary support to them, and make necessary modifications in the light of their feedback (Carless, 2001). Likewise, there is also a need for interaction between teachers themselves and between teachers and school officials which opens up prospects for sharing ideas and resolving problems through mutual collaboration (Karavas-Doukas, 1998). In this regard, teachers can develop some groups or clubs within their school, with teachers in the other schools in the same area, and with the broader teacher community where they can discuss ideas about their own teaching beliefs and about innovations with their colleagues. The formation of this sort of English teachers’ club is reported in Padwad and Dixit’s (2018) study of an individual teacher’s implementation of CLT-based curricular innovations in Maharashtra (India). Padwad and Dixit (2018) report that the teacher’s association with the English teachers’ club had a positive impact on his teaching and motivation to implement the required pedagogical changes. Ali (2017, p. 21) also suggests some good steps in this regard as follows:

Teachers need opportunities to participate in cooperative and collaborative activities, such as joint planning, team teaching and discussion forums in the school, and observation of model lessons delivered by the head teacher or other experienced teachers; attending regular staff meetings, seminars, and educational conferences; going on educational tours; inviting education scholars to the schools; team teaching as a support for reflection; accessing information on the internet and studying professional literature. These activities, along with provision of necessary facilities, such as library resource, well-furnished study rooms and free-time for self study, can contribute to promoting an educative environment inside schools.

Similarly, the development of an effective monitoring, evaluation, and feedback mechanism in government schools is much needed in Pakistan. Such a system has not been developed in the past (Aly, 2007; Jamil, 2009). Though recently the government has developed a monitoring system in schools, its role has been restricted to ensure teachers’ and students’ attendance in the school. It does not include observing teachers’ lessons, evaluating their pedagogical skills, and giving them feedback to improve their pedagogy. To ensure the successful implementation of pedagogical policy and to improve teachers’ pedagogical skills, it is necessary that teachers’ classes should be observed, and
they should be given feedback about their pedagogy. Similarly, records of teachers’ classroom observations should be maintained. Based on this record, teachers’ pedagogical strengths and weaknesses should be identified and then teacher training courses should be designed on the basis of this data. This process will help to address teachers’ weaknesses in their pedagogy. Further, during this process, teachers with excellent pedagogical skills should be identified, who then should be trained as teacher educators to train other teachers. The lessons of the teachers who display excellent pedagogical skills may also be recorded as model lessons and be disseminated to other teachers for their training. An excellent example of such a model of teachers’ classroom observations and training exists in the English Language Institute of King Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia, where I worked as a professional development specialist and experienced this model. This model produced excellent results in improving teachers’ pedagogical skills. About 300 English language teachers work in the English Language Institute of King Abdulaziz University. Each teacher has a 50-minute lesson observed at least once every year and based on their classroom observation they are given feedback about their pedagogy. Teachers with weak pedagogical skills are observed twice a year. The record of teachers’ classroom observation is maintained; their weak areas are identified; and then they are trained to improve their shortcomings. Further, the teachers with excellent pedagogical skills are identified as mentors, who are then assigned the task to observe their colleagues as a peer-observer and help them to improve their pedagogical skills. Such steps can also be taken in Pakistan to improve the pedagogy in schools.

The implications of the outcome of this study and the suggestions above are essential to materialise the successful implementation of the communicative, learner-centred pedagogy in the ELE context in Pakistan. In the absence of these measures, the objective of bringing the desired change in ELT in Pakistan may not be possible. However, if policy makers think that the implementation of the above measures is not possible, then the literature on ELT and on innovative ELE suggests the alternative option of a ‘culture-sensitive pedagogy’ (Holliday, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; McKay, 2003). Holliday (1994) contends that a teaching approach is not fixed. Every teaching approach has the potential to
adapt to all types of contexts and classrooms. McKay (2003) argues that in today’s world, English, being a global lingua franca, no longer belongs to inner circle countries only. It is learnt and used as an additional language in outer and expanding circle countries also. The expansion of English across the globe and the emergence of World Englishes suggest that ‘teaching methodology has to proceed in a manner that respects the local culture of learning’ (McKay, 2003, p. 19). A commonly cited reason for the use of Western-oriented modern pedagogical approaches, such as CLT and TBLT, in various ELE programmes across the world is that these approaches assign an active role to learners and make classes learner-centred with the help of tasks and activities (Hamid, 2010; Hu, 2002; Nunan, 2003). On the other hand, the traditional teaching methods, such as the GTM, direct method, and audio-lingual method, are considered as assigning a very passive role (the role of a receiver of knowledge) to learners. These traditional teaching methods are seen as considering a learner as an ‘empty vessel which a teacher can arbitrarily fill with new knowledge or behaviour’ (Holliday, 1994, p. 167). These traditional teaching methods supposedly do not value individuals as autonomous learners having their own choices and preferences. However, a similar argument can also be presented with regard to CLT and TBLT, especially when their uncritical implementation is seen as an ultimate solution without establishing whether they fit in a specific educational context. The concept of shifting from one teaching method to another and forcing its strict compliance is itself against the concepts of learner- and teacher-autonomy. Likewise, the use of a top-down approach (making a policy and demanding its uncritical implementation) does not fit all situations and hence is regarded as an inappropriate approach (Menken & Garcia, 2010). That is why Menken and Garcia (2010) argue that the users of innovation (learners and teachers) should not be regarded as passive receivers and implementers only; rather they should be seen as local creators also. Shamim (1996) also presents a similar idea and contends that the success of an

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33 Inner circle is a term used by Kachru (1992). It refers to the countries such as Britain, Australia, Canada, America, and New Zealand where English is used as a mother tongue.
34 Outer circle is a term used by Kachru (1992). It refers to those countries which have a British colonial background and where English has an institutionalised and official status. Such countries include Singapore, South Africa, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Malaysia.
35 Expanding circle is a term used by Kachru (1992). It refers to those countries where English is used and taught as a foreign language, e.g. China, Korea, Saudi Arabia, Nepal, and Russia.
educational innovation introduced by an external agency (a policy making body) cannot be achieved unless it is properly supported by insiders, particularly teachers and learners. Therefore, an alternative option is that the teachers should be seen as active practitioners rather than as subordinate functionaries, and a culture-sensitive approach that fits in the local socio-educational context be implemented in Pakistan. In this regard, it is the responsibility of all stakeholders to agree on an acceptable combination of both traditional and modern pedagogical approaches which is partially in line with the local socio-educational realities and also promotes interactive, learner-centred pedagogy. This aim can be achieved by combining a locally appropriate pedagogy with the desired communicative approach, and educational experts can play a vital role in this regard.

9.4 Concluding remarks

In sum, the study reveals a wide gap between pedagogy in policy and pedagogy in practice. However, this wide gap is not unique to the Pakistani ELE context only. Many other studies evaluating the implementation of curricular reforms, carried out in various ESL/EFL contexts, such as Carless (2003, 2004, 2007), Hamid and Honan (2012), Karavas-Doukas (1998), Kirkgöz (2008), Li (1998), and Orafi and Borg (2009), report similar findings. Further, the reasons for the limited implementation of pedagogical reforms reported in these studies are also broadly similar to the reasons which emerged in this study. These include implementers’, particularly teachers’, lack of understanding of the features of innovations and inconsistencies between the interacting factors, including curriculum, textbooks, assessment, resources and teacher-training. Therefore, teachers alone cannot be held responsible for the limited implementation of innovations. Unless and until all these interacting factors are aligned with each other, no change in the existing ELE system in Pakistan can be expected. The most important thing in this regard is to understand that all this is not possible overnight. The successful implementation of a large-scale educational change (as is required in Pakistan) is a long and gradual process (Fullan, 2007; Grassick & Wedell, 2018; Wedell, 2009), and the use of an evolutionary approach in this regard is better than a revolutionary approach. Further, a combined effort by all stakeholders is essential to bring about such a large-scale change.
despite the fact that the last three decades of research on ELT curricular innovations in various ESL/EFL contexts show minimal success at the level of implementation, it is important for the practitioners and researchers both in Pakistan and in many other ESL/EFL contexts that they neither lose hope nor cease their efforts to bring about reform. They should keep speaking out about the need for reform in an attempt to make the other stakeholders understand the gravity of the situation and the need to modify the traditional, transmission-based, teacher-centred methods of instruction so that they are more in line with modern, communicative, learner-centred pedagogical approaches for the effective teaching and learning of the English language.

9.5 Contribution to knowledge

This study contributes to the knowledge of TESOL community both in general and in the ELE context in Pakistan in particular in the following ways:

i. One of the contributions to the TESOL community I make in this study is the development of a _classroom observation instrument_, which raises the TESOL audience’s awareness of an instrument named ‘IC Maps’, which was developed and used by Huntley (2102) in mainstream education to operationalise the qualitative data obtained through classroom observations and hence to measure teachers’ fidelity to curriculum and textbook. I found no study in TESOL which developed and used such an instrument. Thus, drawing on Huntley (2012), I developed a classroom observation instrument and used it successfully to operationalise the qualitative data obtained via classroom observations and to measure teachers’ fidelity to curriculum and textbook in my study. Researchers in TESOL can apply this IC Maps-based classroom observation instrument to operationalise and measure teachers’ fidelity to curriculum and/or textbook. Further, the instrument is flexible and TESOL researchers can adapt it in line with the requirements of their research and context.

ii. The study also contributes to the knowledge and research on ELT materials evaluation and consumption. In this study, I draw the attention of the TESOL audience, particularly of material developers and
evaluators, to Ellis’s (2016) framework for textbook analysis which is a very effective and comprehensive framework for analysing the teaching and learning processes embodied in the ELT textbooks and the pedagogic implications these processes might have for English language teachers and learners. Another strong point of Ellis’s framework is that it draws on theory and research in second language acquisition and instructed language learning. I found no study on ELT materials evaluation which has employed Ellis’s (2016) framework to analyse the instructional materials. Additionally, this study is a good addition to the limited research on ELT materials consumption.

iii. Another contribution this study makes to the TESOL community is to highlight the importance of exploring the nature of interplay between various interacting factors, including curriculum, instructional materials, teaching methods, assessment (exams), personnel (teacher education and training), and resourcing (infrastructural resources) policies for effective ELT. The study also draws the TESOL audience’s attention to the centrality of the methods policy, and the need for exploring the methods policy in relation to curriculum, materials, assessment, personnel, and resourcing policies and taking a holistic, joined-up approach to reform so that all aspects of teaching and learning are included in the reforms to achieve a successful outcome.

iv. The study also contributes to the ELE research and practice in Pakistan. This is the first study that has evaluated the implementation of ELE reforms at the level of textbooks and teachers’ pedagogical practices in Pakistan. The study informs all stakeholders of the current status of the implementation of macro-level pedagogical policy as manifest in textbooks’ and teachers’ adherence to or departure from the tenets of the national curriculum. The study serves as feedback to all stakeholders, particularly education policy makers and administrators, in Pakistan who may wish to draw on the results of the study and make changes to the programme as well as to the upcoming educational reforms the government intends to introduce in the coming years (The Dawn, 2019).
9.6 Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research

Although I carried out this study very carefully to achieve the set objectives, this study had some limitations also like any other research study. However, these limitations were mainly because of time, logistics, and contextual constraints. Further, these limitations are such that they do not affect the trustworthiness and credibility of this research; rather they open avenues for future research. The limitations of the study and options for future research are as follows:

i. The part of the study that deals with classroom observations and teachers’ post-observation interviews was confined to government schools only. One of the main reasons for selecting the government schools was that the vast majority of students (75%) in Pakistan attend government schools (Ministry of Education, 2015). In addition to government schools, two more types of schools exist in Pakistan. These are: (i) elite English medium schools, and (ii) non-elite private schools. There is a need to extend this research to these schools also to determine the extent to which the teachers in these schools comply with the macro-level pedagogical policy.

ii. The part of the study that deals with classroom observations and teachers’ post-observation interviews was confined to one geographical region (Bahawalpur) only. The main reasons for limiting the study to only one region (Bahawalpur) were time and logistic constraints and the mainly qualitative nature of the study which emphasises examining a specific phenomenon in detail and keeping it focused on a specific context, involving a limited number of participants (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005) (for further details about this, see Section 4.9.1 above). The study can be extended to other geographical regions of Pakistan. This will help obtain a complete picture of the implementation of the pedagogical policy across the country.

iii. The study was conducted at secondary level (grade 9-10) only. The rationale for limiting the study to secondary level is discussed in detail in Section 4.9.2 above. There is a need to conduct research at other levels
(primary (grade 1-5), elementary (grade 6-8), and higher secondary (grade 11-12)) to obtain a complete picture of the implementation of ELE reforms at other levels of school education. In this regard, I plan to carry out a study evaluating the implementation of macro-level pedagogical policy at higher secondary level (grade 11-12) after I complete this Ph.D. research.

iv. The study included male teachers only. However, this was not intentional. Both male and female teachers were invited to participate in the study but observing female teachers’ lessons in the girls’ schools was not permitted by the administration because of socio-cultural and religious reasons. Hence, research with female participants can be conducted to explore the extent to which female teachers comply with the macro-level pedagogical policy.

v. This study did not include head-teachers and teacher-trainers. Further research can be carried out by including head-teachers and teacher-trainers and exploring their viewpoint about the factors that hinder, or contribute to, the implementation of pedagogical innovations in Pakistan. Similarly, further research can be carried out to evaluate the teacher training programmes offered in Pakistan, asking questions about the alignment of the content of these programmes with the pedagogy advocated by the national curriculum, and the messages transmitted to teachers on these programmes with regard to textbook use and adaptation.

