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An investigation into Lecturers' Beliefs and Implementation of the English Language Curriculum Change at Higher Education Level in Pakistan

Submitted by
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Abstract

This thesis describes an exploratory study designed to investigate the beliefs and perceptions of eight English language lecturers about, and their classroom practices in implementing the curriculum change that was enacted in 2010 at the undergraduate level in the public sector colleges in Pakistan. Research indicates that curriculum change is a highly complex and a multifaceted process (Carl, 2009), and its success depends on a number of features. In this respect, it is acknowledged that teachers and their multiple roles contribute significantly to the success or failure of any educational reform or change. Therefore, this exploration focussed on investigating teachers’ implementation of the curriculum change through an analysis of their beliefs about teaching and learning, their perceptions about the curriculum change, and the issues involved in implementation.

My approach is interpretive, and thus qualitative research methodology was employed to obtain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Semi structured interviews and classroom observations were used as data collection instruments. The analysis of the data revealed that, in spite of the lecturers’ generally positive attitude towards the concept of change and their belief in the importance of English for both individual and national progress, there was a limited uptake of the new communicative curriculum. The study indicated that teachers' beliefs combined with a number of external factors including the student level, educational culture, examination washback, lack of resources and support, and absence of teacher training could be an explanation for contradictions between the intended and the implemented curriculum change. The study concluded that the needs of the teachers must be acknowledged, and measures should be taken to create compatibility between the teachers’ beliefs, contextual factors and the reform policies.

Although the study does not provide any explicit solutions to the problem of change and reform implementation, the insights revealed significant implications, clarified some critical issues, and offered some recommendations which might prove beneficial not only for curriculum planning and implementation in the future, but could also be useful in guiding those involved in the present curriculum change. Important areas were also suggested for further research in the field.
Table of Contents

Abstract ................................................................................................................. 2
Table of contents ................................................................................................. 3
Acknowledgements ............................................................................................... 6
List of Figures and Tables .................................................................................... 7
Acronyms and Abbreviations ............................................................................. 10

Chapter I: Introduction ....................................................................................... 12
  1.1 Nature of the problem .................................................................................. 13
  1.2 Rationale of the study .................................................................................. 15
  1.3 Significance of the study ............................................................................. 16
  1.4 Aims of the study ......................................................................................... 17
  1.5 Structure of the study .................................................................................. 17

Chapter II: Background to the study ................................................................. 18
  2.1 Introduction .................................................................................................. 19
  2.2 The Education system in Pakistan .............................................................. 19
  2.3 The higher education curriculum change in Pakistan .................................. 21
    2.3.1 Status of English and curriculum change at higher education level ...... 22
    2.3.2 Curriculum change and teacher training ............................................. 25
  2.4 The description of the research setting ....................................................... 27

Chapter III: Literature Review .......................................................................... 28
  3.1 Introduction .................................................................................................. 29
  3.2 Theoretical framework ................................................................................ 29
  3.3 Definition of curriculum ............................................................................. 34
  3.4 Curriculum change ....................................................................................... 34
    3.4.1 Phases of educational change .............................................................. 37
    3.4.2 Change implementation strategies ..................................................... 38
    3.4.3 Factors influencing curriculum change implementation ................... 41
    3.4.4 Teachers and curriculum change implementation ............................. 44
    3.4.5 Prerequisites of an effective change implementation ....................... 45
  3.5 Teachers’ Beliefs ........................................................................................ 48
    3.5.1 Perceptions as a construct of beliefs ................................................. 51
    3.5.2 Sources of teachers’ beliefs ............................................................... 53
    3.5.2 Teachers’ beliefs and classroom practice ......................................... 55
    3.5.3 Teachers’ beliefs and educational reforms ....................................... 57
  3.6 Implications for the study ............................................................................ 60
  3.7 Research questions ...................................................................................... 61

Chapter IV: Methodology .................................................................................. 62
  4.1 Introduction .................................................................................................. 63
  4.2 Researcher’s theoretical framework ............................................................ 63
  4.3 Research questions ...................................................................................... 66
  4.4 Research design .......................................................................................... 67
  4.5 Qualitative research methodology .............................................................. 67
  4.6 Research setting and sample ....................................................................... 68
  4.7 Data collection instruments and procedures .............................................. 70
    4.7.1 Interviews ............................................................................................ 71
      4.7.1.1 Interview procedures .................................................................. 73
    4.7.2 Classroom observations ...................................................................... 76
      4.7.2.1 Observation procedure ............................................................... 77
Chapter V: Findings and discussion ................................................................. 96
5.1 Introduction .................................................................................................. 97
5.2. Lecturers' beliefs about English Language education in Pakistan .......... 97
  5.2.1. Status of English in Pakistan ................................................................. 98
  5.2.2. Teachers and teaching ......................................................................... 100
  5.2.3. Importance of different language skills .............................................. 103
  5.2.4. Role of target language (TL) in the classroom .................................... 105
  5.2.5. The importance of grammar and vocabulary ...................................... 106
  5.2.6. Literature vs. Language ...................................................................... 107
  5.2.7. Sources of teachers' beliefs ................................................................. 109
  5.2.8. Discussion of lecturers' beliefs about English language education in Pakistan ................................................................. 110
5.3. Lecturers' perceptions about the curriculum change .............................. 117
  5.3.1. Appropriateness and necessity of change ............................................ 117
  5.3.2. Practicality of change ......................................................................... 118
  5.3.3. Role of lecturers in the change process .............................................. 119
  5.3.4. Readiness of the lecturers and the students for the change .............. 120
  5.3.5. Readiness of the systems for the change ........................................... 122
5.3.6. Prospects of sustainability .................................................................. 123
5.3.7. Discussion of lecturers' perceptions about curriculum change ...... 123
5.4. Lecturers' concerns about the change implementation .......................... 127
  5.4.1. Examinations ..................................................................................... 128
  5.4.2. Lack of resources and support from the universities ....................... 129
  5.4.3. Lack of teacher training .................................................................... 131
  5.4.4. Students' level ................................................................................... 132
  5.4.5. Large classes ..................................................................................... 132
  5.4.6. Strategies to cope with curriculum change ...................................... 133
  5.4.7. Discussion of lecturers' concerns about the change implementation .... 134
5.5. Lecturers' classroom practices and curriculum change ......................... 141
  5.5.1. Participants' beliefs and classroom practices ...................................... 141
  5.5.2. Participants' perceptions and concerns about the Curriculum change in relation to their classroom practices ...................................................... 144
  5.5.3. Discussion of the lecturers' classroom practices in relation to their beliefs and perceptions ...................................................... 147
5.6. Summary .................................................................................................. 157

Chapter VI: Recommendations and Conclusion ........................................... 158
6.1. Introduction ............................................................................................... 159
6.2. Summary of the main findings .................................................................. 159
6.3. Recommendations ..................................................................................... 160
  6.3.1. English language education ................................................................. 160
  6.3.2. Teacher education and support ........................................................... 161
  6.3.3. Contextual issues and resources ......................................................... 164
  6.3.4. Student preparedness for change ....................................................... 165
6.3.5. Reforms in Examination System ................................................................. 165
6.3.6. Continuous evaluation .................................................................................. 166
6.4. Contribution to knowledge .............................................................................. 167
6.5. Future research ............................................................................................... 169
6.6. Conclusion and personal reflection ............................................................... 171

Bibliography ............................................................................................................ 176

Appendices ................................................................................................................ 202
Appendix 1 ................................................................................................................. 203
Appendix 2 ................................................................................................................. 207
Appendix 3 ................................................................................................................. 208
Appendix 4 ................................................................................................................. 209
Appendix 5 ................................................................................................................. 210
Appendix 6 ................................................................................................................. 211
Appendix 7 ................................................................................................................. 211
Appendix 8 ................................................................................................................. 222
Appendix 9 ................................................................................................................. 226
Appendix 10 ............................................................................................................... 228
Appendix 11 .............................................................................................................. 238
Appendix 12 .............................................................................................................. 239
Appendix 13 .............................................................................................................. 242
Appendix 14 .............................................................................................................. 244
Appendix 15 .............................................................................................................. 247
Appendix 16 .............................................................................................................. 251
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List of Figures and Tables

Figures

Chapter 2

Figure 1: Stages of the Education system in Pakistan

Figure 2: English Language Teaching Reforms Project

Chapter 3

Figure: 3: Two sides of identity: figure 3 (Holliday et al, 2004, p. 19)

Figure 4: Fullan’s (1991) four stages in the curriculum change process

Tables

Chapter 4

Table 1: Lecturer’s background information

Table 2: Interviews timeline

Table 3: Observations timeline

Table 4: Example of open coding

Table 5: Example of codes being grouped into categories

Table 6: Example of merging categories to develop themes

Table 7: Themes linked with Research Questions

Chapter 5

Table 8: Lecturers’ beliefs

Table 9: Beliefs about status of English in Pakistan

Table 10: Beliefs about teachers and teaching

Table 11: Beliefs about the importance of different language skills

Table 12: Beliefs about the role of TL in the classroom
Table 13: Beliefs about grammar and vocabulary
Table 14: Beliefs about literature vs. language to teach English
Table 15: Sources of lecturers’ beliefs
Table 16: Lecturers’ perceptions
Table 17: Lecturers’ concerns
Acronyms and Abbreviations

BA: Bachelor of Arts
BS: Bachelor of Studies
BSC: Bachelor of Science
CLT: Communicative Language Teaching
DAI: Degree Awarding Institutes
EFL: English as Foreign Language
ELT: English Language Teaching
ELTR: English Language Teaching Reforms
ESL: English as a Second Language
HE: Higher Education
HEC: Higher Education Commission
L1: Native Language
M.Phil: Master of Philosophy
MA: Master of Arts
MS: Master of Studies
RQ: Research Questions
TEFL: Teaching of English as a Foreign Language
TESL: Teaching English as a Second Language
TESOL: Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages
TL: Target Language
UNESCO: United Nations Educational Scientific, and Cultural Organization
CHAPTER I:

INTRODUCTION
1.1. Nature of the problem
The role of English as a powerful instrument with the capacity to provide access to various types of educational and professional opportunities (Troudi, 2005) is established worldwide (Phillipson, 1992). It has gained the status of an international lingua franca (Held & McGrew, 2003), and is the tool for global communication (Thompson, 2003). This universal importance, with English as the language of science, technology, and world economies has resulted in a tremendous increase in the demand to learn English for a variety of communicative purposes. Hence, countries where English is used as a second language in order to establish their position in the world community have brought about reforms in the English language curricula. They have adopted communicative oriented approaches (Kim, 2004; Crystal, 2003; Thompson, 2003) with the intention to develop learners who can adapt to the changing economic and social needs in the 21st century.

In Pakistan, English permeates social, professional and educational life, and is used as the official language of the country in all legal and official documentation. However, Pakistan’s English language education has often been censured for its poor quality and for the absence of much needed curriculum reforms (Mehrun-Nisa, 2009; Siddiqui, 2007). English is taught as a compulsory subject at all levels; primary, secondary and tertiary. In public sector undergraduate colleges, until 2010 English was taught through a literature-based curriculum, which was criticized for not being able to develop the required competencies for students at this level. The teaching methodology was generally teacher centered, directed by textbooks comprising texts from various genres of literature, and focused on exam preparation.

After more than 30 years of what has been described as stagnation and neglect (Jamil, 2009), reforms were introduced into the English language curricula at all levels in 2001. This process of comprehensive curriculum change is still being carried out in different phases. At the higher education level (HE) i.e. after grade 12 upwards, the curriculum underwent a complete change in 2010. This change had important implications for students, teachers, and the educational institutions. For the English language curriculum, it meant a reform away from a literature based and towards a skill-based syllabus, and a shift from a traditional teacher centred teaching approach towards a more student-centred
methodology. It also necessitated changes in the examination system. Furthermore, it also required financial support for the provision of resources and materials, and for training and development of the teachers (Aziz, et.al, 2014).

This curriculum change naturally created great challenges for those responsible for its implementation, including teachers who are the practical implementers of any reform or change. Teachers are one of the most important stakeholders in the process of curriculum change, as they transform the curriculum specified as a policy and implement it in the classrooms (McKernan, 2008). With a complete shift from literature based to communicative based curriculum, this change also required a paradigm shift in teaching methodology. This meant that teachers were required to re-assess their beliefs and practices with regard to learning and teaching (Adey & Hewitt, 2004). Literature on curriculum change has acknowledged that if there is a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and the curriculum principles, reforms are often not implemented as planned (Orafi & Borg, 2009). The gap between policy and implementation remains wide unless adequate and suitable attention is given to those actually bringing the curriculum into the classroom (Dembele and Lefoka, 2007; Barrow, 1984; Markee, 1997; Lamie, 2005; Nation and Macalister, 2010; McKernan, 2008; Alwan, 2006; Troudi & Alwan, 2010; Cakiroglu & Cakiroglu, 2003). Teachers are thus integral to the process of reform and change, and are ‘a crucial factor in the ultimate success or failure of that innovation’ (Li, 1998: p. 698).

Research on teachers’ beliefs in the field of English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) has emerged from, and developed within the wider context of general educational research. This research has shown a consensus regarding the influence of beliefs on how ESL/EFL teachers learn to teach, how they teach and how they perceive and implement change (Freeman, 2002; Borg, 2003; Allen, 2002). This indicates the importance of exploring the beliefs of the ESL/EFL teachers. This exploration helps in understanding the way English language is taught in a particular context. Moreover, teachers being integral to any reform or change in the curriculum (Lamie, 2005; McKernan, 2008), their beliefs influence their perceptions about, and attitudes towards curriculum reform, which in turn affect the implementation of change and innovation.
In the belief that curriculum is a process, and that educational change and reform should be regularly reviewed and evaluated, this study was developed to explore teachers’ beliefs and perceptions about, and implementation of curriculum change. It was considered important to delve into teachers’ beliefs and practices in order to assist the policy makers as well as the implementers to bring about improvements in the curriculum and its implementation (Norris, 1998).

1.2. Rationale for the study

My interest in the topic was prompted by a small-scale interpretive research project, which I undertook with six English language lecturers, working in two public sector colleges in the beginning of 2011. As already mentioned above a large scale change was introduced in the curriculum at the HE level in 2010. This change affected all the stakeholders including the teachers and the students. My research was carried out at the time when the implementation of change was still recent, and the teachers were in the process of understanding, and reconciling themselves with this change. Appreciating the significance of the teachers’ perceptions about curriculum change, I tried to explore this major development from the perspectives of the English language lecturers in the public sector colleges.

The findings of this earlier research revealed some interesting details. The participants believed that the new curriculum was apparently a very impressive document. However, they felt that it was overly ambitious and impractical due to the lack of planning and resources, and the absence of proper teacher training. The teachers did not consider the change from literature based to communicative curriculum feasible in their context. They believed that the previous system in which they had themselves studied as well as had taught, worked quite well, and that a few changes in the same curriculum would have been sufficient. They also found themselves quite unprepared to take up the challenge.

This research made me think about the magnitude of the issue. I realized that such a major curriculum change would be highly significant for the higher education system of Pakistan, and would have far-reaching effects not only on students and teachers, but also on teaching and learning. I wanted, therefore, to investigate the issue in more depth. I hoped to go beyond the teachers’
perceptions, (in this study the terms lecturers and teachers are used synonymously) and to determine which factors influence teachers’ perceptions and the implementation of change in the classroom. Since the decisions that the teachers take in the classroom are strongly influenced by their beliefs (Bandura, 1986; Nespor, 1987), I considered it vital to explore the beliefs of the teachers regarding English language teaching and reform. Beliefs can be called the root, the foundation of our thought processes and practices (Mistades, 2007). Moreover, it is important to point out that beliefs as a part of the teacher cognition are a messy construct (Pajares, 1992), and require thorough investigation in order to understand the classroom practices in relation to curriculum change. This I believe can go a long way in assisting the policy makers as well as the other key players to make the reforms more productive for the education system.

1.3. Significance of the study

Teachers’ beliefs have been recognized as an important theme for the research on teaching and learning (Stuart & Thurlow, 2000). Thus, there have been studies worldwide regarding language teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning, and about reforms (Fox, 1993; Allen, 2002; Konings, et al, 2007; Carless, 2006; Yook, 2010). However, very few of these have been conducted in the context of Pakistan (Butt, et al, 2012; Akhtar & Kausar, 2011). These studies have mainly focused on English language teachers’ beliefs about English language teaching in schools, beliefs about self-efficacy, and general beliefs about teaching and learning (Ahsan, 2012). As far as the topic of curriculum change is concerned, there are articles in the newspapers (The Jang, 2011) mainly focusing on the planning and weaknesses of the change. However, there has not been any systematic research on the topic of teachers’ beliefs and perceptions about the HE curriculum change 2010 and any issues that the teachers might face in the implementation of this change. Thus, on account of the limited available research in this important area, I found a huge research gap, and carried out the present research with a view to making an addition to our knowledge in the field of teaching and learning.

In view of the above stated purposes, this study is underpinned by the rationale that an exploration into teachers’ beliefs about language learning, into their perceptions of curriculum change, and into classroom practices would lead to a
better understanding of the factors involved in the complex nature of change and its implementation. This understanding could have far-reaching implications for future curriculum policy, design, and implementation, as well as for teacher education.

1.4. Aims of the study
The main aim of this study is to explore the context-specific beliefs of English language lecturers working in public sector HE colleges in Pakistan in relation to their perceptions and classroom implementation of change in the English language curriculum. It also investigates any concerns on the part of the teachers about the implementation of these reforms in relation to their beliefs.

1.5. Structure of the study
The thesis is divided into six chapters as follows:

Chapter I introduces the study and explains the aims, purpose and rationale behind the research. It also describes the significance of the study, and gives a short overview of the thesis.

Chapter II presents the background information about the education system in Pakistan and thus attempts to familiarize the reader with the context of the study.

Chapter III provides a critical discussion of the research studies relevant to the topic in order to make an argument for the conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter IV presents a detailed description of the methodology of the study. It explains the philosophical position and the design that justify the mode of inquiry employed.

Chapter V reports the findings of this study, and presents an interpretation and discussion of the findings in the light of the research literature in the field. The main research questions are answered in this chapter.

Chapter VI summarizes the main findings and their interpretation. It discusses the implications and recommendations of the study, and offers suggestions for future research in the field.
CHAPTER II:

BACKGROUND

TO THE STUDY
2.1. Introduction
The present study explores the beliefs and perceptions of the lecturers relating to the implementation process of English language curriculum change in the higher education sector in Pakistan. It is therefore pertinent to introduce in this chapter the broader contextual background of the education system and, in particular, to English language provision in Pakistan in order to establish the parameters of the research.

2.2. The Education system in Pakistan
Pakistan came into existence as a republic in 1947. It is a large country with a population of above 180 million (Pakistan yearbook, 2012). It is also a pluralistic society with a variety of cultural and ethnic backgrounds. Like many other developing countries of the world, the educational administrative structure in Pakistan follows a pyramid model (Chapman, 2008), that is, the system is a set up at national, provincial, district and local levels. In Asian countries, there is a ‘highly centralized approach to the determination of the school curriculum’ (Kennedy & Lee, 2008, p.91). This is also the case for Pakistan where, in accordance with the 1973 constitution, federal government is responsible for developing both the educational policies and the curriculum to be followed across the country. The education departments of each of the four provincial governments then implement these policies, and make amendments in accordance with local needs. The higher education sector is under the jurisdiction of the Higher Education Commission (HEC), which, in collaboration with the universities, has the mandate to promote and fund higher education in the country; it is also responsible for the curriculum development and revision.

There are three stages of formal education in Pakistan. These are illustrated on the next page in figure 1:
In this formal system of education, there are two streams, identified in terms of the public and the private sectors, and the medium of instruction, i.e. English medium or Urdu medium. The English medium institutions are privately owned either by individuals or by organizations. The fee is usually high and these schools cater to the needs of the middle to high socio-economic classes. In contrast, the Urdu medium schools are publically funded with a nominal fee. These latter institutions provide education to students belonging to the lower socio economic backgrounds. The two types of educational institutions are ‘distinguishable by their quality of standards and learner achievements’ (Shamim, 2011. p.295). This format, both in private and public sectors in Pakistan was inherited from the British education system, which was in place in the colonial period before 1947. At primary level, seven years of compulsory schooling is provided to children aged 4 to 11. Secondary education is completed from the ages of 11 to 18 in three cycles: the middle school for three years, the secondary school for two years and higher secondary school for two years. Higher education includes Bachelor’s and Master’s degree programs, and is made up of two main segments: the university/Degree Awarding Institutes (DAI) and the affiliated Colleges. Universities and colleges are both responsible for mainstream higher education in Pakistan and while both
undertake teaching, research is mostly limited to the universities (Nordic, 2006).

Since the time of independence in 1947, there have been a number of efforts in Pakistan to reform the education policy. New policies appeared quite useful initially, however, they were not very successful. Political instability, stakes, lack of will, expertise, and financial backing (Parveen, et al., 2011) resulted in the failure of these reforms to instigate real change, and thus there remained a stalemate in the higher education sector.

2.3. The higher education curriculum change in Pakistan

Influenced by the global changes in higher education and based on the recommendations of the Pakistan task force (2002), the government of Pakistan decided to overhaul the higher education sector of the country. As a result, along with the existing degree rewarding institutions, a number of colleges, which were previously affiliated to other universities, were upgraded to university level and DAIs making them financially, administratively and partly academically autonomous. These universities have under their jurisdiction a number of affiliated colleges from the public and the private sector. The university determines the courses, prescribes the syllabus and conducts the final examinations. It is also responsible for awarding the degrees. The affiliated colleges are a part of a particular university and are seen as separate colleges under the financial, administrative and academic control of the university. A large-scale curriculum change at the national level was introduced in public sector colleges and universities in 2010. As part of this reform, the overhaul led to changes in the syllabus, the teaching methodology, and the evaluation system.

For more than three decades before 2010, the public sector had two-year graduation degree programs for general arts and science graduates i.e. Bachelor of Arts (BA), or Bachelor of Science (BSC), three to four years for honors, and four to five years for professional courses such as Bachelors in Engineering and Medicine. Thus, general education from primary to degree level totaled 14 years. However, this system was revamped in 2008 (policy draft, 2008), and this large-scale curriculum change was implemented in the public sector colleges in 2010.
Accordingly, a four-year bachelors program, called BS (Bachelor of Studies), which was already being practiced in some private universities, was introduced into public colleges replacing the two-year degree program, making the general education that of 16 years duration, in accordance with international standards. The curricula of all the subjects at this level underwent a change. Moreover, semester system replaced the traditional annual system, so that in four years of study there are 8 semesters and 130 to 136 credit hours. This transition from annual to semester system also affected the examination system. Traditionally, the final external examinations were held at the end of the two years of study in the college. The internal examinations had no influence on the final grades and the awarding of degrees. In the new curriculum, internal semester examinations have weightage along with the finals, end of the course examinations. This has far-reaching effects on the whole process of teaching and learning, which will be discussed in detail later in the study.

2.3.1. Status of English and curriculum change at higher education level

Since the present research is concerned with the change introduced to the English language curriculum, I will here offer a brief overview of the position of English language in in Pakistan.

English language has played an important role in all spheres of life in Pakistan since Independence. Pakistan, like other post-colonial countries, was confronted from its inception with the issues of decolonization, globalization and the development of economic and socio-political areas (Canagarajah, 2006). These issues led to the establishment of a strong position for the English language (Mahboob, 2009). Pakistan is a diverse country with a variety of cultural and ethnic groups that speak different regional languages. Urdu, as the national language was faced with a number of rivalries from the regional languages. English on the other hand was, in comparison, considered a neutral language (Mahboob, 2009). Moreover, English was deemed important for the progress and development of the new country (Haque, 1983). Thus, English became the official language of the country. However, it has faced resistance from some regional as well as religious groups throughout Pakistan’s history. The reasons behind this resentment are the anti-colonial sentiments and feelings, which see English as a sign of servility or ‘linguistic colonization’
(Mahboob, 2009, p.179), and thus a threat to the religious and national pride of the people (Rahman, 2002).

In spite of this resentment, the English language became established in Pakistan as the language of progress and development. It is considered to guarantee lucrative jobs and a bright future to those who are proficient. According to Mahboob & Tilakaratna (2012), it is not only a linguistic phenomenon, but also a socio political reality of which the economy is a vital part. Due to the immense importance of English in the job market, its importance is growing in the educational sector of Pakistan. Successive governments underlined the importance of English in the country at various levels. From the late 1950s, the National Education Commissions maintained English as the medium of instruction at the higher levels because of the unavailability of scientific and academic knowledge in Urdu (Rehman, 1999). Nevertheless, in spite of this importance of English, no education policy laid down any realistic and workable plans to develop English language proficiency in students. Thus, the English language teaching (ELT) scenario in Pakistan has been marred by a lack of planning starting from the school level. The result is large classes, untrained teachers, lack of resources, an inflexible syllabus, and examination pressure (Siddiqui, 2007). The effects of these constraints are also visible at the higher education level. Graduate students coming from the public school background have been unable to express themselves in both oral and written English skills (ibid).

More recently, various governments, whether military or democratic, have highlighted the role of English language in the country. The government of General Pervaiz Musharraf promoted the expansion of English medium education and the status of English was developed during his regime. In the words of Siddiqui (2012, p.16), ‘Musharaf’s (1999-2008) emphasis was on an imported brand of enlightenment’. The following democratic government (2008-2013) also underlined the importance of English language in Pakistan. ‘As English is important for the country’s progress, President Zardari’s government is making arrangements to develop English language skills’ (Mahboob, 2009, p.27).
In the Education Policy of 2008/2009, the curriculum from class one onward included English as one of the compulsory subjects along with Urdu and one regional language. English was introduced at this level on the pretext that in this way the government would provide the common public with the same opportunities as were only available to the privileged classes (Coleman, 2010). Coleman explains the rationale for this policy in the following words: ‘it is not easy to obtain a white collar job in either the public or private sectors without a minimum level proficiency in the English language (English language also works as one of the sources) for social stratification between elite and non-elite’ (2010, p.19).

This policy further stated that, with the exception of a few elite schools, the English language base in Pakistan is very poor. Thus, those who lack proficiency in the language are disadvantaged both in the private and in the public sector job market. Moreover, this deficiency negatively affects Pakistan’s ability to compete with the other nations in the globalized world order (ibid). As the majority of the students in the public sector colleges come from an Urdu medium background, and have low English language skills, they then face difficulties at the university level (Mansoor, 2004).

At the undergraduate level, for more than thirty years English was traditionally taught through literature as a compulsory subject for two years. It included novels, short stories, poetry, drama and prose. The courses also contained some grammar, essay writing, application and letter writing. With the curriculum change, English is still taught as a compulsory subject in the first two years of the four year BS program, however instead of being taught through literature, it is now taught through a communicative skills based curriculum. According to the HEC, revised curriculum (2008) all students should be taught two compulsory English courses in four semesters in the first two years of their undergraduate studies, as shown in this extract from the document:

*There will be two separate Compulsory English courses; the first course will focus on using language in context. The second course will focus on developing students’ critical reading and writing skills for academic study (p.15).*
This curriculum change sought to raise Pakistani graduates to international levels. The government believed that it was vital in modern times to enable graduates to meet the present diverse market needs and thus to augment their possibilities of employment (HEC, 2008). Some of the important aims and objectives outlined in the curriculum draft (2008) updated in 2012 were as follows:

- To encourage independent, creative and critical thinking
- To develop clear communication and presentation skills
- To develop proficiency and confidence in oral as well as written English
- To enable the students to conduct small scale research
- To develop skills for lifelong learning
- To enable students to understand the basic concepts of linguistics and literature and their use and functions

The HEC drafted an overall plan with the aims and objectives of the curriculum as a whole, as well as that of each semester, including suggested book lists (App.6). Each university was directed to customize the program in accordance to their needs and resources and to implement it in the affiliated colleges as well.

The program was implemented in 2010 in most parts of the country. In Punjab province, where the present study was conducted, it was executed in its first phase in the 26 public sector colleges that are affiliated to different universities. These universities prepared the detailed courses, books, and assessments to be used by all. As mentioned above, universities started offering a four-year bachelors program from 2005.

2.3.2. Curriculum change and teacher training

It is generally acknowledged that, in order to make an educational change and reform process more viable, the role of teachers, and the quality of their preparation and professional excellence is of paramount importance. Quality improvement in the educational process comes about only through the professional development of teachers (Sharma, 1993). It is therefore necessary that teachers be provided with the opportunities to participate in quality professional development programs, so that they can play their assigned roles
effectively. Since teaching is a lifetime profession, the continuous education of teachers is considered vital (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

In Pakistan, traditionally the public sector college/university teachers have a Master’s degree in English literature. They have to pass a public service examination to join a public sector college. Until the recent past, very few continuous professional development opportunities were available to public sector college teachers (Khattak & Abbasi, 2012). Realizing the fact that professional development opportunities are crucial for successful teaching outcomes at higher education level, HEC started the English Language Teaching Reforms (ELTR), a project for qualitative improvement in English Language teaching in Pakistan. The aim of this project was the sustainable professional growth of college English Language lecturers. Phase one of this program was introduced in 2004, and phase two, in 2010.

![ELTR Project Diagram](image)

Figure2: Source: English Language Teaching Reforms Project: (An unpublished HEC report).

Professional development courses range from short-term activity based certificate courses to long-term diplomas and degree courses such as MA, MPhil, and PhD. HEC offered different types of scholarships to the teachers participating in the programs.

The extent, to which these courses were accessible to the college teachers teaching the new curriculum, and their effectiveness, is yet to be researched. Khattak & Abbasi (2012) report that a large number of trainees found these courses ineffective due to the non-availability of resources in their respective colleges. Thus, the gap between the training and the actual classroom setting was a huge barrier to the success of the program. Moreover, issues of accessibility, merit, and age limit also caused hindrances. The participants of my study, and some lecturers who spoke informally about the training
opportunities provided to the teachers, had reservations about the success of the ELTR program.

2.4. The description of the research setting

The study took place in four public sector colleges. These colleges are located in Lahore, the capital city of the province of Punjab. Two were female public colleges, and two male public colleges. These colleges were affiliated to two autonomous universities of the province. The curriculum change was introduced in these colleges in 2010. A number of government education department officials, and several teachers with whom I discussed the issue unofficially, were of the view that this change was introduced quite abruptly, without any needs analysis, or prior preparations in terms of information to the teachers. Also lacking were teacher preparation, and the development of resources both in colleges and in universities to which these colleges are affiliated. All four colleges have mainstream students generally from the Urdu medium and of low-income background. These colleges offer English literature as a major program in addition to compulsory English. The books and the detailed pacing guide for each semester are planned and designed by the respective universities with whom these colleges are affiliated.

In this chapter I have introduced the contextual background of the formal education system in Pakistan, along with a discussion on the status and the provision of English language education in the country. I have also examined the curriculum change at the HE level, its implementation, and the training provided to the teachers in relation to the curriculum change.

In the next chapter, I will present a review of literature on curriculum change implementation, along with a study of teachers’ beliefs and their importance in the curriculum change implementation. The review is guided by the research aims, and the main constructs, which support them.
CHAPTER III:

LITERATURE REVIEW
3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I review the key concepts that have informed this study. Firstly, I examine concepts from the field of curriculum change and innovation (the terms change and innovation will be used interchangeably in this study). I start by discussing the theoretical framework of the study, then define and discuss curriculum change and identify the main strategies that have been used to implement change and innovation. I also address the principal factors, which will influence the successful implementation of such change.

Secondly, as teachers' beliefs are a crucial element in this research, I also consider the central concepts related to the study of teachers' beliefs. I start by examining how the field of teachers' beliefs has developed to become a key issue in educational research. I then look at the different definitions of teachers’ beliefs. Next, I discuss perceptions as a concept of beliefs. Thereafter, I classify the main sources of teachers' beliefs. Since educational change and innovations are closely intertwined with teachers’ beliefs and often require teachers to adopt and implement new classroom practices, I review a number of studies, which point to the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices, and teachers' beliefs and educational change and reform. This review of literature from the fields of educational change and teachers' beliefs will be used to analyse the English Language curriculum change at the higher education level in Pakistan.

3.2. Theoretical framework

Literature on curriculum development generally focuses on the principles, prerequisites and procedures for change to take place (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). Theories are delineated and these are in turn used to develop models of change for general application (Griffiths & O’Neill, 2008). These models then assist designers to plan systematically and clearly the rationale for the use of particular approaches to teaching and learning, assessment, and outcomes (O’Neill, 2010). Although these models are technically valuable, they tend to overlook the human factor, such as the beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values involved in curriculum making (ibid).

In this situation, it could be a rather simplistic view of the complex nature of
educational change, which remains a deeply problematic area for policy makers as well as for practitioners (Priestley et al., 2012). The question arises if it is enough to draft a technically perfect model of change and to consider that it would be sufficient to regulate the implementers and would thus bring about the envisaged results, or if it is important to include the human factor that would ultimately lead to its practical realization. This leads to the long-standing debate in the social sciences over the primacy of structure or agency in shaping human behaviour. Structure stands for the continued reproduction of any given social structural system (Radcliffe & Brown, 1930). It supports methodological holism, the idea that people are socialized and are rooted into social structures and institutions that restrain, or enable, and generally shape the individuals’ behaviours towards, and capacities for action, and that this social structure should be taken as primary and most significant in identity development. Durkheim (1938 [1895]) believes individuals are subject to coercive social structures. This view makes the individual a passive recipient of social determination – the macro level over-socialized processes (Fuchs, 2001).

Opposed to this is the concept of human agency, which gives emphasis to human action as opposed to that of social structures. The individual according to this concept is not a static entity formed by powerful social forces and structures. It advocates methodological individualism, which believes that individuals are the chief theoretical and ontological actors in social systems, and the social structure is the outcome of the ideals, thoughts and actions of the individuals. Thus an individual is a dynamic rational and motivated actor who reasons and takes certain actions through micro level processes of interaction and meaning formation. The constructivists approach to social reality puts agency at the forefront (Beck1992; Beck & Gernshe, 2002). According to this perspective identity is about the multiple ways in which people position themselves and are positioned. Against the background of different cultural and social contexts individuals have their own conscious and unconscious thoughts and emotions and based on them they relate themselves to the world around them (Block, 2007; Duff; Norton; 2010; Norton & Toohey, 2011).

However, there is also a more balanced view in the structure agency debate. This view states that human activity results from a combination of agency and
structure. The structure stands for the rules, macro systems – the drivers and the inhibitors afforded by the society, and agency stands for the human capacity to act voluntarily- both together shape human identity and consequently action.

Constructivists like Holliday, (2011), and Giddens, (1984) find space for social structure in the lives of the individuals and in shaping identity. Holliday et al (2004, p.19) give two sides of identity based on both structure and agency. On one hand the society imposes certain social and external structures such as traditions, culture presumed expectations through which we are defined, but on the other hand these very structures are the resources which lead us to create new meanings in accordance with our agency and thus recreate our identities.

Figure: 3: Two sides of identity: figure 3 (Holliday et al, 2004, p. 19)

In terms of curriculum change it could be stated that the models of curriculum change stand for the structures and the human aspect is the agency i.e. the teachers are the agents of change (Priestly, 2010). As a constructivist researcher I believe that any model or policy draft of curriculum that excludes the human factor is incomplete; that human ideals, emotions, thoughts and beliefs need to be taken into account for the successful outcome of any policy or reform.

My research study is about the beliefs, perceptions, and feelings of the people involved in the change process. Therefore, its theoretical framework can be
linked to Fullan’s (1991) model of educational change, which stipulates a sequential systematic process of change, with clear stages, which also provide a structure to my thesis. Along with that this model focuses on the human participants taking part in the change process (Ellsworth, 2000), thus highlighting the individual’s independence and choice, in other words teacher agency.