9.7 Afterword

When explaining in the introduction chapter how I conceived this study, I reflected on my journey of research in applied linguistics that began with my M.Phil. in Linguistics and Master’s in Language Teaching. Then, my experience as an English language teacher at all levels of education (school, college, and university) in Pakistan and as a teacher trainer both in Pakistan and Saudi Arabia enriched my understanding of the issues associated with ELT. In addition, I described the development of my research experience. After all these initial experiences, now this Ph.D. research project has resulted in the growth of my interest in some other dimensions of applied linguistics and ELT, including
educational change, pedagogy, teacher education, and materials evaluation and consumption. This Ph.D. research project has motivated me to embark on further journeys:

i. The journey of developing myself as an educationist and researcher.
ii. The journey of playing my role in improving ELE in Pakistan.
iii. The journey of carrying out more research on ELT, particularly with regard to ELE innovations, pedagogy, teacher education, and materials evaluation and consumption.
iv. The journey of promoting a research culture in the educational sector in Pakistan.

As a first step in playing my role in improving the standards of ELE and of ELT related research in Pakistan on the basis of what I have learned through conducting this research, I will disseminate the findings of this study and their implications at local, national, and international levels. In this way, I will raise the stakeholders’ awareness of the issues that cause the limited/flawed implementation of ELT curricular innovations both in general and in Pakistan in particular. In this regard, I will do the following:

i. At a local level, I will organise seminars to share the findings of this study and their pedagogical implications with English language teachers, teacher educators, head-teachers, and educational administrators.
ii. I will participate in conferences, seminars, and webinars that are conducted by various educational organisations in Pakistan, such as PakTESOL and SPELT, and will disseminate the findings of this study.
iii. I will also share the findings of this study and their implications with the policy makers in both Federal and Provincial Ministries of Education.
iv. To share the findings of this study with the researchers, educationists, and practitioners at the international level, I will publish research articles in ISI-indexed research journals.
References


Appendix 4.1

A list of codes and themes (pedagogical principles and practices recommended in the national curriculum)

**Principle 1: Use of the communicative approach**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary codes</th>
<th>Final codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29 Using practice activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 Use of activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 Learner-centred pedagogy and communicative approach</td>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37 Use of activities and individual, pair and group work</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 Use of enjoyable and intellectually stimulating communicative activities and tasks</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 Use of activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49 Use of activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 Language learning via communication</td>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58 Recommended teaching activities to develop oral skills</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64 Learner-engagement with the task</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69 Reading activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91 Input via tasks and activities</td>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95 Language learning via Communicative activities</td>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99 Role-play</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 Use of communicative activities</td>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>115 Group work</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>117 Shift from teacher-centred pedagogy to learner-centred pedagogy</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>129 Adding more activities</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>133 Use of appropriate activities in line with SLOs</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>135 Use of activities in line with SLOs</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151 Extended activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>154 Learning activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>159 Extended activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>159 Extended activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>171 Use of activities</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>173 Use of activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>176 Use of enjoyable activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
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**Principle 2: Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category A: Developing learners’ English language skills</th>
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<td><strong>Preliminary codes</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1 Teaching of English as a language</td>
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<tr>
<td>13 Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Skills (Listening and Speaking)</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Preferring use over knowledge of language</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 Learners’ English language use (speaking and writing)</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48 Language skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 Developing listening and speaking skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59 Developing listening and speaking skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75 Developing language skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79 Making learners autonomous writers</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82 Promoting learners’ writing ability</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95 Developing listening and speaking skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>112 Developing learners’ language skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>119 Enhancing learners’ listening and speaking skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>126 Developing English Language skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>138 Practice of language skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160 Emphasis on skills</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Category B: Developing learners’ English language knowledge and skills</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Preliminary codes</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>26 Knowledge and its use</td>
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<td>Emphasis on both Knowledge and skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>147 Skills and knowledge</td>
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<td>155 Teaching knowledge and skills</td>
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<td>158 Knowledge and skills</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principle 3: Promoting learners’ use of English language for academic and social purposes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Preliminary codes</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Using English for academic and social purposes</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Using English in academic and social context</td>
<td>Using English for academic and social purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Exposure to and use of use of English in academic and social contexts</td>
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<td>Using English for academic and social purposes</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>English for academic and practical purposes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Providing learners opportunities to express their ideas through writing and speaking</td>
<td>Learners’ English language use</td>
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<td>Learners’ target language use</td>
<td>Learners’ English language use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using English in academic and social contexts</td>
<td>Using English for academic and social purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting learners’ real-life-like use of language</td>
<td>Using English for academic and social purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using English for various social purposes</td>
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<td>Reading for academic purposes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Learners’ real-life-like use of language</td>
<td>Using English for social purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language use in real life situations</td>
<td>Using English for social purposes</td>
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<td>Using English for academic and social purposes</td>
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**Principle 4 and 5: Materials adaptation and supplementation**

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<tbody>
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<td>Use of not just literary, but every day texts</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supplementary materials</td>
<td>Use of supplementary materials</td>
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<td>Activity based supplementary materials</td>
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<td>Use of supplementary materials</td>
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<td>Supplementary materials</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supplementary materials to facilitate learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extended activities – supplementary materials</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supplementary materials</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extended activities - supplementary materials</td>
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<td>Supplementary reading materials</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Extended activities - supplementary materials</td>
<td>Use of supplementary materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplementary resources/materials for teachers</td>
<td>Use of supplementary materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-cost or no-cost supplementary resources/materials for teachers</td>
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Principle 6: Integrated language teaching

<table>
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<tr>
<td>2 Holistic learning of English</td>
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<td>11 Holistic learning of English</td>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
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<td>12 Holistic learning of English</td>
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<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
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<td>123 Integrated learning approach</td>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>131 Inclusion of skills, subskills, grammar points, etc., in each unit</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>132 Organizing skills, subskills, grammar, vocabulary in each unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>136 Integrated language teaching</td>
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Principle 7: Collaborative learning

<table>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>38 Peer correction</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80 Teacher-learner collaboration</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86 Teacher-learner collaboration</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87 Learner-learner collaboration (Peer-correction)</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97 Discussion in developing reading and writing skills</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>107 Cooperative learning/Group work</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>119 Learner-learner interaction</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110 Read and write texts collaboratively</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Principle 8: Promoting learner autonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary codes</th>
<th>Final codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 Autonomous and lifelong learners</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Autonomous and lifelong learners</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68 Independent/individual work</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85 Individual/independent learning</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88 Instructional strategies in line with learners’ differing interests, abilities, and learning styles</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90 Making learners independent and lifelong learners</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>106 Learners taking responsibility for their own learning</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>113 Independent learning</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116 Individual work</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128 Developing learners’ confidence</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>178 Awareness of one’s own learning</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Principle 9: Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary codes</th>
<th>Final codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32 Progressive development from lower level cognitive skills to higher order cognitive</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66 Critical and thinking skills</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71 Critical and creative thinking</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74 Developing higher order cognitive skills</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77 Developing lower and higher level cognitive</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104 Learners analysing texts and drawing conclusions</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111 Higher order thinking skills</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>114 Creativity – higher order cognitive skills</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>172 Promoting thinking and creative skills</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>181 Engaging learners in higher order thinking skills and developing their creativity</td>
<td>Developing learners’ cognitive skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Principle 10: Use of inductive pedagogy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category C: Use of inductive pedagogy</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preliminary codes</td>
<td>Final codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 Questioning/Elicitation</td>
<td>Inductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76 Questioning/Elicitation</td>
<td>Inductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83 No imitation – inductive learning</td>
<td>Inductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84 Internalizing writing process</td>
<td>Inductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94 Elicitation - using concept checking questions (CCQs)</td>
<td>Inductive teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 Problem-solving</td>
<td>Inductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Elicitation** - using concept check questions (CCQs) to assess learners’ understanding | Inductive pedagogy

---

**Principle 11: Use of deductive pedagogy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary codes</th>
<th>Final codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7 Providing learners formal opportunities to learn English language</td>
<td>Explicit instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Learning via practice</td>
<td>Learning via practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 Learning process: (Explicit instruction + Practice)</td>
<td>Explicit instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63 Modelling by teacher</td>
<td>Explicit instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 Modelling by teacher</td>
<td>Explicit instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78 Acquisition through practice</td>
<td>Learning via practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102 Practice of dialogue writing</td>
<td>Learning via Practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122 Importance of practice</td>
<td>Learning via Practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>169 English language learning via exposure and practice</td>
<td>Learning via Practice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Principle 12: Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary codes</th>
<th>Final codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39 Teacher – not over critical on errors</td>
<td>Teacher as a facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 Teacher as facilitator</td>
<td>Teacher as a facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67 Guided instructions by teacher</td>
<td>Teacher as a facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72 Meaningful and supportive interventions by teacher</td>
<td>Teacher as a facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75 Encouragement by teacher</td>
<td>Teacher as a facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81 Encouragement by teacher</td>
<td>Teacher as a facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>145 Teacher as a facilitator</td>
<td>Teacher as a facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>157 Teacher as a facilitator</td>
<td>Teacher as a facilitator</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Principle 13: Reviewing learners’ learning and progress**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary codes</th>
<th>Final codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>57 Quizzes/tests</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>139 Review exercises</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>141 Progress test/Review exercise</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>143 Review via variety of appropriate activities</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>144 Review activities/exercises</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>175 Variety of assessment activities</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>177 Review exercises</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>179 Review activities</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>180 Review exercises</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Principle 14: Setting and achieving learning objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary codes</th>
<th>Final codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>89 Achieving learning objectives</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121 Setting learning objectives</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>125 SLOs based learning</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>127 Setting learning objectives and outcomes</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128 Identifying students’ learning outcomes</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130 Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>134 Students’ learning objectives</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>161 Students’ learning objectives</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>165 Curriculum goals</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Principle 15: Lesson planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary codes</th>
<th>Final codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42 Lesson planning with reference to time allocation for each unit and SLOs</td>
<td>Lesson planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47 Weekly lesson planning</td>
<td>Lesson planning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 4.2

#### Codebook to analyse the national curriculum data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Code (Final code)</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
<td>This code is used where the national curriculum highlights the importance of communication (in English) in the English language learning process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
<td>Use of learner-centred activities</td>
<td>This code is used where the national curriculum emphasises the need to employ learner-centred activities and tasks, such as pair and group work, for language teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing learners’ English language knowledge and skills</td>
<td>Emphasis on developing language skills</td>
<td>This code is used where emphasis is laid on developing learners’ English language skills only, not on developing their explicit knowledge of the English language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emphasis on both knowledge and skills</td>
<td>This code is used where the emphasis is laid on developing both learners’ explicit knowledge of the English language and their English language skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting learners’ use of English language for academic and social purposes</td>
<td>Using English for academic and social purposes</td>
<td>This code is used where the national curriculum stresses the need to make learners use English language to perform various academic and social tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learners’ English language use</td>
<td>This code is used where the national curriculum stresses the need to make learners use English in general.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials adaptation and supplementation</td>
<td>Use of supplementary materials</td>
<td>This code refers to the use of sources and materials other than the textbook. It also includes the use of supplementary materials in the form of extended activities. Further, it also covers the idea of materials adaptation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
<td>This code is used where the national curriculum emphasises the need to integrate one language skill with another. It also refers to the holistic learning of English by giving equal attention to all language skills and subskills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
<td>This code stands for the concept of working together to achieve a learning objective. This is used distinctly from the concept of learner-centred activities, as the national curriculum treats this theme differently. This refers to the two forms of collaborative learning: teacher-learner collaboration and learner-learner collaboration.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting learner autonomy</td>
<td>This code refers to the idea of putting responsibility on learners for their own learning and making them independent and life-long learners.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills</td>
<td>This code is used where the national curriculum stresses the need to develop learners’ higher order cognitive skills, and promoting their use of critical, analytical, and creative abilities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of inductive pedagogy</td>
<td>This code indicates the use of inductive teaching strategies, such as self-discovery, problem-solving, and inquiry-based learning, by which a teacher engages the learners in the learning process, teases out maximum information and knowledge from them, and does not provide them quick solutions or answers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of deductive pedagogy</td>
<td>This code refers to the explicit instruction of the English language by the teacher.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit instruction</td>
<td>This code refers to the use of repeated practice as a teaching strategy. The idea of practice is connected with the PPP (Presentation, Practice, and Production) model of teaching. Hence, it also denotes the explicit instruction of the English language.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher</td>
<td>‘Teacher as a facilitator’</td>
<td>‘This code is used where the national curriculum suggests the teacher work as a facilitator and provide supportive facilitation and encouragement to learners.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
<td>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
<td>‘This code is used where the national curriculum stresses the need to assess learners’ learning and progress regularly, using review exercises and activities.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
<td>Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
<td>‘This code refers to the idea of stating or setting clear learning objectives and making an effort to achieve them.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson planning</td>
<td>Lesson planning</td>
<td>Lesson planning refers to the planning for a single lesson, a textbook unit, and a weekly lesson plan.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 4.3

An image of a page of the Course Contents section of National Curriculum for English Language as an example to explain how performative verbs are used in the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006 (Ministry of Education, 2006)

---

**Competency 4: Formal and Lexical Aspects of Language**

**Standard 2, Vocabulary:** All students will enhance vocabulary for effective communication.

**Benchmark 1:** Analyze different kind of texts to identify how lexical items are used to convey different meanings; use lexical items in context and with correct spellings; use lexical items to show different meanings in their own speech and writing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Learning Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grade IX &amp; X</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Enhance** and use appropriate vocabulary and correct spelling in speech and writing:
  - Illustrate the use of dictionary for finding appropriate meaning and correct spellings.
  - Use a thesaurus to locate the synonyms closest to the meaning of the given word in the context.
  - Examine and interpret transitional devices that show comparison, contrast, reason, concession, condition, emphasis.
  - Deduce the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context using contextual clues.
  - Analyze and understand common roots and use that knowledge to recognize the meaning of new words.
  - Analyze and understand common prefixes and suffixes; use that knowledge to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words.
  - Understand connotations and denotations; explore the use of synonyms with varying shades of meaning used for various purposes e.g. propaganda, irony, parody and satire.
  - Examine and focus the vocabulary that indicates the writer’s attitude.
  - Recognize words that vary in meaning according to their connotations.
  - Use appropriate connotation in their own writing.
  - Identify and avoid verbosity; use one word substitution, eliminate redundancy.