Fullan’s model (1991) is different from other work on curriculum change, such as Rogers, (1995), whose work focussed more on the characteristics of innovation. Fullan focuses on the roles and strategies applied by the various change participants, and his model proposed four broad phases in the change process:

![Figure: 4: Fullan’s (1991) four stages in the curriculum change process](image)

Since this study is concerned with the implementation phase of curriculum change, the literature review of the study focuses on this stage of the model, and not the other three. The characteristics of change in Fullan’s model are thus analysed in keeping with the rationale of the study. These characteristics include the need for change, the clarity of needs and goals, the extent of change required, and the quality and practicality of the change. In this respect, teachers’ understanding of the change is considered essential for its successful implementation. This understanding is largely based on the beliefs that the teachers hold about teaching and learning. Research has shown that there is a strong correlation between teachers’ beliefs and their understandings and practices (Aguirre & Speer, 2000; Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). Other aspects including teachers’ perceptions about the feasibility and the practicality of change, their attitudes towards the change, teachers’ training, and their judgments about the issues involved in change implementation, have also been discussed as factors that affect the implementation of change and innovation (Carless, 1998; Lamie, 2005; Wedell, 2009).

Particularly important to this research is the notion that the teachers, the actual implementers of curriculum change must understand the process, and that their
beliefs must be aligned to this change, in order for a particular curricular innovation to be successful. Fullan (1991) and Carless (1998) stress the need for a thorough understanding of the change principles and practices by the teachers. This thorough understanding can only be possible if the change is supported by the teachers’ beliefs. In this study, it is considered that educational change does not simply mean planning and drafting a document. Neither does practical change occur by enforcing a policy document; instead, it occurs when it is based firstly, on what teachers believe about teaching and learning, secondly, how they understand the document, and thirdly, how they implement it practically in their classrooms. (Wedell, 2009).

Based on above discussion I assume that in my research setting the teachers’ beliefs might have influenced their understanding and perceptions of the change, such as beliefs about the learning goals, classroom methodology, or what is important and suitable for their students and what is not. In this study, the term ‘beliefs’ is defined as the cognitive intention held by the teachers consciously or unconsciously, and it guides their perceptions and behaviour (Borg, 2001). These perceptions, in turn, may influence teachers’ attitudes towards the new situation. At the same time, teachers’ beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes can possibly be affected by their needs in terms of training and preparation towards effecting those changes. Hence, Shriner, et al. (2009, p.126) assert that: ‘...changes in teachers’ attitudes, perceptions, and behaviours can come about as a result of (training and) professional development activities alone.’

Thus, three constructs were principally significant for the present study, namely: teachers’ beliefs about teaching, learning, and curricular change; teachers’ perceptions of curricular change; and their implementation of curriculum change in relation to their beliefs and perceptions. Therefore, exploring teachers’ implementation of the curriculum change through an analysis of teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning, their perceptions about curriculum change, and their perceptions about the issues involved in implementation seemed to be the most appropriate path to structure and guide this investigation.
3.3. Definitions of Curriculum

Curriculum has been variously defined as a plan of study; a set of courses; ‘a plan for action that guides instruction’, (Zais, 1976, p.38); a set of intended or structured learning outcomes (Johnson, M. Cited in Giroux & Pinar 1981, p.72); planned and directed experience (Krug, 1957); and as actual occurrences emanating from a set of objectives stipulated in curriculum guides. Teachers who look at it in terms of materials tend to see it as knowledge (Alwan, 2006). It has been described as ‘inert’ (curriculum document) and ‘functioning, live or operative’ (environment and activities of the classroom) (Zais, 1976, p.39).

In the context of this research study, it is seen as a process or a framework of processes, as viewed by the post-modernist researchers such as Slattery (2013), and Pinar (2008). These researchers perceive it as a process of decision making about the needs, goals, objectives, content areas, teaching methods, and the evaluation of the whole process. According to this model ‘the curriculum is creative, unpredictable in its itinerary and path of growth: moral, intellectual, spiritual and constructive’ (Mckernan, 2008, p.7). Thus, curriculum provides information about the entire educational experience concerning its different stages, processes and outcomes (Troudi & Alwan, 2010).

Curriculum thus becomes a living, ongoing process. It is flexible as it takes into account the needs of the learners, and the teachers, as well as that of the society. It is a process of developing and improving a programme in which educational purposes are not considered as goals to be achieved at some later stage in the process, but as practical principles guiding teachers’ practices all along (Kelly, 2009). It is perpetually evolving, where evaluation is a continuing process in the service of decision-making (Brown, 1995). As such, I have conceptualized curriculum from a constructivist viewpoint, seeing it as a dynamic, complex, and creative process in which teachers and learners are active participants creating knowledge, and understanding it as a construct for social interaction with others (Levine, 2002).
3.4. Curriculum change

Curriculum change implies the introduction of something new, and changing what already exists. Fullan and Park (1981, p.10) define change as ‘alterations from existing practice to some new or revised practice (involving materials, teaching and beliefs) in order to achieve certain desired students’ learning outcomes’. Hamilton (1995, p.10) describes curriculum change as ‘the instigation and implementation of new way of doing and thinking which has some potential for diffusion’. Crookes et al (1994) reflecting on curriculum change in the EFL/ESL context believe that change and innovation

*in a second language teaching program is an informed change in an underlying philosophy of language teaching/learning, brought about by direct experience, research findings, or other means, resulting in an adaptation of pedagogic practices such that instruction is better able to promote language learning as it has come to be understood* (p.489).

The terms curriculum change and innovation are sometimes distinguished from each other. According to (Fullan 2001), change may arise naturally or may be brought about deliberately, while innovation is always intentional. It is a proposition for change as it prompts change. Markee (1997) also differentiates the terms technically, however stating that these terms overlap and hence can be used interchangeably. She defines change as an ongoing process, while innovation is a ‘willed intervention, development of ideas, practices, or beliefs that are fundamentally new’ (p.47). In this study both terms have been used as I consider the conceptions of both as blended in the context of the study. There were some specific innovations in the curriculum, such as the introduction of skills based teaching and presentation skills, whilst we also find a broader process of change in the whole system of undergraduate study. Thus, my working definition for this study is that change is a planned and systematic process to bring about innovation, development, renewal and improvement of a curriculum.

Curriculum change is dictated by the shifting patterns in the social political, economic and technological configuration of a society. As times change, a society’s vision of itself is affected, and transformed by the occurrences around it. This situation also has an influence on what constitutes knowledge (Frank & Gabler, 2006). It is thus deemed of great importance that the higher education
system organized by a society becomes responsive and relevant to the new needs of the society (Beck & Young, 2005; Castells, 2001), and ensures integration and adaptation of the changes taking place around it. Thus, curriculum change is based on the rationale that there exists a disparity between the requirements of the society and the education system. When the existing educational methods, content and structures fail to respond to the new visions of the society, a change in curriculum is regarded as indispensable.

In the last decade, these changes have increasingly been influenced by globalization in terms of economic, technological as well as social and environmental dimensions. Local boundaries have become vague and educational boundaries have been pushed aside (Hargreaves, 1989). The world has become a global village and the industrialized countries at the centre of progress as well as those in the periphery, all are affected by this change (Al'Abri, 2011). With this increasing awareness with interdependence among cultures, economies, and technologies, there is a dire need for societies to transform their education systems in order to be in step with the rest of the world (Muller, 2000). Thus, there is a significant pressure on the educational institutions to transform their curricula in accordance with the needs of the age.

In the UNESCO Dakar framework 2000, improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring ‘excellence of all’ (UNESCO, 2000, p. 51) was included as one of the goals for the member nations in the 21st century. It was also stated that education should be relevant to the needs and demands of the century. In this situation, all fields of knowledge are affected, as is the teaching of English language, specifically in the non-English speaking countries. Since English is one of the most important global languages, it has received tremendous attention, and as a result, reforms were introduced in English language education to further excellence and to make English language education on a par with international levels (Yim, 2003).

In this era of globalization, the problems of educational quality and relevance manifest themselves in different ways in different countries, but in general, there is increasing agreement that such problems are best addressed by changes in the curriculum and its delivery rather than by a simple increase in public investments/expenditures on education (Nanzhao, 2006). Moreover, on-
going changes require that at all levels, including the higher education level (the focus of this research study); the curriculum is continuously revised and updated (ibid). The main aim of any change in this regard is to improve learning (Bondi, & Wiles, 1998). With the changes in the educational structure as a whole, English language education is also faced with change and innovation, and issues related to its implementation, especially in the non-native English speaking countries. The developing countries including those in Asia have brought about a number of curriculum changes at different levels and of various degrees. China implemented a new curriculum at all levels in 2003/04. Japan’s new curriculum, introduced in 1998, was implemented in 2002. In Pakistan also the English language curriculum went through large-scale change at all levels including the undergraduate level of university education in 2010, after more than three decades. This change has had significant effects on the educational system of the country.

3.4.1. Phases of Educational change

Curriculum change, being a multifaceted process, involves a number of phases. Huberman and Miles (1984), Waugh & Godfrey (1995), and Fullan (1999, 2001a, 2007), argue for three broad phases of change and identify these as, phase one (initiation, mobilisation, or adoption); phase two (implementation or initial use); and phase three (continuation, incorporation, routinisation, or institutionalization).

My study focuses on phase two i.e. the implementation stage of the curriculum change, as it is at this stage that the curriculum policy underpinning the new curriculum comes into actual contact with the English language teachers. How this interaction works is the focus of my study. Thus, I will critically review only the literature about this phase of curriculum change.

The importance of a successful implementation phase of change can never be over emphasized. In a way, it is at the implementation stage that the issues of human resistance and understanding of the policy rationale are often most problematic. Verspoor (1989, p.8) argues that, ‘implementation success was the prerequisite of institutionalization’. Therefore, it is important to note that without successful implementation, institutionalization of change within an
educational setting will tend to be difficult if not impossible. Fullan contends that:

*Implementation focuses on what happens in the practice. It is concerned with the nature and the extent of actual use, as well as factors and processes that influence how and what changes are achieved. More broadly, the implementation perspective captures both the content and the process of contending with the new ideas, programmes, activities, structures, policies, etc. new to the people involved* (1992,p.21).

Consequently, it is at the implementation stage, when the nature of change, and the process by which people accommodate themselves to change, or modify it to suit their existing practices is most visible. Implementation is often regarded as a separate phase because it is beyond documented and verbal declarations; it concerns the actual application of innovation in which people are involved. The literature (Fullan, 2007; Verspoor, 1989) reveals that in studies of educational change leading to reform and innovation, the implementation process is considered of immense significance.

**3.4.2. Change Implementation strategies**

Educational change planning is not an end-process. As already discussed above, a very important question when carrying out a change is how to implement it, i.e. how to put it into operation in the classrooms. It is agreed that particular strategies are required for the implementation of any change or innovation (Fullan, 2001; Nicholls, 1983). Chin & Benne (1976) have identified three main strategies to implement change and innovation in a curriculum.

One of the most common strategies is the power-coercive strategy, or ‘top down’ approach, which involves imposing change through laws and legislation to compel people to implement change and to act in certain required ways. In this top down strategy, power and authority rests with a small number of planners and decision makers. They ‘derive the right to exercise authority based on hierarchical positions they occupy in a bureaucratically organized institution’ (Markee, 1997, p.63). The top down approach ignores the teachers who are the real grass root implementers of any innovation or change. Teachers may not understand the nature of this change, and may not be able to implement it appropriately, simply because of lack of knowledge, skills, and
motivation: an effect of the fact that they had no role in the planning of the change process (Spillane et al., 2002).

The second strategy for implementing change is an empirical-rational approach that relies on the logic that people being rational, will adopt the change if it is proved to them that it is profitable for all that it affects. The supporters of this strategy consider that if the change is presented logically as sound and beneficial, it will be adopted and will hence be successful. Markee (1997), however, argues against this strategy, stating that the weakness of this approach is that it assumes that rational arguments are enough to gain the teachers' support and acceptance for the change. In reality, the success or failure of a reform is based on a large number of factors such as sociocultural constraints, systemic and personal factors, the nature of the innovations, and so on. Zembylas & Barker (2007: 239) also assert that such strategies ‘overemphasize the rational and consequently do not take into account the complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty acknowledged to be part of change in schools’. In both the above-mentioned approaches the teachers' role is only to implement exactly what is handed down to them. The teachers might fail to implement it correctly because ‘they often do not feel personal commitment to change’ (Schwartz, 2002, p.126).

The third curriculum implementation strategy is normative and re-educative strategy. This is a bottom up approach and thus is different from the two strategies discussed above. The strategy recognizes the importance of the end users of change i.e. those who have to actually implement it. It believes that people’s actions are in accordance with the values and norms of a particular society or culture, and that the acceptance of change demands a re-thinking of deep-rooted beliefs and behaviours (Richardson & Placier 2001), which leads to its own complications. According to this approach, teachers play a vital role as initiators of, as well as collaborators in, the change (Markee, 1997; Schwartz, 2002). Unlike the two top down approaches, the implementation of this strategy requires ‘a collaborative, problem solving approach, with all those affected by the change involved in some way and making their own decisions about the degree and manner of change they wish to accept’ (Kennedy, 1987, p.164).
‘Top down’ strategies are thus considered ineffective for the successful implementation of curriculum change (Billett, 1996). Teachers should not be expected to implement change consistently merely through bureaucratic orders, nor by considering the rational arguments. In order to make the change effective, teachers should be given support in understanding the innovations required, thus to adapt it, develop their skills, and to be motivated to own it, and be committed to its success. In this regard, Waters and Vilch (2001) present the framework of needs analysis. If the needs of the teachers and learners are analysed properly, this can lead to an in depth understanding of the ground realities, and consequently can facilitate the successful implementation of a suitable reform. This framework has four levels of needs, namely: familiarization, socialization, application, and integration.

I. **Familiarization** means that the well-informed innovators explain the need, the background to, the justification for, and the possible instructions and guidelines of the innovation to the teachers as well as to their supervisors.

II. **Socialization** involves giving opportunity to the stakeholders - namely teachers (and, if possible, students), heads of departments, supervisors, and trainers - to give feedback about how the curriculum change may fit in with or challenge the existing beliefs and assumptions of those who will use and oversee the curriculum.

III. The application level in the curriculum change process entails support and guidance for the end users. This might involve a teacher-training program in which teachers are closely supervised and guided in their attempts to implement the principles and materials of the curriculum in the classrooms.

IV. The integration level requires a broadening of the scope of the change, so that the end users own it. This can be done by connecting the teachers’ efforts to get the best out of the change to their institutional agendas, and to their own professional development programs.

TESOL curriculum change often demands significant cultural shifts, as well as changes in the belief systems of the stakeholders. Therefore, Wedell (2003) calls upon the planners of change to appreciate the extent of cultural and professional adjustments the teachers will have to make, and to provide
support for teachers in order to make some significant adjustments required by the TESOL curriculum change process.

The above discussion indicates that the success of any change depends on appropriate implementation approaches, which in turn will further successful implementation. Successful implementation is based on an equal focus on the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of the desired educational change. One of the causes of the failure of curriculum reform is the complete concentration on the ‘what’ and neglect of the ‘how’ of this change. There is ample research that points out that in many cases, well-designed curricula with laudable aims, fail to achieve their objectives due to ineffective implementation (Fullan, 1991; Higgins, 2004; O’Sullivan, 2002). The focus is almost exclusively placed on the policy formulation i.e. the initiation and the policy stage, while the implementation phase is often hurried in order to arrive at the routinization phase as quickly as possible (Rogan & Aldous, 2005). Porter (1980), referring to curriculum changes in Australia and the United States, says that ‘the people concerned with creating policy and enacting the relevant legislation seldom look down the track to the implementation stage’ (p.75).

3.4.3. Factors influencing curriculum change implementation

Research has identified a number of factors, which are considered crucial to the implementation of curriculum change (Owston, 2007; Fullan, 2001; Doukas, 1995). Some of the factors, which are central to the implementation process, are contextual factors, that is, the nature of change and innovation, institutional factors, learner factors, and teacher factors. In this study teacher factors will be discussed in detail, while the other factors will be examined briefly.

The Social and cultural context is an important factor that affects the implementation of curriculum change. The context includes the social, cultural, and educational values and policies of a society. Societies differ from each other with different educational and cultural philosophies. Coleman (1996) commenting on this difference in higher education institutions in different parts of the world states ….every society has its own meanings for higher education (p.2). The belief that one system would automatically fit and will be accepted by all is a misleading notion. Stressing the importance of the role of the context, Locastro, (2001, p.495) argues that ‘classrooms are social constructions where
Research has indicated that change and innovation are at the risk of being rejected if they challenge the school or class culture. Holliday (1992) uses the metaphor of organ transplant to emphasize the success or failure of a new project. He gives the notion of tissue rejection in his influential article. The systems are seen as organic and coherent and any alien element, which does not fit in with the ecology of the situation, might be rejected. This rejection might be visible straight away or might appear slowly over time. Similar situations have been indicated by Bolitho (2005), and Wedell (2012). These circumstances occur because firstly, the existing system even if considered deficient in its working from the external objective perspective, might not appear to be lacking in anything to those involved in it. (Zikri, 2012). It might rather be considered stable and well grounded, meeting the needs of the diverse people involved in it.

Secondly in a well-established system the change will only be effective ‘if it acknowledges the important elements of the existing system and culture and negotiates a way forward on this basis’ (Tribble, 2012, p.79), that is, if it fits into the existing contextual realities. Widin (2010) furthers Holliday’s idea of tissue rejection. The main causes of resistance and the limited impact of change are the problems of cultural and contextual appropriateness and ecological validity, i.e. what seems plausible and relevant will be taken up by the teachers, and what is not, will be rejected (Prabhu, 1990).

However, a new concept might indirectly emerge due to the actions taken by the teachers and the students to overcome certain circumstantial limitations and constraints. Kuchah’s experience in Africa reported in Kuchah & Smith (2011), indicates how learner autonomy was achieved not through the externally imposed curriculum, rather through the bottom up approach, where, in order to deal with the difficult circumstances such as large classes and absence of resources like books and space, the teacher negotiated with the students and included them in the decision making. The result was that autonomy emerged naturally.
This also indicates the importance of teachers in the success of any change or reform. Teachers manage change in their own contexts. They select, reject, shape, and reformulate the planned curriculum in order to fit it into their contextual set up. This points to the need of long-term planning, analysis and understanding of the context- human, cultural and socio-historical settings where the change or innovation has to be introduced.