---

National Curriculum for English Language Grades I-XII, 2006

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## Appendix 4.4

**Classroom Observation Fieldnotes Sheet**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Name:</th>
<th>Pseudonym/Code:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Name:</th>
<th>Textbook Unit No./Topic:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson Focus: Reading/Writing/Listening/Speaking/Grammar/Vocabulary/ Pronunciation/other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class:</th>
<th>No. of students:</th>
<th>Date:</th>
<th>Lesson timing:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What procedure does the teacher follow to teach the lesson? Explanation:  
*(additional pages with the same format will be used for taking field-notes)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s teaching procedure:</th>
<th>Observer’s comments/remarks:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's teaching procedure:</td>
<td>Observer's comments/remarks:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 4.5

Example field notes for one lesson

---

Classroom Observation Field-Notes Sheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Name:</th>
<th>Pseudonym/Code:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T-4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Experience:</th>
<th>15 Years</th>
<th>Area: Urban ✓ Rural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Name:</th>
<th>Textbook Unit No./Topic:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School 4</td>
<td>Grammar book</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson Focus: Reading/Writing/Listening/Speaking/Grammar/Vocabulary/Pronunciation/other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar - Passive voice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class:</th>
<th>No. of students:</th>
<th>Date: 20-11-2018</th>
<th>Lesson timing: 10:00 - 10:40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9th</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20-11-2018</td>
<td>40 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What procedure does the teacher follow to teach the lesson? Explanation:
(additional pages with the same format will be used for taking field notes)

Field notes column

Teacher's teaching procedure:

10:01

Lesson starts

Teacher is using English language

Now he starts speaking in Urdu language

Telling learners (Ls) the importance of Passive Voice in everyday life

Asking Ls what they know about passive voice

Code column

Observer's comments/remarks:

Use of English language

Use of Urdu language

Connecting teaching and learning with real-life

Exploring Ls background knowledge

---
Teacher's teaching procedure:

Eliciting Ls' background knowledge of passive voice

Asks a question to a L
‘Kaleemullah’

L is unable to give answer

Doesn't snub or criticise the L

Now asks another L
‘Muneeb’

Muneeb explaining how passive voice sentences are formed

T writes on the board

We eat apples.

Apples are eaten by us.

Eliciting information from another L
L gives answer.

Code column

Observer's comments/remarks:

Elicitation/Questioning
Names a L

Elicitation/Questioning
Names a L

Inquiry-based learning
Inductive pedagogy

Teacher-Learner collaboration

Elicitation/Questioning
Exploring Ls' background knowledge
Field notes column

Teacher's teaching procedure:

10:06
Now T starts presenting knowledge of passive voice
Explaining rules
Using Urdu examples

Gives 3 more Urdu examples
Explaining rules now
S + V + O (English)
S + O + V (Urdu)

Now teacher is speaking Urdu Language
Explaining rules again

Code column

Observer's comments/remarks:

5-minute warm-up/brainstorming via elicitation setting the tone of the lesson.

Presentation stage
Explicit instruction of rules
Deductive pedagogy

Explicit instruction of rules
Deductive pedagogy

Use of Urdu language
Deductive pedagogy
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field notes column</th>
<th>Code column</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher's teaching procedure:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Observer's comments/remarks:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using Urdu examples from everyday life</td>
<td>Connecting teaching and learning with real life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher explains:</td>
<td>Explicit instruction of rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In passive voice, object comes in the beginning of the sentence</td>
<td>Deductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher using English language</td>
<td>Use of English language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher presenting knowledge again</td>
<td>Explicit instruction of rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object comes in the beginning</td>
<td>Deductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd form of verb is used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He writes a letter.</td>
<td>Elicitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A letter is written by him.</td>
<td>Teacher-Learner collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eliciting information from LS.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing work with the help of LS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field notes column</td>
<td>Code column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher's teaching procedure:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Observer's comments/remarks:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes uses English, sometimes Urdu</td>
<td>Use of both English and Urdu Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now writes a negative sentence on the board</td>
<td>Elicitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He does not write a letter.</td>
<td>Inquiry-based learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking questions to Ls.</td>
<td>Inductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving them in the learning process</td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving Ls open choice to consider the questions</td>
<td>Names a L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now asks a L 'kaleemullah' and elicits information from him.</td>
<td>Elicitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks:</td>
<td>Inquiry-based learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why 'does not' shouldn't be written with 'a letter' in the passive voice?</td>
<td>Inductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L gives answer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L now tells passive sentence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A letter is not written by him.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now T writes an interrogative sentence on the board.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Field notes column

**Teacher’s teaching procedure:**

Does he write a letter?

Asks Ls to change the sentence into passive voice.

Ls give answers.

T explaining rules again.

rules for changing the voice

of interrogative sentences

Asks Ls if they’re happy with the pace of the lesson.

Asks Ls

What is a tag question?

Ls unable to reply.

Gives them some examples of tag questions.

Now asks Ls to give the answer.

Ls still unable to reply.

Gives more examples and explains what tag questions are.

Effective explanation.

Teacher using a mix of both Urdu and English languages.

---

### Code column

**Observer’s comments/remarks:**

Learner involvement in the learning process.

Inquiry-based learning.

Inductive pedagogy.

Explicit instruction of rules.

Learner autonomy.

Elicitation.

Integrated language teaching.

Deductive pedagogy.

Use of both English and Urdu.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field notes column</th>
<th>Code column</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher's teaching procedure:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Observer's comments/remarks:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now asks Ls some questions about Present Indefinite Tense</td>
<td><strong>Elicitation/Questioning</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives them some sentences</td>
<td><strong>Inductive pedagogy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why do you write a letter?</td>
<td><strong>Integrated language teaching</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why do you take tea?</td>
<td><strong>Elicitation/Questioning</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks:</td>
<td><strong>Learner autonomy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the tense?</td>
<td><strong>Explicit instruction of rules</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls reply:</td>
<td><strong>Use of Urdu language</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Indefinite Tense</td>
<td><strong>Reviewing Ls' learning</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now asks Ls how they know</td>
<td>18-minutes presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls are given open choice to answer</td>
<td>stage involving both inductive and deductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining rules of passive voice to Ls again</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using Urdu language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking Ls if there is anything they don't understand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now practice stage starts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks Ls to open their notebooks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field notes column</td>
<td>Code column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher's teaching procedure:</strong></td>
<td>Observer's comments/remarks:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher using English language</td>
<td>Use of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks Ls to open grammar book</td>
<td><strong>Explicit instruction</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now tells Ls about sentences having two objects</td>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving some examples of sentences having two objects</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving examples using English language sentences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writes on the board</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>The cook does not cook food.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tells Ls that <em>cook</em> is both a noun and a verb.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks Ls to give examples of other words that act as both a noun and verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls don't reply.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T himself gives examples:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shop</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doesn't criticise or snub Ls for not giving answers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field notes column</td>
<td>Code column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher's teaching procedure:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Observer's comments/remarks:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Teacher is speaking English now | *Use of English*
| Asks Ls to change a sentence to passive voice | *Involving Ls in the learning process*
| 'He makes a noise.' | Monitoring Ls
| Going to Ls' desks and checking how they are working | Providing supportive facilitation and encouragement to Ls
| No criticism, appreciating Ls | Elicitation
| Giving Ls some help | *Use of English*
<p>| Now gives another sentence to Ls: | |
| 'I know him.' | |
| A L replies | |
| 'He is known to me.' | |
| Teacher tells Ls that the use of 'by' is not a compulsory feature of passive sentences | |
| Writes on the board | |
| 'He is known to me.' | |
| Teacher using English again | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher's teaching procedure</th>
<th>Code column</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gives Ls some more sentences.</td>
<td>Teacher-Learner collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He married Selma.</td>
<td>Elicitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selma is married to him.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing active sentences into passive voice with the help of Ls.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His gift pleases me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am pleased with his gift.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now gives another sentence to Ls.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His words surprise me.</td>
<td>Teacher-Learner collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks Ls to answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A L replies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am surprised at his words.</td>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing work in collaboration with Ls.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing Ls some information about prepositions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving examples of prepositions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples from everyday life.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:40 Concludes the lesson/Recap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks Ls if they have any question</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assigns homework to Ls from grammar book</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 4.6

Memo for a classroom observation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher name:</th>
<th>Pseudonym/Code: T-4</th>
<th>Teaching experience: 15 Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School: School 4</td>
<td>Area: <strong>Urban</strong> / Rural</td>
<td>Lesson number: 01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson Focus: Reading/Writing/Listening/Speaking/Grammar/Vocabulary/Pronunciation/other</td>
<td>Textbook Unit No./Topic: Grammar book</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grammar (Passive voice)

| Class: 9th | No. of students: 50 | Date: 20 November 2018 | Lesson duration: 40 minutes |

**Description of each pedagogical principle**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Pedagogical principle</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td><strong>Use of the communicative approach</strong></td>
<td>The teacher did not make use of any pair and group work activity in the class. The questioning and elicitation he did in the lesson was directed toward making the learners work individually.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td><strong>Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge</strong></td>
<td>The teacher primarily focused on developing learners’ English language knowledge, as the focus of the lesson was to teach learners the rules for making passive sentences. The teacher, nonetheless, gave some attention to developing learners’ English language speaking skills also. He told learners how passive sentences are a regular feature of everyday communication. To explain this, he cited many examples of passive sentences from both English and Urdu languages. The teacher also encouraged learners to make passive sentences orally. Hence, he gave learners some practice for improving their English language oral skills also.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes</strong></td>
<td>The teacher provided learners some opportunities for real-life-like use of the English language (in both written and spoken form). He not only told learners how passive sentences are a regular feature of everyday communication, but also asked them to make some passive sentences in both writing and speaking, as they occur in everyday communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Materials adaptation</strong></td>
<td>The teacher did not use the textbook at all throughout the lesson. He delivered the whole grammar lesson (passive voice) on his own using a whiteboard as a main teaching resource. Hence, no element of textbook adaptation can be identified here. However, this may be regarded as materials supplementation, which is explained below.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Materials supplementation</strong></td>
<td>The teacher did not use the textbook at all throughout the lesson. He delivered the whole grammar lesson (passive voice) on his own using a whiteboard as a main teaching resource. He used many examples for everyday life to explain the use of passive voice to learners. Hence, this may be regarded as considerable supplementation of materials from the sources other than the textbook.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Integrated language teaching</strong></td>
<td>Though the focus of the lesson was on passive voice, the teacher, whenever he got an opportunity, referred to other aspects of grammar also. For example, he told the learners about tag questions, words that work as both noun and verb, and prepositions. Further, the teacher kept referring to how passive sentences are connected with everyday use of both English and Urdu languages. He also gave learners some opportunities for making passive sentences orally. In short, there were many instances of integrated language teaching in the lesson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Collaborative learning</strong></td>
<td>Though the teacher did not involve learners in learner-learner collaboration, there were many instances of teacher-learner collaboration. The teacher regularly interacted with the learners, asked them questions, and elicited as much knowledge and information from them as possible. Further, whenever necessary, he facilitated and guided them. Hence, throughout the lesson, the teacher remained involved working in collaboration with the learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Promoting Learner autonomy</strong></td>
<td>The teacher put maximum responsibility on learners for their learning by regularly involving them in independent learning processes. He did not provide them ready-made solutions, rather made them find out their own answers. Further, he took care of learners’ differing learning styles and granted them freedom to work in the class in accordance with their own preferred style. For example, while questioning, he mostly gave</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
learners open choice to answer his questions and sometimes nominated those learners who were not participating in the classroom learning process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>9 Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills</th>
<th>The teacher sometimes involved learners in critical thinking via cross-questioning them. He sometimes involved learners in creative use of language also by asking them to make passive sentences orally.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 Use of inductive pedagogy</td>
<td>The teacher employed inductive learning processes (e.g., inquiry-based learning) and made the learners learn on their own by exploring their previous knowledge. For this purpose, he made considerable use of questioning and elicited maximum information and knowledge from the learners. He did not provide quick solutions to the learners, rather gave them enough wait time to answer the questions. Further, to assess their understanding, he asked concept check questions also.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 Use of deductive pedagogy</td>
<td>The class was mostly learner-centred. The teacher teased out as much knowledge and information from the learners as possible. He provided explicit instruction and explained grammar rules only when it was necessary to do so. Having explained grammar rules to the learners via inductive pedagogy, he also provided them necessary practice by asking them to make passive sentences on their own. Hence, the lesson reflected a balanced use of inductive and deductive pedagogy and an appropriate use of presentation and practice stages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 Supportive facilitation and encouragement by teacher</td>
<td>The teacher regularly encouraged learners to get on with the tasks and facilitated them whenever they needed assistance. Further, he did not criticise a learner if he was unable to answer or if he gave a wrong answer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13 Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</td>
<td>The teacher regularly reviewed learners’ learning and progress by asking them questions about various aspects of passive constructions, such as the movement of subject and object in passive constructions, use of the past participle form of verb, and use of by and prepositions in passive sentences. In addition to reviewing learners’ learning of passive voice, the teacher also assessed their previous knowledge of present indefinite tense by asking them questions about that. Further, the practice stage at the end of the lesson also served as a tool to assess how much the learners had learned during the lesson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14 Setting and achieving learning objectives</td>
<td>The teacher not only stated learning objectives clearly at the start of the lesson, but also set a good brainstorming or warm-up stage in the beginning of the lesson, which helped the learners understand the importance of learning passive constructions. The teacher delivered a good lesson presenting a balanced mix</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
of inductive and deductive pedagogy as well as of presentation and practice stages. By the end of the lesson, he seemed to have achieved what he aimed to teach.