The implementation of change is also affected by factors related to the nature of change itself. The nature of change can be considered in terms of its originality, complexity, clarity and its triability (Fullan, 2001). Originality implies that the change is new and different from the existing practices. This can lead to a number of problems pertaining to the mismatch between the change and the beliefs and practices of the teachers (Orafi, 2013). Complexity means the difficulty and the degree of change required from the implementers. Clarity stands for the extent of clear explanation to assist understanding, so that the teachers can implement the change correctly (Fullan, 2001). Triability means whether a change can be tried and tested on a small scale, or a large scale. It is considered useful to carry out a pilot implementation before applying it on a large scale as this can give some idea about the obstacles involved in the implementation. An institution is a miniature of the real world outside it, with its own culture created by the interactions among its members. Morris cited in Richard, 2001 (p.97) stated ‘schools are organizations and they develop a culture…thus, every institution has its own different culture’.

The success of curriculum change also depends on the institution, which will use the curriculum. Leadership of the institution plays a crucial role in this respect. According to UNESCO (2004) good management and support to teachers is of utmost importance. The administrative support available within an institution and the communicational understanding between the teachers and the administration can create an atmosphere of motivation and productivity. Inefficient leadership and management is one of the biggest barriers in the success of any reform. It also affects the efficiency of the teachers and thus negatively influences the quality of execution (Abagi, 1999). The availability and quality of resources also have significant impact on the process of change. Johnson et al (2000) in their research found that Egyptian
teachers could not implement innovations successfully due to the lack of resources.

Learners are the most important factor in the implementation of curriculum change. Any curriculum change or innovation is planned and implemented for them. Their achievements are the indicators of the success or failure of a curriculum. When implementing change, significance is to be given to the learners' past language learning experiences, their motivation to learn English, and their beliefs about the classroom norms and learning behaviours (Shamim 1996).

3.4.4. Teachers and curriculum change implementation

In order to make a curriculum change successful, it is very important to keep the stakeholders in mind. Some of the critical individuals in this group are teachers, teacher organizations, school administrators, school boards, parents, civic, business, political leaders, and tax payers in general (Schlechty, & Bob, 1991). One of the most crucial elements of curriculum change implementation is the teacher. Teachers' beliefs about language teaching and about change, their participation, and involvement in this change are of great importance. This is because teachers transform the curriculum specified as policy and implement it practically in the classrooms. The gap between policy and implementation will remain wide unless adequate and suitable attention is given to teachers (Dembele and Lefoka, 2007).

Implementation means putting an innovation into action, that is, the practical execution of new policies. Teachers as implementers of change have different ways of viewing teaching and learning practices, the components of curriculum and learning materials, and issues such as the timing and the level of importance given to a particular element of change. Innovation might therefore require a change in teachers' deep-rooted beliefs and classroom behavior (Adey & Hewitt, 2004). TESOL curriculum change often demands significant cultural shifts as well as changes in the belief systems of the stakeholders, such as the shift from teacher centred traditional teaching to student centred communicative teaching. Therefore, Wedell (2003) calls upon the planners of curriculum change to appreciate the extent of the cultural and professional
adjustments that teachers will have to make, and to provide support for them in order to encompass the significant adjustments that might be required.

Fullan (2001, 2007) argues that there are three elements essential to educational change, namely materials, approaches, and beliefs. These are essential because together they represent a means of achieving an educational goal or set of goals. As already discussed in the above paragraph, teachers have their own belief systems and ways of perceiving and practicing teaching and learning. In the event of curriculum change, a teacher may implement one or two aspects of change and disregard the others. For example, teachers may use new language teaching materials without altering the teaching methodology, or may use the new materials and change some methods without altering their beliefs. According to Fullan the importance of the above mentioned dimensions can never be overemphasised as ‘change in the three dimensions in materials, teaching approaches, and beliefs, in what people do and think are essential if the intended outcome is to be achieved’ (Fullan, 2001, p.46). He further contends, ‘Innovations that do not include changes in these dimensions are probably not significant changes at all’ (ibid, p.40). Considering and, if required, changing the beliefs of the teachers and developing their understanding, appear to be the key elements for achieving and sustaining reform. Without these fundamental transformations, change may at best be superficial, and at worst, nothing more than the adoption of the jargon without the benefit of the important underlying principles and approaches.

3.4.5. Prerequisites of an effective change implementation

Change, while an organizational process is also a personal one (Fullan, 2001, 2007). For change to be effective during implementation, an individual must first have clarity about what the change process is, internalize what the change means to him/her on a personal basis, and then adapt to the change via new behavioral activities, manifesting new skill-sets and roles. Fullan (2001a) highlights change implementation as the most complicated stage in the whole process and states that without basic understandings, people are unable to apply innovation. He concludes that the complexity of change demands enormous effort from each change participant in learning new approaches that will include the risk of failure.
Thus the complex nature of change is revealed in concerns expressed and behaviors exhibited by individuals involved in the change process. The process of curriculum change encompasses human nature and human behavior; therefore, an assessment of the outcome may need to include unexpected results (MacGilchrist et al., 2004). In this situation, it is difficult for the policy makers to exactly calculate; much less control the outcomes of the planned change and innovation. Discussing the unpredictability of change further, MacGilchrist et al. (2004), assert that change and the change process itself include variables that are simply not controllable, particularly a person’s attitude, belief system and behavioral responses. They also state that:

‘the prospect of change can mean different things to different people and, of course, people may react differently depending on the nature of change being proposed ... real change – real improvement ... is more than likely to be associated with some pain and some conflicts, especially if it is challenging a person’s fundamental beliefs and attitude’ (p. 40).

Accordingly, the main requirement for educational change is not simply planning, designing, authorizing, and hoping that change will be successful. At its core, change involves people who are at the center (Hall & Hord, 2001; Fullan, 2001): they develop, they implement, they review, and they act and react. Without considering the impact of change on people, and how important they are to the cause, effect and outcomes, policy-makers and planners are simply overlooking the principal agents involved, to the greater or lesser damage of what is intended. Havelock & Huberman (1978) note that educational institutions are uniquely situated in that they are human focused, and not like other institutions that may be largely dominated by individuals using technology, machinery, construction or object manipulation. Moreover, they believe that the possibility of success and sustainability of the change process becomes stronger if the policy makers initially set targets and plans that take into consideration the human factor of the change process. This means that change in education is a complex system in which all parties depend upon and relate to each other.

The idea here is that the change process is a complex phenomenon, and a successful and effective change should, therefore, not just concentrate on changing ‘things’, but rather should take into consideration the sensitivities of
the individual stakeholders, and should focus on shaping the expectations of those involved, depending upon the intended outcomes. I believe that teachers are the real implementers of educational reforms. They are the ones who take the abstract of reform, and convert it into the concrete of teaching and learning in the actual classroom. Researchers like Fullan (2001a), Joyce et al. (1999), and Hargreaves (1989) support this approach. They broadly conclude that teachers individually and collectively are the key stakeholders in educational reform; they provide and channel the change through their individual and collective efforts at the classroom level.

Therefore, my argument is that change is an intricate process and involves key human elements. Perhaps the primary concern among many others is, that how teachers deal with the unknown, unexplored situations and circumstances, and how they adapt to the demanding new conditions. Teachers may no longer have the luxury of remaining in stasis, but be faced with change dynamics, which make them uncomfortable and uneasy. As a result, according to Havelock and Huberman (1978), people respond to perceived threats by clinging to their existing roles ‘until new roles become dominant or some accommodation is made’ (p.156).

Hall and Hord (2001) share the stance taken by Havelock and Huberman (1978) with regard to the change process. They recognize and confirm the view that educational change is an extremely complex process whose success requires sufficient time for individuals to gather information, analyze this information, gain knowledge, absorb this knowledge, and finally to embark upon the challenging process of behavioral change. They also recognize that there are no guarantees that the teachers or school administrators involved in the change process will effectively implement the intended changes.

A classroom is the repository and channel for change and this can be easily confirmed through classroom observation. Because of the uniqueness of the individual teacher’s classroom setting relative to the change process, there will be variations in the conception and the interpretation of change and innovation in each classroom. Because teaching is an isolated event, i.e. generally one teacher/one classroom, the elements of intended change may well be perceived, interpreted and implemented differently in different classrooms (Hall
& Hord, 2001). In effect, this means that individual teachers in their own classrooms, and collectively as practitioners responsible for implementing change, can influence the implementation because of their belief systems, and the way they act and react during teaching and learning and in other settings. Thus as teachers interpret change, and transform change into concrete practices, their actions will influence the outcome of teaching and learning, and how well the learners achieve (Hargreaves, 1989; Hopkins & Reynolds, 2001).

Since my standpoint is that teachers are at the very heart of implementing and managing change and reform, I am particularly interested in research literature that reflects this dimension of change, in which the teachers are the implementers. This leads us to think about their beliefs and perceptions about teaching and learning and about change and innovation. Fullan (2001, p.115) states that: ‘educational change depends on what teachers do and think – it is as simple and as complex’. Similarly Hall and Hord (2001) emphasise the importance of individual teachers in the change process and argue that successful change depends on how much the teachers believe in it and to what extent they implement it practically into the classroom. Hall and Hord (2001, p.7) state that ‘although everyone wants to talk about such broad concepts as policy, systems, and organisational factors, successful change starts and ends at the individual level’. A major conclusion to be drawn from this review of change and its implementation is that teachers’ beliefs play an important role in the implementation of any educational change. Thus, I believe that the concept of teachers’ beliefs needs to be discussed at length. The focus of my research is on change in the English language curriculum in Pakistan and on teachers’ perceptions of change. Perceptions depend largely on beliefs; hence, the concept of beliefs will be discussed in detail in the next section.

3.5. Teachers’ Beliefs

The term ‘beliefs’ has been variously defined; for example Richardson (1996, p.103) defines beliefs as ‘psychologically held understandings, premises or propositions about the world that are felt to be true’. Azarola (2011) defines beliefs as ‘transpection or thinking through in the activity of understanding the world and oneself’ (362). For Harvey (1986) beliefs are the conceptual representations of human action. They are a guide to human ‘practices in ways that are significant because of who they are, where they are, and what they
want to do in a specific situation’ (Azarola, 2011, p.362). In the field of English language teaching, teachers’ beliefs are an important concept in understanding the thoughts and perceptions of the teachers about their work and their responsibilities, their subject matter, their students and their roles (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). Therefore, over the past two decades, second language (L2) research has increasingly focused on teacher cognition, particularly the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and their pedagogical practices (Phipps & Borg, 2009; Borg, S. 2006, 2003; Borg, M. 2001; Fang, 1996; Calderhead, 1995; Johnson, 1992; Pajares, 1992).

The concept of beliefs has been used interchangeably with a number of other concepts including perceptions, conceptions, judgements, opinions, strategies, dispositions, internal mental processes etc. (Pajares, 1992). However, there has not been much consensus on the actual conceptualization of teachers’ beliefs (Borg, 2003). The most complex problem in the research on teachers’ beliefs is the distinction between beliefs and knowledge. Though some researchers have tried to distinguish beliefs from knowledge, such as Abelson (1979), Nespor (1987), and Ernest (1989), it has been quite difficult to determine a clear difference between the two concepts. According to Yook (2010) it is problematic to draw a well-defined line between beliefs and knowledge, in other words to declare where beliefs end and knowledge begins and vice versa (Richardson, 1996; Pajares 1992; Nesper, 1987; Calderhead, 1996; Shulman, 1989; Verloop et al, 2001; Allen, 2002; Borg, M., 2001; Borg, S., 2003). The concepts have consequently been found to be ‘inextricably intertwined’ (Pajares, 1992: p.325). Freeman & Graves (2004) considered beliefs as subject matter representation. According to them, beliefs include teachers’ assumptions about all the elements that epitomize a subject, i.e. knowledge of a particular discipline, their knowledge of learners and learning, and their knowledge of the contexts (p.89).

Borg, (2003) has also defined teachers’ beliefs as an aspect of teachers’ cognition. It is ‘the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think’ (p.81). Allen (2002) who also adopted this concept of ‘cognition’ described it as including beliefs, knowledge, and attitudes that teachers hold in all aspects of their teaching. It is also expected that teachers’ practices are sometimes consistent with their beliefs about teaching and learning (Jones & Fong, 2007; Attardo& Brown, 2005).
However, teacher beliefs ‘tend to be organized in terms of large belief systems…..The belief systems may contain inconsistencies and may be quite idiosyncratic’. (Calderhead (1995, p.719). Over the last three decades, the concept of teachers’ beliefs has been defined in numerous ways by several researchers such as Borg, M (2001), Borg, S (1999, 2003, & 2006), Johnson (1994), Pajares (1992), Basturkmen, et.al. (2004) and Calderhead (1995). These researchers have enumerated a number of features, which characterize teachers’ beliefs. A synthesis of the basic features of teachers’ beliefs can be considered as follows:

a) Teachers beliefs are affective and evaluative (Nespor, 1987)

b) Teachers’ beliefs function as filters through which new information is comprehended and interpreted (Pajares, 1992)

c) Teachers’ beliefs are personal truths about which the teachers maybe conscious or unconscious

d) Beliefs define goals and organize knowledge relevant to those goals

e) Guide teachers' behaviour and performance inside the classroom; and

f) It is not an easy task to change teachers’ beliefs (Borg, 2001).

As the focus of this study is on teachers’ beliefs about, and perceptions of, the change and innovation in the English language curriculum in Pakistan, it is particularly important that a working definition of teachers’ beliefs highlights the possible relationship between teachers' beliefs and educational change and reforms. Thus the definition of beliefs selected for the present study is:

A ‘belief is a proposition which maybe consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour’ (Borg, 2001, p.186).

Moreover, by drawing on definitions of beliefs in literature (Basturkmen, et.al. 2004; Borg, M., 2001; Borg, S., 2003; Pajares, 1992), teachers’ beliefs can also be more elaborately defined as teachers’ thoughts about what should be done with teaching, and include both core and peripheral beliefs. There is a distinction between core and peripheral beliefs. Core beliefs, being ‘experientially ingrained’ (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p.388), ‘are stable and exert a
more powerful influence on behaviour than peripheral beliefs’ (p.381), whereas peripheral beliefs, being ‘theoretically embraced’ (p.388), may not be reflected in pedagogical practices due to the influence of contextual factors (Niu & Andrews, 2012). Phipps and Borg (2009), for example, in their study found that the participant teachers believed theoretically in the value of group work for students, but their practical knowledge told them that teacher-class interactions were easier to manage and could benefit students more, so they used teacher-class interactions instead of group work in grammar teaching. Therefore, their theoretical belief about the value of group work constitutes peripheral beliefs whereas their practical knowledge about teacher-class interactions formulates core beliefs.

Despite the fact that research has called the concept of beliefs a ‘messy construct’ (Pajares, 1992), because of its multifaceted nature, it is believed that all teachers hold conscious or unconscious beliefs. They hold beliefs about the nature of knowledge, teaching and learning, about their students, their subject matter and their roles and responsibilities, as well as perceptions of self, feelings of self-worth, and the confidence to perform certain tasks (Kuzborska, 2011; Borg, S., 2003, 2006).

### 3.5.1. Perceptions as a construct of beliefs

As this study explores teachers’ perceptions about curriculum change along with the teachers’ beliefs, it is essential to define perceptions. Perceptions are the constructions and the interpretations of the world that an individual develops depending on the context (Alwan, 2006). Gerrig & Zimbardo, (2002) define perceptions as the processes that organise information in the sensory image and interpret it as having been produced by properties of objects or events in the external, three-dimensional world. According to Lincoln & Guba (1985, p.83) “a perception...is a partial, incomplete view of something that is nevertheless real, and capable of different interpretation when seen from different viewpoints. It is partial and incomplete only because each perception yields experience of only a limited number of parts of the whole”. Theoretically it means that teachers’ perceptions are one side of looking at a problem. There are others involved in the situations being examined, and they might hold other perceptions. Perceptions in this sense are not static and are subject to change due to contextual factors (Alwan, 2006).
Moreover, the term ‘perception’ is also used as a construct of ‘belief’. Beliefs are a complex and multifaceted concept (Rokeach 1968 in Pajares, 1992). Pajares (1992:318) explains: “Beliefs differ in intensity and power; beliefs vary along a central-peripheral dimension; and the more central a belief, the more it will resist change”. This implies the core beliefs that are central, and peripheral ones at the surface that are prone to change (see 3.5). Considering the above definition of perceptions by Lincoln and Guba, it could be indicated that peripheral beliefs might be perceptions, which are constructions of reality. Pajares considers perceptions as a construct of beliefs and states that ‘beliefs influence perceptions that influence behaviours that are consistent with, and that reinforce, the original beliefs’ (1992, p.317). Thus there is a hierarchical relationship between both the concepts. Perceptions are a subset of beliefs, and together they influence decision-making and inform practice in any context including teaching and learning.

Teachers’ perceptions might influence their pedagogical decisions and practices. Borg (1999, 2001, 2005) found that teachers who perceived lack of confidence in their subject matter, that is grammar, gave less importance to grammar teaching in class. Conversely, teachers who expressed confidence in this encouraged even class discussions about grammar rules. Thus Sanchez (2014: 221) affirms that there is no doubt that the way teachers perceive their understanding of the subject matter highly influences the pedagogical decisions they take in the classroom’.

Moreover, Sanchez & Borg (2015) investigated teachers’ perceptions and practices about grammar teaching and found that, teachers’ perceptions about the context in which they work such as the learner needs and expectations influenced their selection of grammar work to be taught in class.

Furthermore, the way teachers perceive curriculum change leads to negative or positive effects of curriculum change on teaching and learning. Many teachers might be confused and lack understanding about the change. This influences the degree to which they choose to accept or reject change (Wallace and Fleit, 2005, p.192). Jackson (1992) indicates that teachers’ lack of clarity about the curriculum change, as well as the unavailability of the required resources might lead to lack of motivation and teacher resistance to change and innovation.
This brings up the question if training changes teachers’ beliefs and perception and consequently their practices. It is believed that training and education does affect the beliefs and the perceptions of the teachers (Korthagen & Lagerwerf, 1996). The researchers use the term ‘evolution’ of teachers’ thinking (Freeman, 2002), with the implication that new beliefs can be acquired. Similarly, it is also asserted that training can alter beliefs, which are related to pedagogy on the condition that they are consciously challenged (Tillema & Knol, 1997; Von Wright, 1997).

In contrast, research also shows that new information is filtered through old beliefs (Pajares, 1992). Therefore, in spite of teacher education and teacher training, teacher beliefs and perceptions are unlikely to change (Johnson, 1999) since old beliefs are hard to get rid of (Pajares, 1992).

Sanchez & Borg (2015) however, believe that developing teachers' reflective practices might enhance teachers' pedagogical knowledge and by reflection they can achieve awareness of themselves and of their beliefs and perceptions, which could lead to a sustainable form of professional development.

I believe that education does change teachers’ beliefs and perceptions. However, if the new behaviour is impeded by the contextual circumstances, even with the most positive beliefs teachers might be forced to revert to old ways of teaching. Therefore, it is argued that to bring about a change in beliefs, perceptions and consequently practices, the culture of the school must change first (Fullan, 2001; Karavas-Doukas, 1998).

### 3.5.2. Sources of teachers' beliefs

A discussion of beliefs also needs to include the sources from which teachers’ beliefs originate. According to Richardson (1996), there are three possible sources for teachers’ beliefs: these are personal experience, experience in schooling and formal knowledge, and enculturation.

Teachers’ experience as students is a potential source of their beliefs. They are influenced by their own teachers’ beliefs, called the ‘apprenticeship of observation.’ (Lortie, 1975: cited in Freeman and Richards, 1996, p.11) and try to replicate the behavior of their own teachers because of the exposure to these beliefs, values and behaviors as students. Therefore, when they become
teachers, they tend to imitate the experience of their own teachers. A related source of teachers’ beliefs might be ‘the experience with schooling and instruction’ (Richardson 1996, p.105). The experiences they lived at school as learners may influence the way they conceive of teaching and learning, their perceptions of learners and of themselves, as well as their role as practicing teachers.

One further source of teachers’ beliefs discussed in the literature is ‘the experience with formal knowledge’. By this, the understanding that has been agreed on within a community of scholars is seen as worthwhile and valid. This formal knowledge is closely related to the practice of teaching, and includes ‘classroom management, models of teaching, and classroom environment’ (Richardson, 1996, p.106) that teachers come across during their teacher education. Closely related to this source is the concept of enculturation, Pajares (1992) explains that

It involves the incidental learning process individuals undergo throughout their lives assimilating the cultural elements present in their personal world....Education is directed and purposeful learning; either formal or informal that has its main task at bringing behavior in line with cultural requirements........(and) schooling is the specific process of teaching and learning that takes place outside the home (p.316).

The ideas show educational culture as one of the main sources of beliefs. According to Pajares ‘those beliefs are incorporated into a belief structure and this strongly influences the processing of new information’ (p. 317).

In the field of TESOL, there is a plethora of research on teachers’ beliefs in the literature of teaching and teacher education worldwide. The focus is on empirical studies about ESL/EFL teachers’ pedagogical beliefs. According to Allen (2002), there are three reasons for the necessity of research on teachers’ beliefs:

‘First, examining the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and classroom actions can inform educational practices. Second, if teacher education is to have an impact on how prospective teachers will teach, it must engage participants in examining their beliefs. Third, attempts to implement new classroom practices without considering teachers’ beliefs can lead to disappointing results’ (p. 519).
Johnson’s (1994) study also indicates that research on teachers’ beliefs has focused on their relationship to teaching practice, teacher education, and perceptions of educational reforms. The present study is focused on teachers’ beliefs about and perceptions of curriculum change, and the implementation of a new curriculum in the classrooms. Therefore, drawing on the assumptions and reasons suggested by Allen (2002) and Johnson (1994), the review in this part of the chapter is organized around two main topics: teachers’ beliefs and teaching practices, and teachers’ beliefs and educational reforms.

3.5.3. Teachers’ beliefs and classroom practice

Research has indicated that studying teachers’ beliefs contributes to a more realistic and comprehensive understanding of teaching. Several studies have revealed a strong relationship between teachers’ beliefs and their decision-making and teaching practices (Attardo & Brown, 2005; Johnson, 1992, 1994; Jones & Fong, 2007; Poynor, 2005; Richardson, 1996; Borg, 2003 & 2011). Teachers choose what they teach based on what they believe is most important for their students, and choose their teaching techniques accordingly (Williams & Burden 2000). Johnson (1992) investigated teachers’ beliefs about L2 teaching and learning. The majority of the teachers were found to hold clearly defined beliefs about teaching approaches. Classroom observations of some of the teachers revealed that their practices were consistent with their beliefs. Thus, Johnson concluded, ‘[o]verall, the study supports the notion that ESL teachers teach in accordance with their theoretical beliefs’ (p.101). In a similar study, Smith (1996) examined the influence of teachers' beliefs on the classroom decisions and practices of nine experienced ESL teachers. The study revealed that teachers' beliefs had an essential influence on how they organized curricula and designed lesson tasks and instruction. Teachers who regarded grammar and accuracy to be a priority in instructional goals utilized a structural focus and developed lesson activities, which emphasized the grammatical structure. On the other hand, teachers with a functionally based view of language provided opportunities for students to interact in communicative and meaningful situations. Smith (1996, p.214) thus concluded, ‘teachers' decisions revealed an eclectic use of theory but an internal consistency between individual beliefs and practices’. Teachers’ beliefs and their influence on classroom teaching have also been investigated with regard
to specific curriculum areas, such as grammar, reading, writing and vocabulary instruction (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Borg, 1999, 2006; Burns 1992). These studies show that teachers’ beliefs generally affect their pedagogical practices.

However, the equation is not simple. The relationship between teachers’ beliefs and their practice is quite complex. Research has also indicated that sometimes there is a contradiction between teachers’ professed beliefs and their practice and behavior in the classroom. For example Van der Schaaf, et al (2008) found mixed results in their study of eighteen Dutch teachers. The beliefs reported in their portfolios did not completely match the evaluation by the students. Graden (1996) also showed such discrepancies in the beliefs and practice in his research based on the classroom observations and interviews of six French and Spanish teachers teaching reading. Similarly, in Hiep’s (2007) investigation into three teachers' beliefs and implementation of communicative language teaching in Vietnam, the results indicated that although these teachers professed beliefs, which were in line with the principles of the CLT, they were not able to implement activities such as pair work, group work, and role play. The inconsistency between teachers' expressed beliefs and their actual classroom practices was due to several contextual factors, such as traditional examinations, large class sizes, beliefs about students and teacher roles, students' low motivation, and teachers' limited expertise in creating communicative activities. Other researchers have also found similar reasons for the discrepancy between the stated beliefs and practices. Borg, (2003, 1999); Phipps (2010); Phipps & Borg (2007, 2009); and Hiep, (2007) all found curriculum mandates, examination system, classroom and school layout, with some other external constraints such as large classes, lack of resources, and teachers' lack of subject knowledge as hindrances in the teachers' ability to carry through their instructional beliefs.

Along with the above-mentioned causes, there are a number of other explanations for the inconsistency between teachers’ beliefs and actual practice. One of the reasons is the complexity of the concept and the nature of beliefs, which is as dense and complicated as human nature itself. Core beliefs, based on practical knowledge, are deep-seated and thus powerful in the teachers' cognition; these consequently influence classroom practices more than the peripheral beliefs, which are theoretical in nature. For instance, Phipps
& Borg (2009) found that the participants in their study believed, theoretically, in group work, but practically considered teacher/student interaction more beneficial. Therefore, the theoretical belief (i.e. peripheral belief) was not practised in the classroom while the core belief, which was thought to be more practical, was methodologically employed.

Moreover, other constraints might also hinder the practical implementation of teachers’ beliefs in the classroom. These include teachers’ own learning experience at school, for example if they have studied English in a teacher centered, textbook based, grammar-oriented atmosphere. Even if they profess affinity to communicative language teaching, this approach might not be seen in their classroom practice (Jones and Fong, 2007; Hiep, 2007).

To sum up, teacher beliefs and pedagogical practices have sometimes been found to be consistent (Johnson, 1992) but at other times inconsistent (Fang, 1996), and these consistencies and inconsistencies coexist (Basturkmen et al., 2004) in educational contexts, influencing both the shape a classroom takes and the whole process of learning and teaching.

3.5.4. Teachers’ beliefs and educational reforms

As discussed in the first part of this chapter the success of educational change and as discussed in the first part of this chapter reform has been closely related to teachers, as they practically execute the curriculum in the classrooms (Bybee, 1993; Nespor, 1987; Prawat, 1992; Pajares, 1992). Any decision taken by an individual is influenced by his/her beliefs. Allen (2002) argues that teachers’ beliefs influence ‘how new information is perceived and whether it is accepted or rejected’ (p.520). That is, teachers’ beliefs influence their perceptions of an educational reform. Hence, it has been recognized by the researchers that teachers’ beliefs play an integral role in educational reforms or curricular change. In this regard, Breen et. al (2001, p.472) state that ‘any innovation in classroom practice from the adoption of a new technique or textbook to the implementation of a new curriculum has to be accommodated within the teacher’s own framework of teaching principles’. These principles develop from underlying beliefs the teachers hold about the nature of the broader educational process.
A number of investigations have been conducted into the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their attitudes towards change and reform (Bailey, 1992). Konings et al (2007), for example, investigated 142 secondary school teachers’ perceptions of a curricular reform using a questionnaire. The reform was related to learner independence in the classroom, and demanded greater emphasis on learner autonomy. The teachers in general perceived the reform negatively, because their beliefs did not match with the intended reform. They believed in teacher-centered instruction as opposed to the learner-centered environment promoted by the curriculum change. The result was that importance was given to teacher centred reproductive learning, which was more consistent with teachers’ beliefs as compared to the productive learning recommended by the reform.

The conclusion drawn from this research was that as the teachers believed in teacher centred instruction they were ‘heavily resistant to change’ (p.995). Fox (1993) in a study on CLT found similar results, which indicated that teachers believed in the importance of grammatical competence as compared to the competencies proposed by CLT. Fox found that these beliefs influence the classroom teaching, are ingrained in teachers’ beliefs, and cannot easily be changed. Choi (2008) in an investigation into Korean teachers' beliefs found comparable results. The findings prompted the following suggestions: EFL teachers' beliefs should be taken into consideration while attempting to revise curriculum, and provision should be made to provide quality ELT teacher education programs with intent to develop internal motivation in the teachers to change. All the above investigations confirm that teachers' beliefs are key to the success or failure of any curricular reform or change (Guskey, 1995; Spillane & Callahan, 2000).

Thus, the above discussion indicates the teachers’ central position in curriculum change implementation. Abundant research in various international settings has indicated that reforms to the English language component of national curricula are seldom successful, if the teachers do not implement them in the classroom as they were intended by their developers (e.g., Goh, 1999 in Malaysia; Nunan, 2003, in Asian-Pacific; Orafi & Borg, 2009, in Libya; Phipps & Borg, 2009, in Turkey; Waters & Vilches, 2008, in the Philippines). Successful implementation would appear to depend less on policy directives and more on
the re-culturing of teachers and schools, and establishing the necessary workplace conditions to support reform (Fullan, 2007; Goh, et.al. 2005; Henrichsen, 1989; Jackson, 1992; Markee, 1997; Menken & Garcia, 2010). Fullan (2007) has clearly illustrated the tension between policy rhetoric and the ‘subjective reality’ (p.23) that teachers face in their day-to-day work, as they deal with numerous factors, which can hinder their implementation of the curriculum change mandates. Therefore, for a better grasp of the feasibility of reform, it is important to have an in depth understanding of the beliefs the teachers bring to the classroom.

While educational change or innovations are filtered through teachers’ belief frameworks (Tillema, 1994), more often than not innovations also require a change in teachers’ beliefs, practices and behaviors. Curriculum change at classroom level is multidimensional; this implies that, in order to implement changes correctly, teachers may need to readjust and sometimes change their beliefs to accommodate the principles of the change mandate. Unless this match is effected, the proposed change may be largely unsuccessful (Lee & Young, 1987). In this regard Adey & Hewitt (2004), state, ‘we are unlikely to bring about change in practice unless we face up to, and, if necessary, challenge teachers’ deep rooted beliefs about the nature of knowledge transmission’ (p.156).

However, changing teachers’ beliefs may not be an easy process. According to Fullan (2001, p.44):

Changes in beliefs are more difficult: they challenge the core values held by individuals regarding the purposes of education; moreover beliefs are often not explicit, discussed or understood, but rather are buried under the level of unstated assumptions.

It is therefore very important to explain clearly the conditions under which existing beliefs are challenged. Hashweh (2003, p. 426) identifies a number of conditions necessary for teachers to execute successfully any curricular changes that require them to readapt their traditional beliefs and practices. These conditions are:

1. Teachers must be internally motivated to develop professionally; to develop their ideas and practices. Usually they must see a gap between their ideas and goals, and their existing practices.
2. Teachers’ prior knowledge, beliefs, dispositions, expectations and practices should be critically examined.

3. The teacher must be aware of his or her tacit knowledge, beliefs and practices.

4. The teacher should realize the limitations of prior knowledge, beliefs and practices.

Hashweh contends that if these conditions are not met, teachers might continue struggling to resolve the predicament helplessly, or they might filter the new ideas in such a way as to allow themselves to sustain their prior beliefs and practices.

3.6. Implications for the study

The research reviewed in this chapter indicates that globalization has led to the increased importance of English as a foreign language (EFL) in many countries. This in turn has led to many attempts at curriculum change and reform in EFL education. This scenario of curricular changes has drawn considerable research interest, and much of the empirical research has focused on EFL teachers’ beliefs about language teaching and learning. Research has also given significant importance to teachers’ perceptions about curriculum changes and their impact on teaching practices, and consequently on the success of curricular reform. The findings of these studies indicated the difficulty of implementing reforms and that teachers’ negative perceptions were closely related to constraints on reform implementation. Research has also suggested that ESL/EFL teachers’ perceptions of the feasibility of a particular reform are central to the success of that reform. Teachers’ perceptions are heavily influenced by their (previously existing) beliefs. How they perceive a reform in English language education is closely related to what they believe about English language education. Hence, for a deeper and clearer understanding of the feasibility of reform in English language education, it is essential to have an in-depth understanding of teachers’ beliefs.

The literature discussed above has several implications for the study. As already pointed out in the introduction and the context chapters, the new English language curriculum at the undergraduate level in the public sector colleges in Pakistan represents a significant change in principles of language teaching and learning. This change raised a number of issues. Firstly, this
significant change required teachers to adopt and implement new teaching practices in a very short time. Secondly, the way the change was introduced also raised serious concerns, that is, it was enforced on the assumption that all teachers would see the advantages of the change and would implement it readily. Little attention was paid to the ground realities in the classrooms. Lastly, lack of attention was given to the role of teachers’ beliefs and perceptions, which could affect the success, or failure of curriculum change.

The present study is an attempt to explore the beliefs of the lecturers working in public sector HE colleges about English language learning and teaching in Pakistan. This is investigated in relation to their perceptions about the change in the English language curriculum in 2010. It also attempts to examine any issues faced by the teachers in the implementation of these reforms in relation to their beliefs. Moreover, the extent to which the teachers actually implement the change in their classrooms in relation to their beliefs and perceptions about the reforms is also investigated in the study. These matters will be explored by addressing four research questions:

3.7. Research questions
As a consequence of these readings, I was able to formulate the following four research questions, which guided my study:

1. What beliefs do the English language lecturers in the public sector colleges in the HE sector have about English language education in Pakistan?
2. What are these lecturers’ perceptions of the change in the English language curriculum at the HE level in Pakistan?
3. What are the lecturers’ perceptions about the issues around the implementation of this change?
4. How do lecturers’ classroom practices relate to their beliefs and perceptions about curriculum change and the issues in its implementation?

In the next chapter, I shall discuss in detail the methodology employed to investigate into the issues highlighted in this chapter.
CHAPTER IV:

METHODOLOGY
4.1. Introduction
This chapter gives a detailed description of the research methodology adopted for this study. First, I identify my philosophical standpoint, and give a justification for this choice. Next, I draw attention to the research questions, and then the approach adopted for the data collection is discussed in detail. Thenceforward an account of the participants, their selection, methods of data collection, and the procedures of data analysis are also provided. It also includes a discussion of the role of reflexivity in data collection and analysis and the strategies I adopted to enhance the quality of the study. The chapter concludes by mentioning some challenges that I faced, and the limitations of the study.

4.2. Researcher's theoretical framework
A description of the researcher’s theoretical framework is of crucial importance for a research study (Silverman, 2001). Firstly, it clarifies the researcher’s paradigmatic stance and philosophical viewpoint, and secondly, the methodology of a study is informed by the researcher’s theoretical stand. Hence it is defined as ‘the theoretical stance informing the methodology and thus providing a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria’ (Crotty, 2003. P.7).

The ontology of my study is mainly concerned with the human world of meaning and interpretations, which aims to explore individual interpretations of the curriculum change by the English language teachers. The epistemological stance is mainly constructivist in nature, and thus interpretivism is the theoretical perspective underpinning this study.

The purpose of the interpretive paradigm is to elucidate the way the understandings and interpretations of a phenomenon are formulated, implemented and given meaning in lived experiences (Radnor, 2002). Researchers who situate their work in this paradigm believe in multiple realities that are constructed and not discovered. Knowledge for interpretivists is a product that is created through a process of interactions among social actors; therefore, an intense and active engagement with the research participants is critical for the effectiveness of the interpretive inquiry (Troudi and Alwan, 2010).
At the epistemological level, researchers in this paradigm believe that the knower and the known are inseparable. Human world being fundamentally different from the physical world, people’s behaviour is not controlled or governed by general laws. Humans perceive experience and understand the world around them from their particular position; gender, age, social class, educational background, and ideology could influence their perceptions. It is our engagement with the world of experience that gives existence to meaning and truth (Crotty, 2003). The researcher and the participant negotiate through interaction and dialogue in order to create meaning and reality, which does not merely lie there to be revealed by the expert researcher. ‘Meaning is not discovered but constructed’ (ibid, p.7). Thus according to the interpretivists, reality is constructed. It is not something given to be exposed by the researcher. As different people interpret different meanings of a phenomenon, thus ‘there is no such thing as reality’ (Fraenkel & Wallen 2000, p.17). The outcome of research is thus considered as one of many possible truths. As an interpretivist researcher, I also constructed and interpreted meaning from the analysis of the data about different interpretations of beliefs, perspectives and practices of the research participants.