15 **Lesson planning**  
The teacher seemed to have a well-organised lesson plan. The lesson was clearly divided into two stages—presentation and practice—, though the third stage of production was missing, which might be because of the limited lesson time (40 minutes) and the teacher might do it in the next lesson. Therefore, it may not be regarded as a shortcoming on the part of the teacher. Further, this point will be explored in the post-observation interview with the teacher. In addition, both presentation and practice stages were well-organised. The presentation stage showed a balanced use of inductive and deductive pedagogy. Likewise, the practice stage not only provided a practice opportunity to the learners but also worked as an assessment tool to assess their understanding.

### Additional pedagogical practices found in the lesson

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Pedagogical practice</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td><strong>Teacher’s use of English language</strong></td>
<td>The teacher used both Urdu and English languages in the lesson. However, he used Urdu more than English. The reason for doing this will be explored in the post-observation interview with the teacher.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 4.7

### Identification of operational forms in the classroom observation schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Pedagogical principle/Operational feature</th>
<th>Operational form—A (Ideal form of pedagogical principle required to be implemented) (Score = 2)</th>
<th>Operational form—B (Some deviation from the ideal form) (Score = 1)</th>
<th>Operational form—C (Extreme deviation from the ideal form) (Score = Zero)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Use of the communicative approach</td>
<td>Teacher involves learners in various learner-centred activities (pair and group work) that provide sufficient learner-learner interaction opportunities and generate a large amount of student-talk-time in the class.</td>
<td>Teacher involves learners in a few learner-centred activities (pair or group work) that provide little learner-learner interaction opportunities and hence generate only a small amount of student-talk-time in the class.</td>
<td>Teacher doesn’t involve learners in any learner-centred activity that consequently provides no opportunity for learner-learner interaction and student-talk-time in the class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge</td>
<td>Teacher primarily focuses on developing learners’ English language skills and also pays due attention to developing their English language knowledge.</td>
<td>Teacher primarily focuses on developing learners’ English language knowledge and gives secondary importance to developing their English language skills.</td>
<td>Teacher focuses on developing learners’ English language knowledge only and pays no or minimal attention to developing their English language skills. OR Teacher is neither concerned with developing learners’ English language skills nor knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Promoting learners’ use of English for academic and social purposes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teacher provides learners sufficient opportunities for real-life-like use of English (in both spoken and written form) in the class, which help them develop their use of English for various academic and social purposes.</td>
<td>Teacher provides learners some opportunities for real-life-like use of English (either in written or spoken or both) in the class, which provide them some opportunities to develop their use of English for various academic and social purposes.</td>
<td>Teacher hardly provides learners any opportunity for real-life-like use of English in the class, which consequently doesn't help them develop their use of English for various academic and social purposes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Materials adaptation</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Teacher makes considerable adaptations (e.g., omission, editing, reordering, etc.) in the textbook in accordance with the learners’ needs.</td>
<td>Teacher makes some adaptations (e.g., omission, editing, reordering, etc.) in the textbook in accordance with the learners’ needs.</td>
<td>Teacher makes no adaptation in the textbook, follows it as it is from one page to the next, and makes students work in the same order as is given in the book.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Materials supplementation</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Along with using the textbook, teacher makes considerable use of supplementary materials from the sources other than the textbook.</td>
<td>Teacher mostly relies on the textbook, however some supplementation of materials from the sources other than the textbook is done.</td>
<td>Teacher uses only textbook as a teaching resource and hardly does any supplementation of materials from the sources other than the textbook.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Integrated language teaching</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Teacher uses an integrated language teaching approach</td>
<td>Teacher sometimes connects one skill/subskill to the other,</td>
<td>Teacher teaches every language skill/subskill individually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td><strong>Collaborative learning</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Teacher regularly involves learners in teacher-learner and/or learner-learner collaborative learning processes (e.g., peer-correction, and doing reading, writing, grammar work, etc., collaboratively) in the class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Teacher sometimes involves learners in teacher-learner and/or learner-learner collaborative learning processes (e.g., peer-correction, and doing reading, writing, grammar work, etc., collaboratively) in the class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Teacher minimally involves learners in teacher-learner and learner-learner collaborative learning processes (e.g., peer-correction, and doing reading, writing, grammar work, etc., collaboratively) in the class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8</th>
<th><strong>Promoting Learner autonomy</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>▪ Teacher puts responsibility on learners for their learning by regularly involving them in independent and/or collaborative learning processes in the class.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Teacher mostly dominates the lesson and puts some responsibility on learners for their learning by providing them some opportunities for independent and/or collaborative work in the class.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Teacher completely dominates the lesson, rarely involves learners in independent and collaborative work in the class, and hence doesn’t put any responsibility on them for their learning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9</th>
<th><strong>Developing learners’ higher</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>▪ Teacher involves learners to make use of their higher order</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Teacher sometimes involves learners to make use of their</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Teacher hardly involves learners to make use of their higher order</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order cognitive skills</td>
<td>cognitive skills [critical thinking and creative use of English (in either spoken or written or both)].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10</strong> Use of inductive pedagogy</td>
<td>▪ Teacher regularly involves learners in inductive learning processes (e.g., inquiry-based learning, problem-solving, etc.) and asks questions to elicit knowledge and answers from them, which make them find out their own solutions by applying their previous knowledge. Further, to assess learners’ understanding, teacher asks concept check questions also. &lt;br&gt;▪ Teacher doesn’t provide quick solutions to learners and gives them enough wait time to get on with the task and answer the questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>11</strong> Use of deductive pedagogy</td>
<td>▪ Teacher does not make class completely teacher-centred by</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
explaining too much. However, whenever necessary, he/she uses explicit instruction methods, e.g., modelling, and makes learners learn via practice. ✓

required use of explicit instruction methods, and provides either more or less than required practice opportunities to learners.

too much, and provides either too much or very limited practice opportunities to learners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>12</th>
<th>Supportive facilitation and encouragement by teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher regularly encourages learners to get on with the tasks and facilitates them whenever they need assistance. ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher appreciates learners for their correct answers, doesn’t criticise them for their wrong answers, and takes learners’ mistakes as a part of the learning process. ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher sometimes encourages and facilitates learners to get on with the tasks. ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher sometimes appreciates learners for their correct answers and sometimes criticises them for their wrong answers. ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher doesn’t encourage and facilitate learners to get on with the tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher mostly discourages learners and criticises them for their wrong answers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>13</th>
<th>Reviewing learners’ learning and progress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher regularly reviews learners’ learning and progress, and also uses review exercises/activities to assess their learning and progress. ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher sometimes reviews learners’ learning and progress, and also sometimes uses review exercises/activities to assess their learning and progress. ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher occasionally reviews learners’ learning and progress, and also hardly uses review exercises/activities to assess their learning and progress.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>14</th>
<th>Setting and achieving learning objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher states learning objectives (either from the ones given in the unit or his own) ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher does not state learning objectives clearly in the beginning of the lesson. ✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Teacher neither states learning objectives nor is successful in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td><strong>Lesson planning</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Classroom observation schedule designed with reference to pedagogical principles recommended in the macro-level policy documents [Drawing on the observation schedules of English Language Institute (n.d.) and Huntley (2012)]
Appendix 4.8

Interview Schedule for post-observation interviews with teachers
(An example of an interview schedule)

Section 1: Informant’s details
First, I’d like to ask a few background questions...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Name:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Name:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of years’ TEFL experience:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher Training:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Could you tell me about the training you’ve had as a teacher?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Have you attended any workshops, conferences, or seminars related to English language teaching skills, textbook use, etc?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section 2: Questions with reference to the observed lessons
Now I’m going to ask you some questions specifically with reference to your observed lessons.

1. I noticed in lesson 1 you translated the text of the unit into Urdu. Could you explain your rationale for doing that translation work?

2. I noticed in lesson 1 along with doing translation you focused on some other aspects of English language as well. For example, you regularly corrected learners’ pronunciation, taught them vocabulary items by translating their meanings into Urdu and by telling them pairs of words. You also provided the learners some information about grammar aspects, such as verb and helping verb. Could you explain your rationale for doing that?

3. I noticed in lesson 1 (when doing translation) you taught English vocabulary items by translating their meanings into Urdu. Whereas in the vocabulary teaching exercise given in the textbook (I showed him the textbook) the vocabulary items are taught by presenting their synonyms in English and by making the learners understand the meanings of the vocabulary items through the sentences (linguistic context) in which they are used. Could you explain the rationale for using a method different from the one given in the textbook?

4. I noticed in lesson 1 the learners were participating actively and confidently in the class. They were giving their input on their own. For example, they themselves were correcting pronunciation errors of their fellows, and were also participating in translation by telling the meanings of difficult words. Could you comment on that?

5. I noticed in your lessons you regularly involved the learners in the learning process. For instance, in lesson 1 (when doing translation) you regularly got input from the learners by asking them the meanings of difficult words. In lesson 2 also (when doing...
reading comprehension) you made the learners answer the comprehension questions. Likewise, in lesson 3 (when doing narration) you made the learners participate actively in the learning process. Could you explain your rationale for doing that?

6. I noticed the lesson 2 was devoted to doing reading comprehension of the unit ‘Faithfulness’. Could you explain the rationale for doing that reading comprehension work?

7. In lesson 2, when doing the reading comprehension exercise of the unit ‘Faithfulness’ (I showed him the textbook exercise), what was your main aim—skimming or scanning or both—and how did you achieve that?

8. I noticed in lesson 2, when doing reading comprehension of the unit ‘Faithfulness’, you made the learners answer the comprehension questions. You asked them to read the question first and understand what is asked in the question. Then you asked them to find out the answer from the text. Further, you also encouraged them to write down the answer themselves. Could you comment on that?

9. I noticed in lesson 2, when doing reading comprehension, you regularly encouraged and facilitated the learners to form and write down the correct answers. Could you comment on that?

10. I also noticed in your lessons you first attempted to elicit information from the learners rather than explaining information to them directly. For example, in lesson 1, when doing translation, you invited the learners to tell the meanings of difficult words. Likewise, in lesson 2, when doing reading comprehension, you encouraged the learners to answer the questions themselves. In lesson 3 also, when doing narration, you first elicited information from the learners and then explained them the rules. Could you explain your rationale for doing that?

11. I noticed in lesson 2 (when doing reading comprehension) and in lesson 3 (when teaching narration) you sometimes made the learners correct the answers of their fellows and sometimes they themselves corrected their fellows’ errors. Could you comment on that?

12. I also noticed you got the learners to work individually more often than in pairs or groups. For instance, in lesson 1, when doing translation, you mostly got the learners to work individually by asking them one-to-one questions. In lesson 2 also, when doing reading comprehension, you made the learners answer comprehension questions individually. Likewise, in lesson 3, when doing narration, you elicited information from the learners through one-to-one questions with them. Could you comment on that?

13. In your lessons, I didn’t find you using any learner-centred activity, such as pair and group work. Could you comment on that?

14. I noticed in your lessons, through questioning and elicitation, you put the responsibility on the learners for finding out their own solutions. How would you comment on that?

15. I noticed in your lessons you often nominated the learners by calling their names to answer the questions. For example, in lesson 2, when doing reading comprehension, you nominated the learners ‘Waqas’, ‘Zahid’, ‘Amjad’, ‘Sanaullah’, etc. to answer the questions. Likewise, in lesson 3, when doing narration, you nominated ‘Akmal’,
Waqas’, and ‘Irfan’ to answer the questions. Would you explain your rationale for doing that?

16. The lesson 3 was devoted to teaching narration (grammar work). Could you explain why you taught narration to the learners?

17. In lesson 3 in which you taught narration, you neither used the textbook nor any other supplementary materials, rather delivered the whole lesson on your own by using the whiteboard as a teaching aid. Could you comment on that?

18. Was the grammar lesson in which you taught narration linked with any specific unit of the textbook?

19. If yes, then why didn’t you use the textbook when teaching that?

20. I noticed in lesson 3, when teaching narration, you reviewed learners’ learning and progress by asking them some concept check questions. How often do you do that in your lessons?

Please select one option and explain your answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

21. Could you explain how it helps you in your teaching?

22. I noticed in all your lessons you used the Urdu language as a medium of instruction. Would you like to explain your rationale for doing that?

23. Another thing I noticed in the lessons was no opportunity for learners for real-life-like use of English (in both spoken and written form) in the class. Could you comment on that?

24. In all three lesson, I didn’t find you teaching speaking, listening, and writing skills. Could you explain why it was so?

Now I’m going to ask you some questions about lesson planning

25. How did you plan your lessons in terms of setting learning objectives, organising the lesson sequence, and time allocation to different parts of the lesson or to different tasks to be done in the lesson?

26. While planning for the lessons, did you refer to the textbook first? If yes, then could you explain why? If not, then why not?

27. Did you get help from any source other than the textbook when planning your lessons? Why/why not?

28. If yes, then what was that source (e.g., teacher’s guide or any other source)? And what help did you get from that?

Section 3: Use of pedagogical principles in general

29. Now I’m going to show you a list of pedagogical principles. Could you please identify which of these pedagogical principles you use in your lessons in general?

[Show informant prompt card 1]
**Prompt Card 1**

Pedagogical principles

i. Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge

ii. Promoting learners’ use of English language for various academic and social purposes

iii. Use of inductive pedagogy (self-discovery, problem-solving, and inquiry-based learning techniques)

iv. Use of deductive pedagogy (explicit instruction and practice model)

v. Use of the communicative approach (learner-centred activities/pair and group work)

vi. Collaborative learning (teacher-learner and learner-learner collaboration)

vii. Promoting learner autonomy (putting responsibility on learners for their own learning)

viii. Supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher

ix. Developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills (learners’ critical, analytical, and creative abilities)

x. Integrated language teaching (connecting one language skill/subskill to the other)

xi. Materials adaptation

xii. Materials supplementation

xiii. Lesson planning

xiv. Setting and achieving learning objectives

30. How often do you use them? If yes, then why? And if not, then why not?

**Section 4: Factors that might hinder teachers’ use of the pedagogical principles given in prompt card 1**

Now I’m going to show you a list of some potentially constraining factors that might hinder your use of the above given pedagogical principles in your lessons.

[Show informant prompt card 2]

**Prompt Card 2**

Potentially constraining factors when teaching

i. **Institutional/official constraints**
   - Lack of support from administration (e.g., head teacher, school education department officials, etc.)
   - Lack of resources
- Time constraints
- Workload
- Large classes
  - Seating arrangement (some classes are set out in a way that it is difficult for students to move and work in pairs or groups)
- Lack of teacher-training

ii. **Constraints associated with the students**
- Students’ attitudes toward learning English
- Students’ needs
- Students’ proficiency level

iii. **Constraints associated with the teachers**
- Limited teaching experience
- Limited subject matter knowledge
- Limited knowledge and understanding of language teaching methodologies

iv. **Examination constraints**

31. Could you please identify which of these factors most affect your use of the pedagogical practices given in prompt card 1?
32. Could you please also explain how these factors affect your use of the pedagogical principles given in prompt card 1?
33. Any other constraining factors you would like to add to the list, explaining how and why?

**Section 5: Questions about macro-level policy documents**

Now I’m going to ask you some questions about the macro-level policy documents regarding ELT in Pakistan.
34. Are you familiar with the National Curriculum for English Language – 2006?
35. Have you read the sections of the national curriculum that provide information about the use of teaching methodologies/pedagogical practices in the classroom?
36. Have you read any other macro-level policy documents regarding ELT in Pakistan?
   If yes, could you please name them?
37. Do you get any help about teaching methodologies from these macro-level policy documents?
38. If yes, would you explain what sort of help you obtain from them?
39. If not, then where did you get help from about the teaching methodologies you used in your lessons?
40. Do you have any idea what pedagogical principles and practices these macro-level policy documents recommend? If yes, could you name them?

41. Would you like to speak about anything else related to your teaching that I didn’t ask you?

Thank you very much for participating in this study!

*Interview schedule adapted from Menkabu and Harwood (2014)*
Appendix 4.9

An example of a transcribed interview
(Interview with Teacher 1)

Section 1: Informant’s details (Background questions)
INT: Thank you Teacher 1 for participating in this study. Could you tell me your school name?
RESP: Government ‘A’ school
INT: And what are your qualifications?
RESP: My qualification is MA English literature and diploma in TEFL
INT: And what are your total number of years’ TEFL experience?
RESP: I have been teaching for the last 15 years.
INT: Now I ask you some questions about teacher training. Could you tell me about the training you have had as a teacher so far?
RESP: Sorry again please
INT: Could you tell me about the trainings you have had as a teacher?
RESP: I got only one training as a teacher
INT: What was that training about?
RESP: It was about teaching of English at secondary level in our classrooms.
INT: And what was the duration of that training?
RESP: The duration of that training was one week.
INT: Ok, have you attended any other workshops, conferences, seminars related to English language teaching skills, textbook use, etc.?
RESP: Yes, I have attended many trainings and workshops. Actually, those were concerning with PEELI, Punjab Education English Language Initiatives. And I am also a master trainer of PEELI project and I have been conducting different trainings for teachers as well. I think I have conducted almost ten trainings.
INT: Ok so it means in PEELI you are actually a resource person. You are conducting trainings.
RESP: I am conducting trainings. I have also got trainings from our training consultants who belong to British Council.
INT: What were those trainings about?
RESP: Those were about teaching the manuals or training the teachers according to the manuals of PEELI, and there was one training for one week that was about CPD.
INT: CPD mean?
RESP: Continuous professional development.
INT: Ok, and have you got any other training about language teaching skills or textbook use?
RESP: No, I have just got the trainings of PEELI and I have been giving the training of PEELI as well.
INT: Ok, what was involved in those trainings? I mean what was the major focus of those trainings?
RESP: The major focus of those trainings was to use English language in the classroom while teaching different subjects not only English but also other subjects.
INT: Was there any element of language teaching methodologies as well or it was just about the use English in the classroom?
RESP: It was about the use of English. The basic concern was about the use of English, but teaching methodology is also involved in it and it is involved very intensively. Hence, they are focusing on teaching methodologies as well.

Section 2: Questions with reference to the observed lessons

INT: Now I’m going to ask you some questions specifically with reference to your observed lessons.

In your lessons I noticed you regularly involved learners in the learning process. For instance, in lesson 2, you made them translate the lesson (Great Expectations) text into Urdu. Likewise, in lesson 3, when you were teaching present, past, and future continuous tense, you made them translate Urdu sentences into English. Could you explain what your rationale was for regularly involving the learners in the learning process?
RESP: The reason behind it is that I always want to involve my students in the lesson and I want to catch their attention. If the students are not involved in the lesson then they won’t be able to learn something.
INT: I also noticed that in your lessons you first attempted to elicit information from the learners rather than explaining information to them directly. For example, in lesson 1, when you were doing the lesson exercises of past perfect tense and past perfect continuous tense (I showed him the textbook activities), in lesson 2, when you were differentiating between present and past tense and were explaining the use of past participle in passive constructions, you first elicited information from the learners and then added your explanation to that. Likewise, in lesson 3, when you were teaching present, past, and future continuous tense, you first asked questions to the learners to make them find out their own solutions on the basis of their previous knowledge, and then provided them information they needed. Could you explain your rationale for doing that?
RESP: Yes, I always try my best that the students should use their own brain and they should make their own rules for grammar as well as if they are going to solve some kind of problems in language then they should also use their mind, and in that way, they get better understanding...ok. If they make their own rules and they are not correct, then I ask the other students to explain them or to correct them. In the end, if nobody is able to correct the
sentence or the grammatical rule, then I give them some suggestion or I correct them. So, the real purpose is to make their mind active and to make them able to make their own rules for themselves. I never believe in spoon feeding for grammar or any other lesson. I just use the energies of my students, the talents of my students. If there is need, then I just tell them.

INT: In all three lessons I found you often encouraged and facilitated the learners to do the tasks and also appreciated them for their correct answers. I didn't find you criticizing them for their wrong answers. What would you say about that?

RESP: Actually, when you are involving the students in some activity and they are actively participating in that activity and then they are making some mistakes there is no need to correct them at the spot. There should be delayed correction, and you should never discourage them because in that way they will not be able to participate actively. So, I just appreciate them, encourage them and I just leave the wrong answers and wrong things and I just go for the correct things and I try to find out all the correct things from the students.

INT: Thanks, I also noticed you got students to work individually more often than in pairs or groups. For instance, in lesson 1, for reading comprehension task you involved the learners in a group activity in the beginning of the lesson. Whereas, in lesson 2, in which you taught translation and vocabulary, and in lesson 3, in which you taught present, past, and future continuous tense, you mostly got the learners to work individually by asking one-to-one questions to them. Could you comment on that?

RESP: There is a reason behind it...because in our school we don't have such kind of furniture or seating arrangements that students may make the groups. So, most of the time I ask questions individually and I check their work individually. And if there is a possibility that in the same sitting positions they can make a group, then I give some group tasks to them. Otherwise I do not give them group activity or paired activity.

INT: Right, apart from this reason of their sitting arrangement, was there any other reason for not using learner-centred activities (pair or group work) in the other two lessons?

RESP: Yeah, in translation I think there was no need of group work, but in finding new words and their meanings there can be a group activity. But in translation there was a no need to have a group work. I was asking individually and students were responding me.

INT: Through cross-questioning and elicitation, especially while teaching grammar, such as the textbook exercises of past perfect tense and past perfect continuous tense in lesson 1 (I showed him the textbook activities), differentiating between present and past tense and the use of past participle in passive constructions in lesson 2, and present, past, and future continuous tense in lesson 3, you sometimes involved learners in a
sort of teacher-learner collaborative work. How would you comment on that?

RESP: Same thing again, I just try to find out what the students know already and whether they can make their own rules for the sentences or not or if they have already learnt these rules then they remember them or not and they can identify those grammatical rules in different sentences or not... ok. So, all these things I check while teaching grammar, and then in the end I give them the final rules and I make them practice.

INT: Right, during all this work you also sometimes got a learner’s answer cross-checked by other learners. Could you please explain why you did that?

RESP: Yeah, I do it so that the students get involved. And if one student is making a wrong answer, then other should correct it... ok. Teacher’s role should be least while teaching grammar. You know again in the end the teacher should play his role. He should encourage the students to identify the rules to make the rules and to correct the rules.

INT: I also noticed you usually gave learners open choice to answer your questions rather than nominating a particular learner to answer the questions. Would you explain your rationale for doing that?

RESP: For this technique, I would say that the students who are more energetic and who are more concerning to the lesson they play their part in that lesson and they give the answers and sometime the students who keep silent all the time I just notice them and I ask them as well... ok. So, the reason is the same. Means everybody should be active, everybody should use his mind.

INT: Another thing I noticed in your lessons was that you paid more attention to developing learners’ English language knowledge than developing their English language skills. For example, in lesson 1, you spent 10 minutes on teaching reading comprehension and the rest of the lesson was devoted to teaching past perfect tense, past perfect continuous tense, and narration. Likewise, lesson 2 was devoted to teaching translation and vocabulary, and lesson 3 was devoted to teaching present, past and future continuous tense. What would you say about that?

RESP: Actually, in our educational system we ignore two skills, two basic skills—speaking and listening. These are ignored. Means student have to attempt their exam and the paper or the exam is concerning always with reading and writing skill. So, we don’t go for those skills which are not concerning to the exam. For example, listening and speaking skill is totally avoided by the teachers as well as by the students. And in writing skills, we don’t have such language teaching or such students’ level that they can write freely by themselves, or they can utilise all the grammatical rules while writing, or they can give their views and their ideas and concepts in their writing. So, we go for only cramming, means the learners cram the things according to their examination needs, and then they go to the exams and they attempt their questions. But they are not given such practice that they improve their writing skill in a free manner or according to international standards.
of learning or teaching skills. So, we avoid such things. In reading skill, we also keep in our mind that the students should have that knowledge which is concerning to their exams. For example, in reading comprehension, I ask my students to find out the questions. But when they find out the questions, I ask them to cram them. I do not ask them to write by themselves...ok...because actually the need is to get good marks and good marks are secured by the students only if they are not making mistakes in their exam. So, mistakes are considered...you know...a loss for the student. That is why we do not give them a free hand to write by themselves. Their ideas, their own sentence structures, and their own choice of vocabulary is avoided.

INT: So, my question is how will they learn writing when they don’t try to write something by themselves?

RESP: They...they...they just learn how to spell words, how to write a crammed sentence, or a crammed composition. Even if they are writing essays they learn essays by heart and then they transfer it on the paper. They don’t try to write the sentences, or paragraphs by themselves. And the same, if they are writing a story, they learn it by heart, they cram it, and then they write it on the paper...ok. They don’t try their own creative ability, and we also don’t encourage them to create to write sentences or paragraphs by themselves. And the same if they are writing a story through their own creative ability and we don’t encourage them to create or use their creative ability. Creative writing is included in examination but that creative writing is also based on cramming in Pakistan in our schools.

INT: Ok, I think you have already answered my next question. My next question was the same that you skipped the creative writing activities and oral communication activities given and the textbook and you didn’t skip any grammar activity given in the textbook (I showed him the textbook activities). Would you like to say something about that?

RESP: Yeah, these creative writing activities which are included in the book are not included in the examination. In the examination, we have don’t have such questions. So, I skipped these activities because this was a wastage of time for the students.

INT: Another thing I noticed in the lessons was no opportunity for learners for real-life-like use of English (in both spoken and written form) in the class. Could you comment on that?

RESP: Yes, I have told you that we don’t give importance to listening and speaking activities and we don’t attach them to the real life because our target is to get good marks in the examination.

INT: Right, in lesson 1, you also skipped the textbook activities that involved critical thinking and analysis (I showed him the textbook activities). What was your rationale for skipping those activities?

RESP: Yeah, there was no need. I told you that these were not concerned with examination. So that is why I skipped them.

INT: My next question is I found you sometimes connected one language skill with the other. For example, in lesson 2, you connected reading with
pronunciation. Likewise, while doing translation you sometimes started explaining grammar rules, such as differentiating between present and past tense and the use of past participle in passive constructions, etc. Would you like to explain why you did that?