Since reality is seen as a socially constructed phenomenon (Pring, 2000), great importance is attached to the values and ideals in inquiry. It is believed that all individuals have their own constructions of meanings, which should be valued irrespective of their position in society. They believe that knowledge is structured within personal biases and values, and cannot be separated from context (Cohen et al., 2007; Bryman, 2004; Rossman & Rallis, 2003; Lincoln & Denizin, 1998;).

In a classroom the teachers and the students construct meaning and therefore the uniform causal links that can be established in the natural sciences cannot be made in the classrooms. Knowledge here is subjective and the researcher seeks to explore how individuals interpret experiences and occurrences around them (Alwan 2007). Accordingly the role of the scientist in this paradigm is to understand, explain and interpret social reality through the eyes of different participants.
Thus within this paradigm the constructivist perspective provides a lens through which to learn and understand about the nature of social reality and the role of the individual perspective (Troudi, 2010). Constructivists like Block (2007) and Norton (2010) consider that individuals have the ‘ability to make choices, to take control and self regulate’ (Duff, 2012, p. 413) in order to bring about social or personal transformation. People, according to them are constructive agents. They construct reality and build meanings through their judgements, decisions and actions, instead of being passive recipients of knowledge. The perceptions and actions of people are not dictated by the social structures.

However, at the same time constructivists like Holliday et.al (2004), though strongly believing in the human capacity to think and act independently, also state that we cannot dismiss the role of structures imposed by the social and cultural contexts. Human beliefs, perceptions and actions are not entirely determined by the social structures and constraints, but neither do they depend solely on individual preferences and choices. It is a process of shared knowledge and meaning making, of creating identities. The structures stand for the social institutions, which make up the context of action and human agency is an individual agent’s choices and action in that setting. In my study, within the context of externally imposed curriculum change and the social and institutional ideologies, I seek to explore the experiences and meaning making i.e. the roles, beliefs, perceptions and the practices of the individual agents – the English language lecturers working in the public sector colleges in Pakistan.

The issues of teachers' beliefs and perception about change and their practical implementation of change in classrooms are at the core of an educational reform process (Dembele & Lefoka, 2007; Fullan, 2001). It was thus considered necessary to explore this field, and to have an in-depth understanding of the beliefs and perceptions of the teachers about teaching and learning and about change, along with the contextual factors that might affect implementation. I used exploratory research methodology which I believe resulted in an in-depth understanding of a number of issues related to teachers' beliefs and practices, and can thus highlight the significant factors in successful implementation of change and reform.
Pring (2000) believes that “persons cannot be the objects of scientific enquiry though no doubt their biological functioning can be” (p.32). In order to get an insight into the individual’s beliefs, perceptions and feelings, the researcher needs to enter the world of the individuals, i.e. she/he has to become an insider to develop confidence among the participants. I was able to interact with them as an insider because I myself have experience and knowledge of the context, and have worked in the same sector for more than twelve years. Thus, I was able to gain their trust, and could explore the beliefs and thoughts of the participants in their specific circumstances, and was able to get the ‘insider’s perspective’ (Conrad, 1987).

4.3. Research questions

With the goal of exploring English language lecturers’ beliefs and perceptions about language teaching and curriculum change in the HE sector in Pakistan, and to investigate the issues and situations surrounding the change implementation, I designed my research questions on the basis of the values outlined by interpretivist paradigm, that is, to highlight the uniqueness of human experience. The interpretivist approach gives attention to the meaning-making pursuit of the individual mind (Crotty, 2003). This construct directed my investigation of the meanings and realities that were mutually constructed by the researcher and participants through the exploration of each participant lecturer’s lived experience of understanding and making sense of the curriculum change. Thus, this study aimed to interpret and understand the ways in which teachers in this context were responding to and experimenting with the new curriculum arrangements (Flores, 2005). The whole investigation along with being flexible and open in approach was also methodical and directive (Levine, 2002).

The following research questions guided my study:

1. What beliefs do the English language lecturers in the public sector colleges in the HE sector have about English language education in Pakistan?
2. What are these lecturers’ perceptions of the change in the English language curriculum at the HE level in Pakistan?
3. What are the lecturers’ perceptions about the issues around the implementation of this change?

4. How do lecturers’ classroom practices relate to their beliefs and perceptions about curriculum change and the issues in its implementation?

4.4. Research design

The choice of the research design is determined by the aim of the study and the type of questions it endeavors to answer (Yin, 2003). The aim of the present study is to investigate English language lecturers’ beliefs, perceptions, and their implementation of the change in the English language curriculum in public sector colleges in Pakistan. An exploratory research design was adopted for this purpose. In exploratory research, emphasis is on gaining in-depth ideas and insights in order to get a better understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. It can provide rich and meaningful information when little is known about the problem in the context. It ‘tends to tackle new problems on which little or no previous research has been done’ (Brown, 2006, p.43). This design was suitable for my study because there is a dearth of research on teachers’ beliefs and curriculum issues in Pakistan, and, in the HE sector specifically, I have not found any relevant published work to date.

The study does not intend to make any type of generalizations or conclusive predictions. The findings are intended to contribute towards raising awareness among the curriculum planners, as well as the curriculum change implementers about the issues involved in curriculum change. This awareness might prove beneficial, for not only curriculum planning and implementation in the future, but also for guiding, those involved in the present curriculum change, with the potential to lead to improvement in the implementation of this change as it is still in its initial stage. This exploratory study may also identify topics for further research in the field.

4.5. Qualitative research methodology

The selection of research methodology depends on the approach of the researcher and consequently the focus of the study. My research approach is interpretive, and thus I have used a qualitative research methodology to obtain in-depth information about the phenomenon. Qualitative research takes a
holistic viewpoint about the situation, and it aims to discover meanings from the participants’ perspectives and practices. In particular it seeks to answer questions about why people behave the way they do, and how beliefs and perceptions are formed (Hoepfl, 1997). For a qualitative researcher an understanding of the participant’s own frame of reference is of great importance (Baker, 2006; Richards; 2003). According to Duffy (1987), qualitative research is ‘a vehicle for studying the empirical world from the perspective of the subject, not the researcher’ (p. 130). This was appropriate for my study because I wished to discover meaning from the participants’ perceptions and practices.

The two data collection instruments thus employed for this study are interviews and classroom observations. Interviews aim to understand the themes of lived daily world from the subject’s own perspectives (Kvale, 1996, p.27). Classroom observations support the interviews as they provide a rich description of the situation under investigation (Cohen et al., 2007), and are concerned with the understanding of the context and practical representations of the participants’ perspectives within that setting (McDonough & McDonough, 1997).

4.6. Research setting and sample
The research took place in four public sector degree colleges (female and male) in Lahore, the second biggest and one of the most important cities in Pakistan, with a strong educational tradition. These colleges have been teaching the new curriculum since it was first implemented in September 2010. They are affiliated with two main universities of the province of the Punjab, the largest administrative region of the country. I sent formal letters of invitation (App.4) to the principals and the heads of the English departments (App.5) of twelve colleges to allow me to contact their teachers for the purpose of research. I received replies from four colleges giving permission to approach the teachers. Even before beginning the above-mentioned formal process, I had started contacting different colleges and my contacts in those colleges. I personally visited some colleges, informally spoke to the principals and teachers whom I already knew, and introduced the purpose and procedures of my research. I also took email addresses and phone numbers of the teachers who showed interest in my research.
The sample for the study was selected from four public sector degree colleges whose administration and staff showed willingness to participate. A number of lecturers were interested in interviews, but most, not accustomed to being observed by researchers, were slightly apprehensive about the novelty of the process. The participants who were finally selected for the study were eight English language teachers, six female and two male lecturers teaching English at four public sector degree colleges in Lahore. Their length of teaching English at the degree level ranged from eight to twenty years.

According to Patton (2002) and Dornyei (2007), in order to get rich and varied insights into the phenomenon being researched, qualitative researchers select their participants purposefully. ‘The logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information rich cases for study in depth. Information rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of inquiry’ (Patton, 2002, p.230). My sample was also selected with the purpose to achieve variability and richness of data. I selected for my sample only those participants (apart, from the lecturers’ willingness to participate) who had the experience of teaching the old curriculum as well as the new curriculum since its implementation in 2010 in their respective colleges. The decision to select participants based on this criterion was established on the assumption that these lecturers would be well positioned to discuss the issues under investigation.

Moreover, I wanted to get an insight into the beliefs of male as well as female English language lecturers in order to be able to explore the issue from different dimensions, have diversity of views, and to enrich my interpretations. The selection of the participants was also subject to accessibility. It was much easier for me to access female lecturers without many restrictions. I was myself a member of the community for more than twelve years, and so most teachers were either acquainted with me or at least considered me as one of them. However, it was slightly difficult to access male college lecturers due to a number of contextual reservations. Still, I was able to contact authorities in two male colleges, and through the college managements and some personal connections was able to access the lecturers. With the permission of the college principals, the English language lecturers were invited to a half an hour briefing in their respective departments in which I informed them about the
purpose of my research, and what they were expected to do. Eight lecturers in all showed their interest to participate. The formal invitation letters (App.2) to participate in the interviews and observations were given to the participants. They were also requested to sign the consent forms (App.3).

According to Dornyei, (2007) taking participant’s consent helps ‘in ensuring that the participants know their rights and it also protects the researcher from any later accusations’ (p.70). They were assured that the signing of the form did not mean that it was obligatory on them to participate in the research. They had the right to withdraw at any point if they felt uncomfortable with the arrangement. I made it particularly clear to them that their information would be kept strictly confidential, and would only be used for the purpose of research. All the participants expressed willingness to participate. A schedule was drawn and according to their convenience, and time, slots and places were arranged for the two interviews and one observation for each participant.

The following table provides the background information for each of these lecturers, including the pseudonyms I assigned to each, which I use throughout the study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Years of teaching</th>
<th>Years of teaching the new curriculum</th>
<th>Qualifications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abbas</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>MA. English Literature &amp; MA. TESL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahmed</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>MA English Literature &amp; some training courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatima</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>MA. English Literature &amp; enrolled in MA TESOL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryum</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>MA. English Literature &amp; Some ELT short courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Razia</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>MA. English Literature &amp; enrolled in M.Phil. Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadia</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>MA. English Literature &amp; ELT British council courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samina</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>MA. English Literature &amp; ELT courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sofia</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>MA. English Literature &amp; MA TESOL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Lecturers’ background information
4.7. Data collection instruments and procedures

I restricted my data sources to teachers only, as my focus was particularly on their beliefs, perspectives, and practices. Teachers in my opinion are at the centre of any curriculum change. They are one of the main stakeholders and after the students, are most affected by any reform, or curriculum change, as they mediate and practically implement the change in the classrooms. Therefore, to understand, and to obtain an insight into their feelings and beliefs is of utmost importance. The data collection instruments employed in this study to achieve this purpose included semi-structured interviews and classroom observations.

4.7.1. Interviews

The features of the qualitative methodology mentioned in section 4.5 complement the focus and purpose of my study, which is to explore the beliefs of the English language lecturers about language teaching and curriculum change in the HE sector in Pakistan. It also aims to investigate any issues faced by these lecturers in the implementation of this change in relation to their beliefs. According to Pajares (1992) ‘beliefs cannot be directly observed or measured but must be inferred from what people say, intend and do’ (p.207). Therefore, in-depth interviews, which are an important qualitative data-collecting tool, were used to ‘understand the world from the subject’s (lecturers’) point of view, to unfold the meaning of people’s experiences, (and) to uncover their lived world’ (Kvale, 2007, p.9).

Interviews have been considered as the most powerful data collection method because they provide an understanding of the persons involved and give an insight into the problem under investigation (Cohen et al, 2007). Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, p.23) define interview as ‘an interchange of views between an interviewer and interviewee(s) on a topic of mutual interest, discussing their interpretations of the world in which they live’. Interviews can take different forms depending on the requirements of the researcher. They are generally classified into three categories: unstructured, semi-structured, and structured interviews. In unstructured interviews, the discussion is freely directed by the interviewees, who talk about their concerns and interests without any imposition by the interviewer. Structured interviews in contrast are more
mechanical. The interviewer asks the same questions from each participant in the same order. Semi-structured interviews lie in the middle of these two extremes. They consist of a number of pre-planned open-ended questions and prompts about the topic under discussion. These types of interviews are the most flexible, because they allow both the researcher and the participant to explore the topic in depth. The interviewer can bring up more questions in order to probe deeply into the matter under investigation, and to ask for further elaboration to the interviewee’s response (Kvale, 1996). For this type of interviews, the researcher usually prepares an interview guide, makes groups of different topics, and can ask them in diverse ways depending on each individual interviewee (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002).

In the present study, I employed semi-structured interviews to allow for flexibility, and to provide opportunity to each participant to express themselves and their beliefs freely. It helped in the emergence of themes that the respondents wanted to share, and subsequently resulted in the collection of rich data (Kvale, 2007; Radnor, 2001). The rationale behind using the semi-structured interviews was my interest in an in-depth exploration of the lecturers’ beliefs, perceptions, and issues faced by them in the process of implementing the curriculum change. At the same time, I wanted to be focused without losing the track. Semi-structured interviews provide the researcher with the opportunity to encourage the participants to develop and to express their feelings, attitudes, expectations, and insights. It can allow the respondents to talk about their thoughts and to do this ‘with greater richness and spontaneity’ (Opie, 2004, p.11). This provides a more natural environment for the communication and clarification of ideas, whilst ensuring that broadly the same themes are covered for each interviewee. The interviews thus ‘allow the researcher to access the thinking of a teacher and to determine aspects of the teacher’s thinking that cannot be captured through observation or other modes of data collection (Luft & Roehrig, 2007: p.41).

Moreover, according to Pring (2000) interviews help the researcher get an insight into the meaning of the ideas, intentions, values, and beliefs of the interviewees. Interviews also enable the researcher to develop a relationship with the participants (Burns, 2000). The fact that I was concerned only with the lecturers and their beliefs, feelings and concerns enhanced the trust between the lecturers and me as the researcher. They saw me as one of them and
shared their opinions with great interest. This might not have been possible if I was interviewing their Principals or their students as well. However, it should be noted that interviews only allow the researcher to elicit the espoused beliefs, i.e. those articulated by the participants. Beliefs as already discussed in chapter three are a complicated concept, or what Pajares calls a ‘messy construct’ (1992, p.307), and might require additional methods to verify the interview data.

I used an interview schedule as a guide to study teachers’ beliefs about curriculum change (App.8). This guide helped me to form focussed yet flexible prompts and questions to engage the participants to freely discuss their beliefs, perceptions and other related issues, and thus avoiding leading questions. According to Jones (1985), the interviewers should be careful during interviews. They should ask questions ‘in such a way that they (interviewee) can tell us in their terms (rather than those imposed rigidly and a priori by ourselves) and in a depth, which addresses the rich context that is the substance of the meanings’ (p.46). The interview questions were formulated based on the review of literature in the fields of teachers’ beliefs and curriculum change, and those that emerged during the pilot interviews. The interview guide was adapted from Borg (1999). Although Borg’s focus was on teachers’ beliefs and grammar instruction, I adapted it to focus on the lecturers’ beliefs and perceptions about English language teaching in Pakistan and the curriculum change.

4.7.1.1. Interview procedures

I arranged individual meetings with all the participants before starting the interviews. In the meetings, I repeated the informed consent procedures, explained the purposes and procedures of the study as well as their rights to withdraw from the study at any stage. I asked them to sign the informed consent form approved by the Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter, U.K. (App.3). Interviews conducted in haste or when participants are tired may negatively influence the outcomes of the study (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000). This is referred to as instrument decay, which can threaten the validity of the study. Therefore, each interview was arranged at the times and dates convenient to the participants. The place where data collection takes place is also of much importance, as it may influence the participants’ reactions and responses (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000), called location threat. In order to
reduce this effect, I conducted the interviews privately with each lecturer in the place and time of their choice.

The participants were interviewed twice during the study. The first interview was conducted before the observation. This interview aimed at establishing each participant’s educational and professional background profile, and to obtain his/her general beliefs about EFL education in Pakistan. These interviews were also meant to create a friendly and comfortable rapport with the participants. The first interviews took place from the middle to the end of August, when the colleges reopened after the holidays. I had to leave Pakistan after the first interviews due to my personal professional engagements. The observations and the second interviews were done in the end of September and the beginning of October more than a month after the first interviews. However, I was constantly in contact with my participants through messages and phone calls. I also sent the first interview transcriptions to them during this time for verification, and for adding more information if required. As I was not capturing the participants’ beliefs at a single moment in time, this gap was useful, allowing time for the participants to reflect on the topics discussed in the first interview, and to develop their thinking about the issues before returning for a further interview.

The second set of interviews was conducted one to four days after the observation, depending on the availability of the participants. They were based mainly on the interview guide prompts and questions, the first interviews, and the important instructional occurrences observed in the classrooms. The second interviews allowed me to explore more facets of the participants’ beliefs, to elaborate on the issues that rose in the first interviews, and the practices observed during class observations.