RESP: Actually, all the skills are connected with one another and while reading we need the correct pronunciation. That’s why I pronounced the word and I made them reading aloud after me. The real purpose was to teach them the correct pronunciation and there was not only reading comprehension which was focused, pronunciation was also focused at that time and grammar is always understood while reading the text that is called descriptive grammar. I utilised that kind of technique that students learn from the real text which is given in the book and this is very much necessary for their understanding, comprehension, and for translation in Urdu language...ok. If they know the grammar properly, then they can translate the word sentences in Urdu in a proper way. Otherwise they won’t be able to express the things in Urdu language properly.

INT: You used Urdu language as a medium of instruction in your classes, but actually you yourself are a very good speaker or user of English language. Would you like to explain your rationale for doing that?

RESP: Yes, this is very important question and as a master of trainer or expert English trainer I have been training my trainees or participants in trainings that they should use English language in their classrooms for the medium of instruction as well as for teaching their content. But what happens in real situation is that we have to maintain the discipline of the class...ok. In our schools the concept of discipline is quite different from the international schools and in the foreign countries...you know. Because we...we observe very strict discipline in the classroom and our authorities don’t allow us to have any kind of disturbance and fuss in the classroom because you know they think if the students are disciplined then they would be able to learn better. And another thing is that students don’t have such ability that they understand the instructions in English language because I told you that they have always been depending on cramming and they are always targeting their examination and good marks. They never try to learn the four skills; they never go for listening and speaking; they never go for creative writing; they never go for comprehension in such a way that they can understand the text and answer the questions from that text by themselves. So, for that reason I just give instructions in Urdu and I also try to maintain the discipline by speaking in Urdu because when I give instructions or when I use my authoritative tone in my own language, then they become disciplined. So, this is some kind of psychological impact.

INT: Don’t they follow discipline in the class when you speak English?

RESP: Then, they don’t do anything. You know when they listen to English they become deaf and dumb and then they don’t participate actively in the activities. They even don’t know what they have been asked to do. So, I avoid English language while giving instructions.
INT: Ok, in two of your lessons, you used the textbook as a teaching resource. In the third lesson in which you taught present, past, and future perfect tense, you neither used the textbook nor any other supplementary materials, rather delivered the whole lesson on your own by using the whiteboard as a teaching aid. Could you comment on that?

RESP: Yeah, that was totally a grammatical lesson. I just wanted to teach the rules properly and I wanted to have the students understanding in the better way and for that purpose I did not need any book at that time. For practicing, I need a book and I give sentences from the book to translate into English language. Otherwise, to make them understand the grammatical rules and to practice them in a creative way at the moment means in the same time in the same classroom without any exercise of that tense from the book there was no need of a book.

INT: Was the grammar lesson in which you taught present, past, and future continuous tense linked with any specific unit of the book?

RESP: No, it was not linked with any special unit of the textbook. Actually, we have two books. One is used for teaching reading comprehension and other kind of questions which are given in the examination and one is used for teaching grammar and composition...ok. In that book of grammar and composition we have translation exercises and all those exercises are given tense wise. Means first there is present indefinite tense, then there is present continuous tense, then present perfect tense, and then comes past indefinite, past continuous, past perfect, and future indefinite, future continuous, future perfect and then there are exercises for their negatives, interrogative negative and their passive as well...ok. Those exercises are very long, and we have a short time. We can’t cover all those exercises. For that reason, I just go for the direct rules of the present continuous, past continuous and future continuous in the same lecture or the same class and then you know after making my student understand the rules properly and to enable them to make translate their sentences into English properly I ask them to practice from the book and in the end, I ask them to translate one exercise from the book of grammar and composition and that would be in way that first sentences of that exercise you have to translate into present continuous, second into past continuous and third into future continuous...ok...so that all these three tenses may be covered.

INT: What is that book of grammar and composition which you are referring to. Is this a state-mandated book just like the textbook or a supplementary book which you use yourself?

RESP: No no...it is also Punjab textbook board who is providing us that book. But...you know...look at it the sentences and the other things they are given on that pattern. But students are free to write by themselves...ok. It is another practice that in the examination when sentences are given, those are the same sentences which are found in the book. And the topics of essays, applications, letters, stories, dialogues are also the same which are given in the books. But you are free to write by yourself. Mostly students don’t use that Punjab text book, but they use guide books in which the essays, stories, letters, applications are written in a simple way
and in an easy way... you know. Students find it easy to learn those things from the guide books and they learn by heart and then they write in the paper... you know.

INT: So, just like this textbook are you supposed to cover that grammar and composition book throughout the term or not?

RESP: Yes, we have to cover it... we have to cover it, and we have to teach all those topics which are given in that book... ok. But we teach that book again according to the needs of examination. We teach the students only those things that are needed to get good marks in examination. Otherwise we skip those things.

INT: Are you free to make adaptations in that book or you are bound to follow that book as it is?

RESP: We are free to make adaptation in everything... you know... in the first textbook and the book for grammar and composition.

INT: You mainly used grammar translation method in your lessons. For example, in lesson 2, you translated the text of the unit (Great Expectations) into Urdu. Likewise, you also taught vocabulary items via translating their meanings in Urdu. In lesson 3, you also taught tenses by asking the learners to translate the Urdu sentences into English. Would you like to explain your rationale for doing that?

RESP: It's a great problem. The books, the curriculum, the syllabus, all these things have been designed to teach the four skills and to enhance the skills of the students. But the examination is just to test or evaluate the memory of the students. So, we people don't go for teaching these skills and the students who come to the secondary level earlier in their elementary level and you know primary level they don't learn these skills. So, when they come to the secondary level they are unable to utilise all these four skills properly. Means listening and speaking are totally ignored and avoided by the teachers and students. So, that's why they are unable to learn anything with that method you know. So, direct method or other teaching techniques or methods are not used in the language teaching here in our classrooms. We just go for the grammar translation method and that's better for the students according to the examination point of view as well as for their improvement of their translation skills. I would not call it writing skill, rather I would say it is better for their translation skills and the basic purpose of learning English here in our schools is to translate the things from Urdu to English and from English to Urdu.

INT: Now I'm going to ask you some questions about lesson planning

How did you plan your lessons in terms of setting learning objectives, organizing lesson sequence, and time allocation to different parts of the lesson or to different tasks to be done in the lesson?

RESP: Yeah, this is another problem in Pakistan. Actually, we don't have any certainty during our academic session. Actually, we don't have any certainty during our academic session. Most of the time we have to make our lesson plans according to the situation and the teachers who have experience they can set their objectives and they can make their lesson plan at the spot in the classroom... ok. They don't have any kind of written
lesson plan with them, and according to the situation, according to the topic which they are going to teach they at the spot make their lesson plan in their mind and they execute it. So, that’s what I am doing.

INT: I am not asking about lesson planning only in written form. I mean to ask do you make any plan for the lesson one day before you are going to deliver the lesson.

RESP: No, no, no...we don’t have that practice because we are not bound to do it.

INT: So, when planning for your lessons, did you refer to the textbook first? If yes, then could you explain why?

RESP: We have to go for textbook and when we are teaching a topic from the textbook we know what we have to do...ok. Means all the three lessons you observed in my classes I didn’t prepare anything, not a single word even. I just planned it at the spot and executed my lesson.

Section 3: Use of pedagogical principles in general

INT: Thank you! Now I’m going to show you a list of pedagogical principles. You will find the pedagogical principles here in a prompt card 1. Could you please identify which of these pedagogical principles you use in your lessons in general?

Prompt card 1 is given to the interviewee. He reads it and keeps telling me about his use of the pedagogical principles given in prompt card 1.

RESP: Developing learners’ English language skills and knowledge. Yeah, I use it. And promoting learners’ use of English language for various social and academic purposes. Obviously, for academic purposes, I encourage my students to use English language...ok. But still they are not completely free...ok. I give them permission to use the language which is selected by me rather which is suggested by me. And social purposes...for social purposes, we encourage the students if somebody is speaking English language in the classroom. Rather we...I especially appreciate those students who use English language in the classroom and outside of the classroom. But you know there is no specific kind of...you can say...promotion of English language outside the classrooms and in their social sectors.

INT: Do you mean to say you encourage the learners when they use English?

RESP: Yes, when they use themselves, we encourage and appreciate. But we don’t insist them to use English language outside the classroom in their social environment...ok. It is only the love of learning in a student which makes him to use English language outside the classroom and in his social environment.

INT: Do you yourself try to make them use English language?

RESP: No, we don’t impose English language in their social circles.

(Now the interviewee reads the next pedagogical principle on prompt card 1)
And the use of inductive pedagogy (self-discovery, problem solving, and enquiry-based learning techniques). This is my first love, means I always encourage my students to learn by themselves, to make their own rules, and to solve their problem by themselves. And if they are having some problem, then I ask their classmates to help them, rather I ask the student who is having wrong answer, I ask him to consult other students. I ask other students to correct him instead of correcting him myself and then in the end if still there is a problem and they are giving a wrong answer and they are not finding out right answer then I get involved and I tell them the right answer.

(Now the interviewee reads the next pedagogical principle on prompt card 1)

and use of deductive pedagogy (explicit instructions and practice model). It is used. Deductive pedagogy is also used if it is given in the book to solve any kind of problem. According to the activity given in the book we have to use it.

(Now the interviewee reads the next pedagogical principle on prompt card 1)

Use of the communicative approach (learner-centred activities/pair and group work). Communicating approach, you know we are not using English language most of the time as a medium of instruction in the classroom and activities are learner-centred if teacher makes them learners-centred. Otherwise, you know most of the activities in the book are not given in that way that the students do them by themselves rather always teacher gives his knowledge you know this is some kind of spoon feeding. If these kinds of activities are given in the book even then the teachers are feeding the things to the students. And pair and group work are least in our classrooms...you know...we don't allow our students to go for pair work or group work. One reason is to maintain the discipline and other is we don't have such facilities in our classroom and third most important reason that they can't do the things by themselves. If they do things in wrong way, teacher doesn't have so much time that he may check all the students and he may correct them. So, that's why, teachers avoid pair work and group work in classroom.

(Now the interviewee reads the next pedagogical principle on prompt card 1)

Collaborative learning (teacher-learner and learner-learner collaboration). Yes, it is done. Obviously, teacher-learner activities always go on in the classroom. Learner-learner collaboration is sometimes there. For example, if I give some writing task to my students. Most of the time I ask them to check their writing task and exchange their notebooks with one another and then check their writing task and find out the mistakes and if some learner is good, I sometime ask him to work in a group and to tell other students the right thing...ok...to make them practice. But it is done even few times. Most of the time teacher is feeding the students all the things.

(Now the interviewee reads the next pedagogical principle on prompt card 1)

Promoting learner autonomy (putting responsibility on the students for their own learning). Actually, I told you that in our examination system memory is checked. Students' own skills and knowledge are not checked
properly and students prepare those things for examination which are suggested by the teacher. They don’t take responsibility of their learning and teachers don’t allow them to work on their learning skills because there is no opportunity to do so. we have short time, we have to prepare students for examination to get good marks. So, we don’t allow them to distract or to go out of that practice pattern which is good for them according to the examination.

(Now the interviewee reads the next pedagogical principle on prompt card 1)

And supportive facilitation and encouragement by the teacher, developing learners’ higher order cognitive skills, learners’ critical analytical and creative abilities. No, these things. Actually, what happens if a teacher is a good teacher and he is transferring his own skills to the students, then all these things are automatically developed and improved among students. But if the teacher is totally exam-oriented and he is just targeting and focusing the exams and good marks and he is preparing the students for exams by...you know...the cramming method then what happens students just cram the things and they go for the exams. These things are not developed or improved in the students. But if the teacher is focusing examination and good result and he also wants to give some learning to the students and while teaching he uses good techniques, then all these things are automatically developed.

(Now the interviewee reads the next pedagogical principle on prompt card 1)

Integrated language teaching. Obviously, connecting one language skill/subskill to the other. When you are teaching English language any kind of topics any kind of lesson different kind of skills are used in that lesson, and they are always interconnected. You know they are connected with one another and teacher...a good teacher has to point out that these things are connected with one another and students must identify all those things.

Materials adaptation.... material adaptation is not much concerning. Actually, I told you that according to examination point of view whatever is needed we ask the students to prepare or learn those things...ok. For that purpose, we don’t go for different things. We don’t use different materials to enhance their skills. Our focus is to prepare. Actually, I’m again and again using the word prepare. Prepare means here to prepare for good marks in the examination. So, language learning or learning different skills is not the purpose of a teacher in a government school because in government school every teacher is just focusing on his job security and his annual increments...ok. So, he just goes for the results.

Materials supplementation... Materials supplementation...you can say that the guide books for examination preparation and notes for the examination preparation. These supplementary things. They are added with the textbook. Otherwise, we don’t need any other thing.

Lesson planning. I have already told you that there is no written lesson planning for the lesson. The teachers, who are experienced teachers, they don't prepare a single word and they don't look at any book before going to
the classroom. They go and ask the student what is the topic which we are going to read today. When they are told topic, then on the spot immediately they make a lesson plan and according to that lesson plan they execute their lesson.

Setting and achieving learning objectives. Learning objectives, obviously whatever we going to teach we try that the students should learn...ok. Again, the real purpose is to prepare them according to the examination. Whatever lesson we are teaching, we focus those things which are concerning the examination, and we put less emphasis on those things which are not according to the examination pattern.

INT: So, when you go for the lesson do you set any learning objective before going to the lesson?

RESP: No, objectives are never considered by the teachers especially if I am talking about myself...ok...I also don’t give attention to those objectives, which are related to that lesson...you know. Even if they are given in the textbook. We have some SLOs given in the textbook. Even we don’t consider them because we know that we have to teach translation, and we have to improve vocabulary, and we have to improve the comprehension of the students, and in the end, we have to make our students able to write the answers of the questions which are related to that lesson and whatever grammar questions are given in the exercise we have to make them solve those questions. So, we know already all these things and according to that we teach lessons. We don’t go for specific SLOs which are given in the textbook.

INT: Any specific reason for not going for those learning objectives?

RESP: Because we know the examination pattern. According to examination pattern and requirement we teach the lesson.

INT: Do you mean you set your objectives according to the examination pattern?

RESP: Yeah.

INT: Now I am going to show you a list of some potentially constraining factors that might hinder your use of the above given pedagogical principles in your lessons. The factors are given in prompt card 2. Could you please identify which of these factors most effect your use of pedagogical principles given in prompt card 1 and how?

(Teacher reads the constraining factors given on prompt card 2)

RESP: Institutional constraints

Lack of support from administration (Head-teachers and school education department officials)

lack of resources

time constants

workload

large classes
among them I think only one factor is not there, workload. We don't have so much workload. Time constants are there...large classes...we have to face large classes obviously. Lack of resources...we lack the resources according to ELT classrooms. But you know most of the time we don't need other resources. We have a textbook, which is good. We can utilise it in a proper way in the classroom. But according to the reasons which I have already told you, we are always targeting good marks in the examination. We are not targeting teaching skills. We don't use other resources which are outside the classrooms. We don't use those resources...ok. We just use only the book.

INT: You are saying large classes is a potentially constraining factor in using pedagogical principles given in prompt card 1, but I noticed in your two classes there were 24 and 25 students respectively However, in one class there were 45 students. How would you comment on that?

RESP: Yeah, fortunately in my school I have such classes in which number of the students are less...ok...and this is also in this year. Otherwise, I have always been teaching the class of 50 or more than 50 students. So, I think in such classes we can use lot of things. We can involve the students in different activities...ok...but it is not the situation most of the time in other schools and in our school as well.

INT: Constraining factors associated with the students. Would you like to say something about that?

RESP: Yeah, students’ attitude towards learning English language is totally non-serious...ok. I would say that only two percent of students are there who want to learn English language with its different skills. Students need is to get good marks in the examination...ok. Socially, they don’t use English language and even at the workplace after their education where they go for earning they don’t need English language and that’s why you know we don’t emphasise on their listening and speaking skills. We don’t put any kind of efforts to improve their creative skills in English language as well.

And students’ proficiency level. I told you that because their listening and speaking skills are never developed at primary level and at elementary level, so when they come to us...and their creative ability is totally ignored, that is never developed. So, when they come to us at secondary level they don’t have any proficiency of all these skills. Means their writing skill is bad, their reading skill is bad, and listening skill is bad. The speaking skill is totally nill. So, their proficiency level is you know not up to the mark.

And we...we...we have a lot of problems to communicate with them in English language or to enhance their four skills.

As constraints associated with teacher’s limited teaching experience, limited subject knowledge, and understanding of language teaching methodologies...yeah, it also happens. Most of the teacher are less experienced when they come to teach secondary level. And the teachers who have lots of experience even they don’t have proficiency in English language. And the limited subject matter or knowledge, I would say that the teacher who are teaching at secondary level and they have lots of experience, they have very good knowledge of English language according
to grammar translation method and of the textbook which they are teaching. They have good command over all these things you know and they teach accordingly to the students. But the problem is that again they use that knowledge to prepare the students for examination. They don't use it for teaching the language skills.

Limited knowledge and understanding of language teaching methodologies. Methodologies...again you know...if the result is concerning, and the focused thing or the target is to get good marks in the examination, then methodologies are not much considered. Methodology is considered when you are going to teach the skills and you are improving all the skills of language in a student. You know when you are not focusing all the four skills, you are just focusing the good marks in the examination, then it doesn't matter what kind of methodology you are using....ok. Whatever method is providing you good result in the examination, that is ok, that is used by the teacher.

INT: And what about examination?
RESP: Examination constraints, yeah...examination constraints, I have already told you that it is the examination of memory; it is the examination of cramming; it is not the examination of students’ skill, or a student’s proficiency or command in English language. Actually, what happens...when the topics are given from the same book which is given by the Punjab textbook board, then the students will be using the guide books, they will be using the notes from where they can easily learn the things by heart and write things on the paper in their examination. So, if you are going to judge or to evaluate the students learning, then everything should be unseen, ok...and there should be no set pattern of examination of English language. And whatever the paper in examination is made by the teacher or examiner that should consist of all the four skills and that should be given to the students. So, examination constraint is the biggest constraint in all these constraints.

INT: Now I am going to ask you some questions about the macro-level policy documents regarding ELT in Pakistan.
Are you familiar with the National curriculum of English language-2006?
RESP: We got information about it, but we don’t remember it now, especially I don’t remember now.

INT: Did you get a chance to read the sections of the national curriculum that provide information about the use of teaching methodologies/pedagogical practices in the classroom?
RESP: No, no, no, no...I never read it, and I don’t have any kind of information about it.

INT: Have you read any other macro-level policy documents regarding ELT in Pakistan?
RESP: Nothing, nothing, nothing.
INT: So, if you are not familiar with these macro level policy documents, then where did you get help from about the teaching methodologies you used in your lessons?

RESP: I told you that we don't get any knowledge about methodologies...you know whatever the method is suiting us for teaching a topic we adopt it and we adopt it according to the examination requirements.

INT: I mean at least you might have some idea what would be the teaching methodology you are going to use in your lessons. So how do you get help for that? Do you decide yourself?

RESP: We decide ourselves...especially I...if you ask particularly to me, then I'll say that I decide myself.

INT: Ok, would you like to speak about anything else related to your teaching that I didn’t ask you in this interview?

RESP: Yes, one thing you must ask me that if I am good at teaching English language then why I am not teaching these four skills. Ok... then I would tell you that first of all the students don't want to learn, number 2 that if I teach them English language in a proper way even then their result in the examination would not be good...ok. So, that's why I don't teach them according to the proper lesson planning, according to the proper methodologies in different skills...ok. I just go for the same traditional method....that’s all.

INT: Thank you so much for this interview and participation in this study.
## Appendix 4.10

A list of themes, codes, and sub-codes that emerged out of the interview data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Sub-codes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational qualifications</td>
<td>Educational qualifications</td>
<td>Training focus</td>
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<td>Training duration</td>
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<td>Workshops/conferences/seminars related to ELT and textbook use</td>
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<td>Number of trainings</td>
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<td>Training source</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Need for culturally appropriate teacher training</td>
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<td>TEFL experience</td>
<td>TEFL experience</td>
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<td>Teacher training</td>
<td>Teacher training</td>
<td>Training focus</td>
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<td>Number of trainings</td>
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<td>Training source</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Need for culturally appropriate teacher training</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers’ practices</td>
<td>Use of teaching methodology</td>
<td>No real-life-like use of English</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No opportunity for learners for free production of language</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Focus/no focus on developing learners’ language skills</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Inductive vs deductive pedagogy</td>
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<td>Assessing learners’ learning and progress</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Personal decision about the use of teaching methods</td>
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<td>Higher level cognitive skills</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The communicative approach (pair/group work)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>English for social purposes</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>English for academic purposes</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher: the decision-making authority in the class</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Use of the GTM</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Deductive pedagogy (teacher-centred)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Learner autonomy</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Providing practice opportunities to learners</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Preferring individual work to pair/group work</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement/appreciation to learners</td>
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</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ beliefs</th>
<th>Beliefs about teaching methodology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accepting mistakes as a part</td>
<td>Deductive pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the learning process</td>
<td>Assessing learners’ learning and progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed correction</td>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative learning (learner-</td>
<td>Use of the GTM</td>
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<tr>
<td>learner collaboration, teacher-</td>
<td>Beliefs regarding pair/group work</td>
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<tr>
<td>learner collaboration)</td>
<td>Encouragement/appreciation to learners</td>
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<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>Delayed correction</td>
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<td>Inductive pedagogy (self-discovery,</td>
<td>Accepting mistakes as a part of the learning process</td>
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<td>inquiry-based learning)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Learner-centred teaching</td>
<td>Exam-oriented pedagogy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Setting learning objectives in</td>
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<td>line with the exam pattern</td>
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<tr>
<td>Focus on getting good marks in</td>
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<tr>
<td>exams</td>
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<tr>
<td>No real-life-like use of English</td>
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<tr>
<td>Focus on memorisation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>No focus on developing learners’ language skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use of Urdu as a medium of instruction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Difference between teacher’s beliefs and practices regarding the use of Urdu</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lack of support from head-teacher regarding the use of English in the class</td>
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<tr>
<td>Classroom discipline issues regarding the use of English in the class</td>
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<tr>
<td>Learners’ inability to understand instructions in English</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Textbook use</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching based on textbook only</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Materials supplementation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Freedom to adapt materials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbook use for practice purposes</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>No use of the textbook to teach grammar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbook use/adaptation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson plan</td>
<td>No written lesson plan - Situational lesson planning based on teachers’ experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Teachers’ beliefs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beliefs about teaching methodology</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deductive pedagogy</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Assessing learners’ learning and progress</td>
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<tr>
<td>Integrated language teaching</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Use of the GTM</td>
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<tr>
<td>Beliefs regarding pair/group work</td>
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<tr>
<td>Encouragement/appreciation to learners</td>
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<td>Delayed correction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accepting mistakes as a part of the learning process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Beliefs about textbook use | Inductive pedagogy  
|                          | Learner-centred teaching  
| Constraints              | No need of a textbook to teach grammar  
| Institutional/official constraints | Lack of support from administration  
|                          | Workload  
|                          | Discipline issues  
|                          | Large classes  
|                          | Time constraints  
|                          | Lack of resources  
|                          | Seating arrangement: a hindrance in doing learner-centered activities  
|                          | Lack of teacher training  
| Constraints associated with the learners | Learners’ lack of critical ability  
|                          | Learners’ attitude towards learning English  
|                          | Learners’ needs  
|                          | Learners’ low proficiency in English  
| Constraints associated with the teachers | Teachers’ limited knowledge/understanding of language teaching methods  
|                          | Teachers’ low proficiency in English  
|                          | Teachers’ limited teaching experience  
| Examination constraints | Paper pattern  
| Social constraints | Lack of opportunities to use English in the social context  
| No knowledge of the macro-level policy documents | No knowledge of the macro-level policy documents  
| Learners’ practices | Focus on exams/marks, not on developing language skills  
|                          | Focus on memorisation  
|                          | Use of supplementary materials  

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# Appendix 4.11

## Codebook to analyse the interview data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Educational qualifications</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Educational qualifications</td>
<td>This code refers to teachers’ educational qualifications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>TEFL experience</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>TEFL experience</td>
<td>This code denotes teachers’ experience of teaching English as a foreign language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teacher training</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teacher training</td>
<td>This code indicates the trainings (both pre-service and in-service) a teacher has received and it includes all aspects of teacher training, including training focus, training duration, number of trainings a teacher attended, etc. All the aspects that come under this code are mentioned as sub-codes (see Appendix 4.10).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Teachers’ practices</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Use of teaching methodology</td>
<td>This code is used to identify various instructional practices a teacher uses in his lessons, such as the use of deductive pedagogy, inductive pedagogy, pair and group work, etc. All these aspects that come under this code are indicated as sub-codes (see Appendix 4.10).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Exam-oriented pedagogy</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Exam-oriented pedagogy</td>
<td>This code is used where the teacher’s teaching is aligned with the demands the examination places upon both teachers and learners. This code also consists of further sub-codes, which are indicated in Appendix 4.10.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Use of Urdu as a medium of instruction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Use of Urdu as a medium of instruction</td>
<td>This code refers to the teacher’s use of Urdu as a medium of instruction when teaching English and its underlying reasons. For clarity, the reasons are indicated as sub-codes (see Appendix 4.10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Textbook use</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Textbook use</td>
<td>This code indicates how a teacher uses the textbook to teach English. It includes the aspects of textbook adaptation and materials supplementation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teachers’ beliefs</td>
<td>This code indicates a teacher’s beliefs about various instructional methods and practices he uses or do not use when teaching English, such as inductive pedagogy, deductive pedagogy, delayed correction, etc. All these aspects are mentioned as sub-codes under this main code. For clarity, see Appendix 4.10.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Constraints</td>
<td>This code indicates various institutional/official constraints that impede the teachers to use the recommended pedagogical practices in their lessons. These constraints include workload, large classes, time constraints, etc., and are mentioned as sub-codes. The complete list of these constraints is given in Appendix 4.10.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Constraints associated with the teachers</td>
<td>This code denotes constraints on the part of the teachers that impede them to use the recommended pedagogical practices in their lessons. These constraints include teachers’ low proficiency in English, teachers’ limited knowledge of language teaching methodologies, etc., and are mentioned as sub-codes. The complete list of these constraints is given in Appendix 4.10.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
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<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Examination constraints</td>
<td>This code refers to examination constraints, such as the demands the examination places upon both teachers and learners, that make the teachers teach the learners in line with the exam demands and to neglect the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Social constraints</td>
<td>This code indicates social constraints that make the teachers ignore the pedagogical principles recommended in the national curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>No knowledge of the macro-level policy documents</td>
<td>This code denotes teachers’ lack of awareness and knowledge of the macro-level policy documents, such as the national curriculum, and the pedagogical principles recommended in them to carry out the English language education in the classes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Learners’ practices</td>
<td>This code refers to learners’ practices and preferences with reference to the learning of English language in the class.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 4.12

Research ethics approval letter

Shahzad Karim
Registration number: 160250190
School of English
Programme: PhD in English (Language and Linguistics)

Dear Shahzad,

PROJECT TITLE: An investigation of matches and mismatches between pedagogic policy and practice: An English language education programme evaluation in Pakistan
APPLICATION: Reference Number 020849

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 17/09/2018 the above-named project was approved on ethical grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

- University research ethics application form 020849 (dated 05/08/2018).
- Participant information sheet 1045413 version 3 (05/08/2018).
- Participant consent form 1045414 version 3 (06/08/2018).