The table below shows the timeline of the interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Interview 1</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Interview 2</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Samina</td>
<td>16th Aug</td>
<td>Staff room</td>
<td>9.00-9.55</td>
<td>2nd Oct</td>
<td>College library</td>
<td>08.00-09.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Razia</td>
<td>19th Aug</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>11.15-12.15</td>
<td>2nd Oct</td>
<td>Staff room</td>
<td>10.05-11.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbas</td>
<td>20th Aug</td>
<td>Staff room</td>
<td>10.05-</td>
<td>4th Oct</td>
<td>Staff room</td>
<td>10.00-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Venue</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Venue</td>
<td>Time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahmed</td>
<td>20th Aug</td>
<td>Office</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>5th Oct</td>
<td>Office</td>
<td>11.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatima</td>
<td>22nd Aug</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>12.45-12.15</td>
<td>6th Oct</td>
<td>Participant's home</td>
<td>11.30-12.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryum</td>
<td>23rd Aug</td>
<td>Staff room</td>
<td>10.30-11.30</td>
<td>8th Oct</td>
<td>Staff room</td>
<td>11.15-12.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sofia</td>
<td>26th Aug</td>
<td>Office</td>
<td>9.30-10.25</td>
<td>10th Oct</td>
<td>Office</td>
<td>09.05-10.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadia</td>
<td>26th Aug</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>11.30-12.30</td>
<td>10th Oct</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>10.30-11.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: Interviews timeline**

The interviews were conducted in English because all the participants and myself were well conversant in the language. According to Rossman and Rallis (2003), it is advisable to conduct interviews in a language, which is most comfortable for both the parties, so that there is no miscommunication and the issues can be explored in-depth. I enquired of the participants about their preference in the beginning, and with their consent chose English as the language of discussion. All the interviews were audio recorded (with the permission of the participants), so that all the spoken data could be preserved, which might not be possible only through note taking. I also wanted to keep myself focused on what the interviewees were saying, and to be able to ask follow up questions, rather than concentrating on taking notes. Moreover, according to Kvale & Brinkmann (2009) and Silverman (2001), recordings provide more credibility to the gathered data. Likewise, for the purpose of content analysis it was important to listen to the interviews several times and to transcribe them in order to identify themes and to code data (Bell, 2005). The participants were (formally) interviewed twice during the research, however, the discussion avenues were left open even after the interviews were over and we exchanged our views with one another informally. Analogous to the first interviews, the second ones were also transcribed and sent to the participants for verification, and to add any more information, which might have been overlooked during the interviews.

A disadvantage of the semi-structured interviews (Cohen, et al, 2007; Patton, 1982) is the maintenance of consistency in interviews due to the flexibility allowed to the researcher to change the order and wordings of the questions.
Being aware of this point, I made the utmost effort to remain focused and even if I changed the order of the questions for different participants due to the flow of discussion, I made sure that all the questions were discussed with all the participants irrespective of their order. Another challenge for using semi-structured interviews is that a vast amount of data is generated, and this might be very time consuming, as in order to categorize data and to interpret themes, a careful reading of the whole data several times is required to ensure that all the relevant information has been sifted. This challenge was also met with maximum endeavour in order to confirm that no significant data was overlooked.

4.7.2. Classroom Observation

Based on Pajares’s (1992) words quoted in section 4.7.1 ‘beliefs cannot be directly observed or measured but must be inferred from what people say, intend and do’ (p.207), I also chose classroom observation, another important data collection tool in qualitative research, as my second research instrument for the study. Observation is one of the oldest and most fundamental approaches to collect research data. It enables an observer to collect impressions of the situation and to study people in their natural environment, and thus provides direct information rather than self-reported accounts (Dornyei, 2007).

Block (2000) considers interviews as a limited approach and raises questions about considering them as the direct window into the minds of the respondents. These interviews might not be natural reflections but ‘co-constructions and voices adopted by research participants in response to the researcher’s prompts and questions’ (p.759). These voices may or may not be the actual representations of the participants’ thoughts and beliefs. They might consciously or unconsciously say what is acceptable within the context, and may avoid voicing what they actually believe in. Moreover, according to Robson (2002) what people actually do in reality sometimes may differ from what they profess they do. In such a situation, observation can be used to support the interview data. In qualitative research, it is good practice to combine observation with interviews ‘to ascertain selected participants’ perspectives on their actions or behaviours’ (Duff, 2008, p.141). Borg (2006) considers observation as an effective data collection strategy to study language teacher
cognition as it provides ‘a concrete descriptive basis in relation to what teachers know, think, and believe can be examined’ (231). A comparison of the interview data with the observation data can check consistency and can bring about interesting revelations about the participants’ beliefs and practices. Thus, observation is a means of triangulation in research on teachers’ beliefs. By means of observation, a researcher can verify the consistency between teachers’ stated beliefs and practices and actual practices.

My rationale for using observation as my second data collection instrument was to ‘move beyond perception-based data (e.g. opinions in interviews)’ (Cohen et al., 2000, p.305) to get rich descriptions of the situation under investigation (Cohen et al., 2007), and to obtain live additional data to support the interviews. Thus, observations provided me with contextual data, which helped me to understand, verify, and triangulate what teachers say in their interviews. The observations thus bring to light the tacit, unconscious, unarticulated beliefs, which are not evident in interviews. Moreover, I also aimed to find the extent to which the participants’ teaching reflects the implementation of the curriculum change in relation to their beliefs and perceptions. However, it must be noted that the classroom practices themselves as the expression of beliefs can in some cases be very complicated, as the actual beliefs might remain confounded due to the contextual factors or the difference in the core and peripheral beliefs (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Observation can be of many types. One way to differentiate types of observation is to consider the role of the researcher during observation. According to Baker (2006) there are seven distinctive roles of an observer: a) nonparticipation; b) complete observer; c) observer-as-participant; d) moderate or peripheral membership; e) active participation (participant-as-observer, active membership); f) complete participation; and g) complete membership. Each of these roles characterizes observation differently. For my study, I selected the complete observer role because I wanted to make my presence in the class as unobtrusive as possible and tried not to interact with participants at all. This method of observation is also called ‘neutral observation’ (Richards, 2003).
4.7.2.1. Observation Procedure

In the study, I observed the interviewed participants’ regular classroom teachings through non-participant, descriptive observation. Each session lasted for about 60 minutes. The time and date for the observation was set in accordance with the wishes of the participants.

The table below shows the timeline of observations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Samina</td>
<td>30th September</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Razia</td>
<td>30th September</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbas</td>
<td>1st October</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahmed</td>
<td>1st October</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatima</td>
<td>3rd October</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryum</td>
<td>3rd October</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sofia</td>
<td>7th October</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadia</td>
<td>7th October</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Observations timeline

Interpretive research does not always require 'a predetermined guiding observational protocol' (Duff, 2008, p.139). However, as the observations took place almost a month after the first interviews I had enough time to formulate some initial interpretations of teachers’ beliefs. Based on these interpretations and the curriculum aims of semester 1 and 3 that were in progress at the time of data collection an observation schedule was drawn (App.10) to give structure to my observations. There are a number of tools, which can be used for collecting data through observation. Some of the most commonly used are: note-taking, audio-recording, and video-recording, creating seating charts, creating a teacher diary (or other forms of documentation) (Griffée 2005a, 2005b). In order to maximize the accuracy of the data collected and for descriptive validity (Maxwell, 1996) I employed note taking/field notes and audio recording during the classroom observations, and created a classroom map (App.16). Bogdan and Biklen (1998) define field notes as ‘the written account of what the researcher hears, sees, experiences, and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting on the data in a qualitative study’ (p.107-108). The purpose of observing from this perspective is to generate descriptive data. Field notes usually include descriptions of setting, people, and activities; and direct quotations or the substance of what was said. Audio-recording was
also employed mainly to compensate for what note-taking might miss. A Phillips digital voice recorder was used for this purpose. In the observation and recordings, I ensured observers’ nonintervention in the lesson, and applied appropriate strategies to remain as inconspicuous as possible. I tried to keep it discreet lest it should make the lecturer participants uncomfortable or self-conscious. I placed the digital recorder in a location hardly noticeable to the teacher and took a seat in the back corner of the classroom. The audio-recorded data was transcribed and used in identifying instructional episodes (Borg, 1999). These were then used to develop some questions for the next interviews, and to verify the stated beliefs of the lecturers.

Researchers have pointed out a few weaknesses of observation as a data collection technique. Richards (2003), states that some participants’ behaviors can be affected by the very presence of the researcher, and this may lead to what is known as the ‘observer’s paradox’ (108): when people know they are being observed, they may not act normally. Moreover, the gender, ethnicity, and class positionality of the researcher may have an effect on the observation process and the behaviors of the participants; this in turn might affect the quality of the collected data (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002).

Besides this, Everston and Green (1986) talk about the observer’s bias. Observers have their own beliefs and expectations, which might influence the observation process. Clearly, there are challenges in observation; however, an observer can take steps to make it as useful as possible. Firstly, if the observer develops a good rapport and trust with the observed participants, there is a lesser chance of them becoming self-conscious in the presence of the observer. Secondly, to be an objective observer and not to mix descriptive observation with evaluation and opinion (Griffee, 2005a, 2005b) the observer can use participant validation. ‘Member checking helps to ensure that participant’s accounts and meanings are authentic’ (McKechnie, p.575). I sent the charts of instructional occurrences observed to the participants to check. Furthermore, the limitations of the process of observation and observer’s ability to observe all aspects of people’s behavior could be supplemented by other data collection tools, such as the semi-structured interviews employed in this study, which helped me ‘to infer the reasons, intentions, causes and purposes that lie behind actors’ behaviors’ (Cohen et al., 2007, p.411).
4.8. Pilot study

Piloting the research instruments before the actual project is launched is a useful strategy as it enables a researcher to test the quality of the instruments, allows him/her to make any revisions and improvements needed (Kvale, 2007), and ensures that rich data will be generated from them. Dornyei (2007) draws an interesting analogy in this regard: ‘Just like theatre performances, a research study also needs a dress rehearsal to ensure the high quality (in terms of reliability and validity) of the outcomes in the specific context’ (p.75). It leads to the elimination of redundancy, leading questions and increases the trustworthiness of the research (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992; Holliday, 2003).

Consequently, I piloted my research instruments to ensure their effectiveness. I contacted three of my friends who teach in public sector colleges in Lahore, and invited them to participate in the pilot study, as one of the conditions of pilot testing is that it should be conducted with participants having similar situation and interests as those who would participate in the actual research (Turner, 2010). The circumstances and the schedule of only one of them were suitable for carrying out this pilot testing. The lecturer was interviewed, then observed, and then interviewed again. The first interview took about 30 to 40 minutes. The observation took about 60 minutes and the second interview about 50 to 60 minutes. The teacher was interviewed and observed in the same setting in which the actual study would be conducted. Her comments, questions, and suggestions were taken into consideration and some amendments were made in the interview schedule. It also gave me an opportunity to test the quality of the recording, and to practice using the recorder skillfully to record the interviews and observations. I also attempted to analyse the collected data in order to get some knowledge and practice before dealing with the actual data.

4.9. Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis involves the process of breaking down and reconstructing the information gathered in order to make sense of the data. It addresses ‘the identification of essential features and the systematic description of interrelationships among them’ (Richards, 2003, p.270). This type of analysis could take a number of forms, ‘but it is fundamentally a non-
mathematical analytic procedure that involves examining the meaning of people’s words and actions’ (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994, p.121). Qualitative data analysis was applied in the analysis of the data collected from interviews and observations.

In this respect the first and the most important task for a researcher is to become well acquainted with the data. The familiarization with the text begins with the researcher being herself/himself actively and exclusively involved in the data collection. I was solely responsible for conducting interviews and classroom observations. Therefore, I started getting an awareness of the data from the beginning. The data then was organised and interpreted guided by the levels of coding (Creswell, 2005; Henning et al, 2004).

1. Open coding: Creating tentative labels for segments of raw data that summarise what the researcher sees as happening
2. Axial coding: Identifying relationships among open codes and grouping them to create categories
3. Selective coding: Main categories selected, refined and related to other categories in order to develop themes
4. Placing of themes in relation to the research questions.

At step one; I transcribed the interview data (App.9), and observation recordings manually after repeatedly listening to the recordings. I also took field notes during the observations, which were added to the data (App.12). The transcriptions were then typed on word documents. Furthermore, as ‘reading, reading and reading through the data once more forces the researcher to become intimately familiar with those data’ (Marshall & Rossman, 2006, p.158), I repeatedly read through the transcribed data to become completely familiar with it. In the next stage, I first worked on the interview data. I highlighted the important words that appeared in the data on the word document, and typed notes in the margins of the text, which were important phrases, ideas and concepts that occurred to me. These ideas or initial codes were linked to the words or phrases that I considered important in the participants’ responses. Through this process, I started sorting the data according to the information given by each participant, thus, ‘developing tentative ideas about categories and relationships’
This initial process helped me to explore the database (Creswell, 2005).

Following table shows examples of raw data from interviews with open coding:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example of raw data from an interview</th>
<th>Open coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q: What are your most important concerns in implementing the curriculum change?</td>
<td>Weak students, Concern, Change, Difference in Student background, Stress in students, Drop out, Large classes, Expectations, Idea behind change, Classroom teaching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A: Oh! Many many concerns! They say we have weak students and we need to improve their English; We know our students are weak.....but to think that with this new thing some magic will happen and all will be able to learn English is sheer stupidity. Look at our students’ backgrounds. It’s like putting all the horses and the donkeys in one line. Our students are stressed out. Many have left college. It’s not fair. And with all this we have large classes, actually very large classes. We are supposed to teach all the skills to them. Is it possible to teach 70 students all these in a class of sixty minutes. I really need some special training to do so. If I give my students a group activity for example, how do I monitor it? Because there are so many students and the seating arrangement cannot be improvised much due to lack of space the idea of independent learning and group etc. is already dead. We are left with student teacher interaction all the time. They are just faces to us.

Table 4. Example of open coding

This type of coding allowed me to fracture the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994), thus reaching advanced levels of abstraction by seeing the data in diverse groupings. Next, I again read the data and the initial codes several times in order to develop categories and themes.

The initial attempt at coding resulted in a large number of codes, which needed to be arranged in a meaningful way under broader categories. Thus, the second step was to bring all the similar codes together in groups. These groups were then read several times along with the text segments to find relationships in them and to assemble them to create categories.
The table below shows the second step of coding:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Open Codes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weak students</td>
<td>Student level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concerns</td>
<td>Lack of uniformity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change</td>
<td>Pressure on learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference in Student background</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress in students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop out</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large classes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea behind change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was the beginning of emergence of coding families and common classifications. Having done this enabled me to establish the relationships between codes and helped me to group them into coding families/categories. The interrelations between all established categories resulted in codes falling under a category label relevant to them (table 5). Where the codes fitted into two or more categories, they were cross-indexed (Taylor-Powell, 2003); that is, I read the data repeatedly to ensure that the data were correctly categorised. If the codes after were found to fit in more than one category I decided to allow them to stay there, for example, large classes fitted into the category of teachers' dilemma as well as affect the teachers' perceptions on methodology. This provided me with interesting data to interpret, and created a strong link between different questions. The categories were then further refined and those which were closely related to each other were systematically merged in order to develop themes.
The table below shows the third step of coding:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum change aims</td>
<td>Practicality of change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of uniformity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher dilemma</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student level</td>
<td>Readiness of the lecturers and the students for the change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure on learners</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher dilemma</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 6. Example of merging categories to develop themes*

At the end of this process, 19 themes emerged. These themes were then linked with the research questions. The whole process was done manually without taking any assistance from any computer-aided coding software. This was done in order to stay connected to the data, and to maintain a holistic overview. This helped me to avoid decontextualization and fragmentation of data, which could be associated to software, assisted coding (Webb, 1999). I highlighted important segments in the transcribed data on a word document, copy pasted parts when required, or typed labels, codes, and categories in the text margins. I used this approach because being an interpretive researcher the analysis for me was a ‘dynamic, intuitive and creative process of inductive reasoning (and) thinking’ (Basit, 2003, p.143), and a process of conceiving answers. Having been in continuous contact with the data by reading it repeatedly, I had become much immersed in it and thus was able to more systematically identify the emerging codes, ideas, categories, and themes. This type of analyses lends creativity, perception, and insightfulness to the analysis, which I believe is suitable for interpretive research.
The table below shows the linking of interview themes with three research questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Research Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Status of English in Pakistan</td>
<td>What beliefs do the English language lecturers working in the HE public sector colleges have about English language education in Pakistan?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers and teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative importance of different language skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of target language (TL) in the classroom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of grammar and vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Vs. language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources of lecturers’ beliefs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriateness and necessity of change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practicality of change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of lecturers in the change process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readiness of the lecturers and the students for the change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readiness of the systems for the change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prospects of sustainability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examinations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of resources and support from the universities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of teacher training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large classes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies to cope with change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Themes linked with Research questions

4.9.1. Observation Data Analysis

The observation data in this study was analysed by combining the readings of the field notes and listening to the audio-recorded lessons. Following the observation guide (App.10), I conducted the analysis as follows. At the first stage, I listened to the recordings of the observed lessons, and read my field notes a number of times. Secondly, the audio-recorded lessons were transcribed and added to the field notes (App.12). Thirdly, I re-examined my detailed field notes, together with the themes from the interviews. Next, I highlighted the important segments in the similar manner as in interviews.
Notes were then typed in the margins to denote and identify themes that emerged (App.13). I described and supported these themes with evidence from the interview transcripts (App.14). In the last stage, through analysis of the observation notes, I determined and interpreted how the curriculum policies were understood and implemented by the lecturers (App.15) in relation to their beliefs and perceptions about curriculum change. These interpretations were placed under research question four and were presented and discussed along with the interview themes in detail in chapter 5.

4.10. The researcher’s positionality and reflexivity

A researcher’s awareness of his/her own beliefs, values, ideas, experiences and prejudgements is called reflexivity. The concept that ‘researchers should acknowledge and disclose their own selves in the research seeking to understand their part in it, or influence on the research’ (Cohen et al. 2011, p.225) informs the researcher’s position. It necessitates sensitivity to the researcher’s cultural, political and social context (Bryman, 2012, p. 393). Reflexivity is an integral part of the interpretive research design. The interpretive researchers ‘need to develop an understanding of how our positions shape the kinds of theories we create and the kinds of explanations we offer. Instead of assuming that objectivity is possible then, we need to be reflexive’ (Esterberg, 2002:12). According to Denzin & Lincoln (1998) the researcher is part and parcel of the setting, context and culture he /she is trying to understand and represent.

In my study I was both, an insider as well as an outsider. An insider, because I am a product of the education system in Pakistan, and having worked in a similar context as my participants for more than twelve years I had an idea about how the higher education system operates in the country. However, as an insider who was aware of what was happening in the sector, I took great care not to assume and impose my ideas and beliefs on the lecturers. Instead, I wanted to listen to my participants about their day-to-day experiences and situations in their context. Conversely, I do not directly belong to the community and the government colleges. I had left the government service some years before carrying out the research, and thus was not teaching the new curriculum. This made me, to some extent, an outsider, and from the outsider’s perspective I listened to the participants’ perceptions about their lived
experiences, observed their practices, and made analysis and interpretations based on all the above and with support from previous literature in the field.