The following optional amendments were suggested:

This is much improved, and most of the changes are satisfactory. It’s clear from your response to the previous round that it will not be practical to obtain consent from the guardians of each and every student. However, obtaining consent from the head teacher alone is not adequate. The best solution is therefore to send an opt-out letter home to parents/guardians. In this case, a letter is sent home with every student, and parents/guardians only reply if they wish their child not to participate. There will be no need to collect consent from each guardian, but if a guardian objects, they can notify the school, and their child can be removed from the study. Please institute this change, and the application will then be in very good order.

If during the course of the project you need to deviate significantly from the above-approved documentation please inform me since written approval will be required.

Yours sincerely

Emma Bradley
Ethics Administrator
School of English
Appendix 4.13

Participant information sheets

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET for Head Teachers at the School Education Department, Government of the Punjab, Pakistan.

Project Title: Exploration of English Language Education in Pakistan

Researcher: Shahzad Karim

You are being invited to take part in this research that I am undertaking as my PhD project. Before you decide whether or not to participate, it is important for you to know what the study is about and what it will involve. Please take some time to read the information given below, and ask me if you have any questions.

I am a PhD student in the School of English (Language and Linguistics), the University of Sheffield, United Kingdom. The research project I am undertaking investigates English language education in government schools in the Punjab, Pakistan. For this purpose, I will carry out ten to fifteen English language teachers’ classroom observations. Each teacher will be observed three times while teaching a different language skill or subskill. The observed lessons will be video recorded if permission is given by the teacher; and audio recorded if video recording is not acceptable to them. Post-observation one-to-one interviews will also be conducted with each teacher with reference to their teaching in their classes. The interviews will be audio recorded. The study will involve both male and female English language teachers. Each classroom observation will take 40 minutes (the entire duration of a lesson), and each interview will last for approximately 45-60 minutes.

The data collected from the participants and the findings that emerge out of that will be used for this research project or for any publications or conference presentations that are linked with this research project. It is clarified that when the data or any other information collected from the participants will be reported or published in this research project or for any other future publication, it will be done with sensitivity ensuring that the identity of the participants as well as the schools/institutions where they work remains anonymous. If the participants wish to know the results or want to have the audio and video recordings, they can be made available to them.

It is important to note that the classroom observations done for the research purpose are not a part of any formal/official evaluation or assessment of the teacher as well as of the students. Moreover, the video and audio recordings will be kept strictly confidential and will only be accessible to the research team members (I myself and my supervisor). Further, the video and audio recordings will be destroyed one year after I successfully defend and complete my PhD.

The participants’ participation in the study is completely voluntary and they are free to decline or withdraw at any stage of data collection without stating any reason to the researcher. Consent to take part in this research project will be obtained from the participants in writing.

I seek your permission to collect data from your school teachers. Your approval for this research is also entirely voluntary and you may withdraw your permission for this study at any stage of data collection. I would also like to ask for your guarantee that the participation or non-participation of the invited teacher(s) in this research will in no way affect your relationship to them.
Many thanks for your time. Your cooperation in this regard will be highly appreciated. Participating in this research and making its realisation possible will surely be an invaluable contribution to English language education in Pakistan.

If you have any further queries or concerns regarding the study, please feel free to contact me, my supervisor or Head of the School of English, the University of Sheffield, United Kingdom. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Supervisor</th>
<th>Head of the School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Shohid Karim  
Student ID: 160230190  
shkarim2@sheffield.ac.uk  
School of English  
The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom  
Contact (Sheffield, UK) 0044-24773106  
Contact in Pakistan 0092-3215200126 | Dr. Nigel Harwood  
n.harwood@sheffield.ac.uk  
School of English  
The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom  
1 Upper Hanover Street  
Sheffield, S3 7RA  
Phone: (0114) 222 8464 | Professor Joe Bray  
j.bray@sheffield.ac.uk  
School of English  
The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom  
1 Upper Hanover Street  
Sheffield, S3 7RA |

In case of any ethical concerns you may contact Dr Nigel Harwood (the supervisor).

Approved by the University of Sheffield’s Human Participants Ethics Review Procedure as administered by the School of English on 17/09/2018, reference number 020849.
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET for Secondary Level English Language Teachers at the School Education Department, Government of the Punjab, Pakistan.

Project Title: Exploration of English Language Education in Pakistan
Researcher: Shahzad Karim

You are being invited to take part in this research that I am undertaking as my PhD project. Before you decide whether or not to participate, it is important for you to know what the study is about and what it will involve. Please take some time to read the information given below, and ask me if you have any questions.

I am a PhD student in the School of English (Language and Linguistics), the University of Sheffield, United Kingdom. The research project I am undertaking investigates English language education in government schools in the Punjab, Pakistan. For this purpose, I will carry out 10-15 English language teachers' classroom observations. Each teacher will be observed three times while teaching a different language skill or subskill. The observed lessons will be video recorded if permission is given by the teacher; and audio recorded if video recording is not acceptable to them. Post-observation one-to-one interviews will also be conducted with each teacher with reference to their teaching in their classes. The interviews will be audio recorded. The study will involve both male and female English language teachers. Each classroom observation will take 40 minutes (the entire duration of a lesson), and each interview will last for approximately 45-60 minutes.

The data collected from the participants and the findings that emerge out of that will be used for this research project or for any publications or conference presentations that are linked with this research project. It is clarified that when the data or any other information collected from the participants will be reported or published in this research project or for any other future publication, it will be done with sensitivity ensuring that the identity of the participants as well as the schools/institutions where they work remains anonymous. If the participants wish to know the results or want to have the audio and video recordings, they can be made available to them.

It is important to note that the classroom observations done for the research purpose are not a part of any formal/formative evaluation or assessment of the teacher as well as of the students. Moreover, the video and audio recordings will be kept strictly confidential and will only be accessible to the research team members (I myself and my supervisor). Further, the video and audio recordings will be destroyed one year after I successfully defend and complete my PhD.

I invite you to participate in this study. Your participation in the study is completely voluntary and you are free to decline or withdraw at any stage of data collection without stating any reason to the researcher. Consent to take part in this research project will be obtained from you in writing.

Many thanks for your time. Your cooperation in this regard will be highly appreciated. Participating in this research and making its realisation possible will surely be an invaluable contribution to English language education in Pakistan.

If you have any further queries or concerns regarding the study, please feel free to contact me, my supervisor or Head of the School of English, the University of Sheffield, United Kingdom. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Supervisor</th>
<th>Head of the School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shahzad Karim</td>
<td>Dr. Nigel Harwood</td>
<td>Professor Joe Bray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student ID: 16050190</td>
<td><a href="mailto:a.harwood@sheffield.ac.uk">a.harwood@sheffield.ac.uk</a></td>
<td>1 <a href="mailto:brey@sheffield.ac.uk">brey@sheffield.ac.uk</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="mailto:skarim@sheffield.ac.uk">skarim@sheffield.ac.uk</a></td>
<td>School of English</td>
<td>School of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School of English</td>
<td>The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom</td>
<td>The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom</td>
<td>1 Upper Hanover Street</td>
<td>1 Upper Hanover Street</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact (Sheffield, UK)</td>
<td>Sheffield, S3 7RA</td>
<td>Sheffield, S3 7RA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0044-24773106</td>
<td>Phone: (0114) 222 8454</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact in Pakistan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0092-3215200428</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In case of any ethical concerns you may contact Dr Nigel Harwood (the supervisor).

Approved by the University of Sheffield’s Human Participants Ethics Review Procedure as administered by the School of English on 17/09/2018, reference number 020849.
Appendix 4.14

Consent forms

Consent Form for Head Teachers

Project Title: Exploration of English Language Education in Pakistan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Please tick the appropriate boxes</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taking Part in the Project</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have read and understood the project information sheet dated or the project has been fully explained to me. (If you answer No to this question please do not proceed with this consent form until you are fully aware of what your participation in the project will mean.)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that this research study will involve classroom observations, post-observation one-to-one interview, and group interview of the secondary level English language teacher(s) working in this school.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I also understand that the project will involve classroom observations being VIDEO or AUDIO recorded and interviews being AUDIO and/or VIDEO recorded.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that the English language teachers’ and students’ participation in this study is completely voluntary and they are free to decline or withdraw at any stage of data collection without giving any reason to the researcher. Further, there will be no adverse consequences if they choose to withdraw.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that my permission to allow the researcher to collect data from the English language teacher(s) of this school is voluntary and that I am free to decline or withdraw my permission at any stage of data collection without stating any reason to the researcher.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How my information will be used during and after the project</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that the data collected from the English language teachers, including field notes, audio and video recordings, and the findings that emerge out of them will be used for this research study or for any publications or conference presentations that are linked with this study.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I also understand that the teachers’ as well as their students’ participation in this study is confidential and when the data or any other information collected from them is reported in this study or in any publication or conference presentation linked with this study, the researcher will ensure that their identity remains anonymous.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that the data collected from both teachers and students, including field notes, audio and video recordings, and their transcriptions, will be properly secured. The data in electronic form will be secured with passwords and all the data will be kept in a locked cabinet. The participants’ personal details, such as name, phone number, and email address, etc. will be accessible to the research team members only (the principal researcher and his supervisor) and will not be revealed to people outside the project.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The template of this consent form has been approved by the University of Sheffield Research Ethics Committee and is available to view here: [https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/ethicsandintegrity/ethicspolicy/forms/guidance/homepage](https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/ethicsandintegrity/ethicspolicy/forms/guidance/homepage)
I understand that the audio and/or video recordings will be destroyed one year after the principal researcher successfully defends and completes his PhD.

- I allow the teacher(s) and students of this school to participate in this research study.
- I allow the researcher to do classroom observations of the English language teacher(s) of this school.
- I allow the classroom observations being audio / video recorded.
- I allow the researcher to do interviews of the English language teacher(s) of this school.
- I allow the interviews being audio / video recorded.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of participant</th>
<th>Signature</th>
<th>Date</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Researcher</th>
<th>Signature</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shahzad Karim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Project contact details for further information:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Supervisor</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shahzad Karim</td>
<td>Dr. Nigel Harwood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student ID: 150270190</td>
<td><a href="mailto:p.harwood@sheffield.ac.uk">p.harwood@sheffield.ac.uk</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Phone: (0114) 222 8464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact in Pakistan</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>0092-3215200128</td>
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</table>

Approved by the University of Sheffield’s Human Participants Ethics Review Procedure as administered by the School of English on 17/09/2018. Reference number 020849.

The template of this consent form has been approved by the University of Sheffield Research Ethics Committee and is available to view here: [http://www.sheffield.ac.uk/res/researcherintegrity/ethics/](http://www.sheffield.ac.uk/res/researcherintegrity/ethics/)
Consent Form for English Language Teachers whose classes/lessons will be observed and who will be further interviewed

Project Title: Exploration of English Language Education in Pakistan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Please tick the appropriate boxes</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that taking part in this research study will involve my classroom observations being VIDEO or AUDIO recorded and my post-observation one-to-one interviews being AUDIO recorded.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that my participation in this study is completely voluntary and I am free to decline or withdraw at any stage of data collection without giving any reason to the researcher. Further, there will be no adverse consequences if I choose to withdraw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>How my information will be used during and after the project</td>
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<tr>
<td>I understand that the data collected from me, including field notes, audio and video recordings, and the findings that emerge out of them will be used for this research study or for any conference presentations or publications that are linked with this study.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I also understand that my participation is confidential and when the data or any other information collected from me is reported in this study or in any publication or conference presentation linked with this study, the researcher will ensure that my identity remains anonymous.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that the data collected from me in the form of field notes, audio and video recordings, and their transcriptions will be properly secured. The data in electronic form will be secured with passwords and all the data will be kept in a locked cabinet. My personal details, such as name, phone number, and email address, etc. will be accessible to the research team members only (the principal researcher and his supervisor) and will not be revealed to people outside the project.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I understand that my audio and/or video recordings will be destroyed one year after the principal researcher successfully defends and completes his PhD.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I agree to participate in this research study.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I agree to my classroom observations being video recorded.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I agree to my classroom observations being audio recorded.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• I agree to my interview being audio recorded.</td>
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</table>

The template of this consent form has been approved by the University of Sheffield Research Ethics Committee and is available to view here: [https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/ru/ethicsandintegrity/ethicspolicy/further-guidance/homepage](https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/ru/ethicsandintegrity/ethicspolicy/further-guidance/homepage)
Name of participant | Signature | Date
---|---|---

Name of Researcher | Signature | Date
---|---|---
Shahzad Karim

**Project contact details for further information:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Supervisor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shahzad Karim</td>
<td>Dr. Nigel Harwood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student ID: 160250190elier</td>
<td><a href="mailto:n.harwood@sheffield.ac.uk">n.harwood@sheffield.ac.uk</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="mailto:skarimz@sheffield.ac.uk">skarimz@sheffield.ac.uk</a></td>
<td>School of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School of English</td>
<td>The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom</td>
<td>1 Upper Hanover Street</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact (Sheffield, UK)</td>
<td>Sheffield, S3 7SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0044-24773106</td>
<td>Phone: (0114) 222 8454</td>
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</table>

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