With my background as an English language teacher and having taught at the higher education level in Pakistan for over a decade I decided to carry out my research in this sector with the hope to explore the balance between policy and practice, exploring the way the lecturers perceive and implement the curriculum change in their context. My interaction with the participants through interviews and classroom observations gave insights into the deeper issues such as lecturers’ understandings of the phenomena within their context and how it could ultimately affect the success of reform and change. Being considered as one of them and yet being removed from their situation placed me in a positive position. The participants viewed me as a sympathetic researcher and expressed their opinions and beliefs without any feeling of intimidation.

Having discussed in this section my awareness of the predispositions that could affect the study, I will now in sections 4.11 and 4.12 identify ways through which any assumptions, bias or personal beliefs were suspended and controlled during the research (Cresswell & Miller, 2000).

4.11. Authenticity Criteria: credibility, dependability, transferability

Validity, reliability, and objectivity are the criteria used to assess the quality of research in the conventional positivist research paradigm. The interpretive research paradigm is different from this tradition in its fundamental assumptions, research purposes, and inference processes, therefore the conventional criteria are unsuitable for judging its research results (Bradley, 1993). Recognizing this gap, Lincoln and Guba (1985) proposed the authenticity criteria for evaluating interpretive research work. Authenticity criteria (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Guba and Lincoln 1989; Schwandt, 2001), or trustworthiness is a set of quality criteria for judging interpretative research; these are credibility, dependability and transferability (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Establishing authenticity in qualitative research is difficult to prove, and can only be endeavoured for (ibid). Therefore, qualitative researchers are advised to explain the precautions that they took to enhance the trustworthiness of the findings of their investigations (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).
The aims of the present research were to give attention to the participants' perspectives and beliefs. This is because, as Gillett (1995) concluded, 'once one sees the tasks of understanding human behavior as involving interpretation and empathy rather than prediction or control the self-reports of the subject become very important' (p.111). Given that the aim of the research was to better understand the beliefs and experiences of the English language lecturers in the wake of curriculum change, I strived rigorously to establish trustworthiness in every aspect of the study.

4.11.1. Credibility refers to the ‘adequate representation of the constructions of the social world under study’ (Bradley, 1993, p.436). A researcher can achieve this credibility by providing thorough information about, and justification for the data collection methods (Robson, 2002). Some of these include prolonged engagement in the field, persistent observation, triangulation, checking interpretations against raw data, peer debriefing, and member checking. In my study, I attempted to establish credibility in a number of ways. As discussed in section 4.6, most of the participants were well acquainted with me, as I was a member of the same teaching community for more than twelve years. This prolonged involvement recommended by Guba and Lincoln, (1989) helped me to develop necessary rapport with the research participants which was important to gain their trust and thus to access the constructions of reality. Moreover, I was in constant contact with the participants over a period of more than two months, this helped me to develop an understanding with those few participants whom I did not know well before. Although the period spent in actual data collection was less than 4 weeks still I am confident that I met this criterion because according to Robson (2002) to be involved with the participants for a few weeks is acceptable for the research to be credible.

I also employed triangulation as a strategy to reinforce the credibility of the research and to verify the emerging findings (Silverman, 2001). I used two methods of data collection namely interviews and observations. This resulted in the validation of data through two sources, and thus provided a clearer and in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Creswell, 2007).

Thirdly, I used member checking, member validation (Cohen, et al., 2007) as a part of my efforts to establish credibility. Theorists like Guba and Lincoln,
(1989), and Robson, (2002), have recommended this strategy. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), it is ‘the most crucial technique for establishing credibility’ (p.314). It is a way to find out if the realities constructed by the researcher match those perceived by the participants (Guba and Lincoln, 1989) and prevents researcher bias (Robson, 2002). Accordingly, I provided each participant with excerpts of their transcribed interviews to check if the record of their interview was accurate (Punch, 1998), and to add some more comments if they wished to about the issue.

4.11.2. **Dependability** refers to ‘the coherence of the internal process and the way the researcher accounts for changing conditions in the phenomena’ (Bradley, 1993, p.437). Dependability can be thought of as the researcher’s account of the changes inherent in any setting as well as changes to the research design as learning unfolded (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). The researcher has to ensure that the process of enquiry was ‘logical, traceable, and documented’ (Schwandt, 2001, p.258). I have provided a detailed account of all the stages of the research along with the rationale for all the decisions taken. Moreover, a number of appendices are provided to make the whole process traceable and documented. Thus, I believe that my study fulfills the criterion of dependability.

4.11.3. **Transferability** refers to the extent to which the researcher’s conclusions in a study can be applied to another context. It is the researcher’s responsibility to provide data sets and descriptions that are rich enough so that other researchers are able to make judgments about the findings’ transferability to different settings or contexts (Schwandt, 2001). As in interpretive research the aim is to examine multiple realities and to comprehend their uniqueness, transferability is not always intended (Holliday, 2003). However, it is possible to transfer the findings to contexts with similar characteristics (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003).

In my study, I have provided rich descriptions to help place the reader in the context. This includes a description of the setting, participants, processes, and interactions. Also included is a detailed description of the research methods: strategy of inquiry used; sampling; data collection; procedures for recording, storing, and managing information; data analysis steps, including coding,
interpretations and validation. Hence, I assume that the findings of my study could be relevant for the higher education system anywhere in Pakistan, as the Pakistani education system is predominantly public sector faced with similar issues. Furthermore, the findings can also have resonance for similar contexts especially in other developing countries, offering a starting point for developing themes and questions for investigating this issue in their own context.

4.12. Ethical considerations

Ethics is an important concern in any type of educational research. There are a number of ethical issues to be taken into serious consideration while conducting a research study. Miles and Huberman (1994) cited in Punch (2009) suggest informed consent, honesty and trust, privacy, confidentiality and anonymity as important ethical issues in qualitative research. As a researcher, I was conscious of these ethical issues and thus adhered to the code of conduct of qualitative research and addressed the abovementioned issues. The project including the participants, instruments and ethical dimensions were approved by the University of Exeter's Ethics Committee.

I took the following steps to assure that all the ethical considerations were strictly followed:

1. As I was a member of the teaching community for more than a decade, I was either personally acquainted with the participants or was introduced through recommendations from other participants. However, this was advantageous only so far, that the participants trusted me, and considered me as someone who could empathize with their situation. I was in no way in a position to exert any influence on the participants or the college authorities in any respect. My written invitations to the teachers to participate were professional and formal, though the later emails and other forms of contact such as calls and text messages were somewhat less formal, yet professional. According to Radnor (2002), research purpose should be communicated to the potential participants. However, one has to be aware of the amount of information to be shared ‘so as not to cause any response bias or even non participation’ (Dornyei, 2007, p.65). I briefed the participants about the research topic and its purpose making sure that the shared information was completely
unbiased and disinterested. They were assured of anonymity and confidentiality; that their identities and the information shared by them would at all times be confidential and will only be used for the purpose of research. They were also informed that pseudonyms would be used for them as well as for their colleges.

2. It was expected that the beliefs and views of some of the participants might be in conflict with the ideology of the institutions and the HE commission. Moreover, their perceptions about the curriculum change might be opposite to the ideals of the curriculum planners. This being an interpretive research, such issues might strengthen the study and bring out matters, which need real attention. However, I made certain that such information does not in any way harm the participants or jeopardise their careers, and at the same time, they are allowed the freedom of expression in their interviews. This was done by ensuring anonymity of all the participants (by using pseudonyms), moreover, the names of the colleges they worked in, and the universities they were affiliated with, were also removed.

3. All interviews were recorded with the consent of the participants (Maykut and Morehouse, 2002). The place and time of the interviews and observation were in accordance with the wishes of the participants. The transcribed interviews were returned to them for verification and to add any other comments prior to using the data for detailed analysis. The data collected was always kept in a secure place, and only I had access to it. Audio recordings and the transcribed data were kept in a locked drawer in my office. The audio recordings were copied on my personal computer, secured by a virus protection system, and were deleted from the recorder. I only accessed all the electronic data through a username and password. I made sure that the recorded and written information was deleted and destroyed as soon as it had been used for the research.

4. Respondents have the right to refuse to participate in a study. Even after initiating participation, they have the right to withdraw at any time should they wish (Silverman, 2001; Punch, 1998; Glesne and Peshkin, 1992). For the purpose of this study, I made sure that all lecturers understood that their participation was valuable and appreciated, but that it was their
decision to participate or refuse participation or to withdraw at any time during the research if they did not wish to continue without giving any reasons. However, most of the participants were enthusiastic to participate and were pleased that they were contacted and stated that it was the recognition of the fact that they had an important role to play, and had been provided with a platform to share their feelings and views, which was of much value to them. They hoped that it might result in positive action for future curriculum planning as well as the present curriculum change might also benefit as it is still in its initial stage.

4.13. Limitations of the study

‘Limitations are those conditions beyond the control of the researcher that may place restrictions on the conclusions of the study, and their application to other situations’ (Best and Kahn, 1989, p.37). Since all human work is prone to imperfections, the current study also had the following limitations. However, I endeavoured to minimize their effects on the research.

I. The study was conducted in public sector colleges in a single city. Therefore, the findings might not completely conform to other teachers working in different colleges in other cities; nevertheless, because the curriculum change has been implemented throughout the country, transferability of its findings to similar situations is still possible.

II. The period of data collection coincided with the beginning of the term when teachers were just beginning the classes. This might have influenced the data collected through observing participants’ classrooms, in that the attendance of the students was still comparatively thin and the teachers may have just been introducing the materials to the learners. However, the fact that it is a semester system and the teachers start with their regular teaching from day one, gives confidence that what I observed was the routine classroom teaching.

III. The use of interviews may be a further limitation to the present study. Regardless of its advantages as a data collection method, a possible drawback is that interviewees could, consciously or unconsciously; give unreal or modified information to the researcher since they know the purpose of the research. However, the observations were a tool to counter this limitation, as I could get supplementary information from the
actual happenings in the classrooms, and thus could verify and triangulate the interview data.

IV. The interviews could have been conducted more than twice in order to get even more profound understanding of the phenomenon. However, I made my best efforts to obtain as much data as possible through two interviews. Besides, the time lapse between the first and the second interview proved to be positive as it provided enough time to the participants to think about the issues raised in the first interview and to evolve their ideas on the matters. The participants thus elaborately discussed their point of views and provided me with ample information, which was enough for this research; therefore, I did not deem it necessary to take more interviews.

V. The actual data collection process lasted for almost four weeks only. A longer period could have provided richer data, thus yielding more findings. However, to spend more time with the participants I did the initial interviews in the middle of August 2013, and the whole research procedure continued until the middle of October, during which time I was in constant contact with the participants. This gave me enough time to develop a good understanding with them. Moreover, Robson (2002) argues that spending a few weeks with the participants is quite enough and acceptable for such exploratory research.

VI. The fact that there were only two male participants as compared to six female participants could be considered as another limitation. It might be deemed as providing single gender view. Nonetheless, cultural limitations had to be accepted, and the participants’ interest in the study was most important. It was a voluntary participation and there was no point in pressurizing the potential participants. Moreover, the two male participants who participated actively contributed to the research and provided rich data to the study.

4.14. Summary
This chapter has provided a detailed account of the methodology of the present study. This included the research questions of the study, the rationale for the adoption of the research paradigm, the research design, and the methods used for data collection. It also provided an exhaustive description of the procedures
for conducting the study, and analysing the data, the criteria to ensure the quality of the research and some limitations of the study. In the following chapter, I will present the findings of the study in detail; and will discuss these findings in relation to the research questions.
CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
5.1. Introduction
This chapter presents and discusses the most important findings derived from the data in the light of the four research questions. These questions were designed to investigate the following main constructs guiding this research, namely: teachers’ beliefs; teachers’ perceptions and attitudes towards curriculum change; classroom implementation of curriculum change, and the factors that might hinder its successful implementation. In doing this I tried to capture the uniqueness of each participant along with the collective interpretation of the data. Interview extracts and incidents from the observations were used to support the findings. The results were also compared to the findings of the previous research in the area. In order to present and discuss the central issues emerging from the data, the chapter is divided into four main sections in accordance with the research questions. The key findings related to each research question are discussed in the last part of every section.

5.2. Lecturers’ beliefs about the English language education in Pakistan
This section aims to answer the first research question:

*What beliefs do the English language lecturers in the public sector colleges in the HE sector have about English language education in Pakistan?*

The participants’ general and specific beliefs about English language teaching in Pakistan were explored in the study in order to create a basis for a better understanding of the lecturers’ perceptions and implementation of curriculum change. The following seven recurrent themes with regard to the lecturers’ beliefs were identified mainly in the interview data, while the observation data provided supporting evidence, which is presented in section 5.5 of this chapter.
These beliefs are first presented individually in detail, and then discussed in the last part of this section.

### 5.2.1 Status of English in Pakistan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub theme</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>No. of Refs</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Status of English in Pakistan</td>
<td>Key to success</td>
<td>..Studying English leads to...opening of all the doors</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Element of prestige and esteem</td>
<td>..they get respect and ...... such importance this language has in our country</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vital for academic success</td>
<td>..Good English means good education, better universities world wide</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Excessive importance</td>
<td>..It's our slavish mentality to say we can't survive without English</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 9. Beliefs about status of English in Pakistan*

The majority of the eight participants believed in the importance of English language education in Pakistan. Six participants considered English to be of instrumental value in international business, knowledge, and communication, a crucial factor for individual as well as national development. They saw it as the key to success in the world today. Fatima summed it up like this:

*All the world business, communication, best books in… are in English… our students should learn English…… to come to the level of the rest of the world we need English…the world has become…… the global village* (Int.1).
Sofia, Samina and Abbas believed that good English language skills lead to the realization of the students’ ambitions in practical life; those with good English always get a good job and a better salary. Samina believed that what is taught in the classroom has a direct impact on students’ lives in the world outside and vice versa. She said, ‘Classroom is not an isolated world. What we do there is…much dependent on the wider contextual factors, on what is happening around us’ (Int.1).

The participants also spoke about English in terms of its historical importance in the region. Sadia called it the language of rulers and the elite class. Three participants believed that there is an element of prestige and esteem attached to English, that good English language skill is equated with overall higher capability.

*The moment we hear someone speak good English we think…they are more capable, have good background, schooling. More doors are open for them……Urdu medium as paindoo (villager) and English medium as modern…..accomplished is…………everywhere* (Sadia. Int. 1).

Samina expressed a similar opinion. She believed that those with good English obtain better jobs, higher salary, respect, and ‘even good marriage proposals’ (Int.1). The participants also spoke of the importance of English in terms of the academic endeavours. Most higher education resources are in English, and a number of students go abroad for higher education; thus, good English language proficiency is an important asset for them.

Two participants, however, believed that the importance of English has been over emphasised in Pakistan over the years. Ahmed and Maryum considered it a national weakness and the result of the colonial past to think that progress depends on good English. They believed in the importance of utilizing the national and regional languages of the country for improving students’ knowledge rather than squandering precious time and money developing English language ability.
5.2.2. Teachers and teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme and Teaching</th>
<th>Sub theme</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers and Teaching</td>
<td>Metaphors about self and role</td>
<td>...I see myself as a guide in the class....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>....I'm many things....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strengths of an effective teacher</td>
<td>...A good teacher motivates the students..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>...you should know your subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classroom methodology</td>
<td>...I like my class to be noisy....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>...I don’t think this group work etc etc works here...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teach to the examinations</td>
<td>...I think we must prepare them to pass the exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10. Beliefs about Teachers and teaching

The participants shared their beliefs about themselves, their roles, and the methodologies they employ in their classrooms. When asked to describe their roles, all the participants used metaphors to elucidate the roles that a teacher plays in the classroom. Samina and Abbas described themselves as ‘the guide’, but others used more dramatic metaphors, such as chameleon and actor. According to Sadia, a teacher has to change according to the needs of the students. Sofia was aware that these needs may be different for different skills and the teachers’ attitude and teaching techniques need to adapt to these demands. She said ‘I feel teachers are actors...in their effort.......to effective teaching, they adopt different roles’ (int.1). Some participants saw themselves in multiple roles. Fatima and Ahmed saw themselves as facilitators, counsellors, and knowledge transmitters. Razia and Maryum along with seeing themselves as knowledge transmitters saw themselves as friends and helpers. Maryum also saw herself as a commander.

The participants had similar beliefs about the strengths of an effective teacher. All believed in the importance of teachers’ subject competence and command over the language. Maryum summed up these beliefs of the participants:
A teacher should be competent in the subject. If I know what I am teaching, only then I will teach it properly…will be able to handle complicated and complex situations I might face in class (Int.1).

Sadia and Fatima also stressed the importance of command over the language. They believed teachers’ lack of command over English could negatively affect the teaching and learning process. Sofia, Razia, Abbas, and Ahmed also emphasised the importance of the teachers’ confidence in their competence, noting that the students pick up any deficiency and either lose respect for the teachers or their own confidence.

Another important characteristic of effective teachers was the ability to understand the issues, moods, and attitudes of their students in addition to their proficiency level. Four participants strongly believed that if a teacher is able to exhibit this understanding to the students, there develops a special bond between them, which aids learning. Sofia expressed this belief very elaborately:

The most important thing in my success........ is that....... I can see deep into the students, understand their problems, issues stresses etc. I talk to them as a friend, and approach them accordingly (Int.1).

The ability to motivate was also stressed by the participants, who stated that motivating the students to learn, particularly developing intrinsic motivation among them, is the quality of a successful teacher. Sofia believed that a popular teacher is more likely to motivate the learners since the students listen to him/her and thus the teacher can develop students’ interest in the language. Abbas believed that motivating students to take charge of their own learning is very important. If a teacher is able to motivate his/her students to work independently, ‘… to go home and do some....reading and learn something new, or write something......without my fear at the back’ (Int.1), the purpose is achieved. Ahmed was the one dissenting voice on this issue. He believed that students could not be motivated because of their low level, and laziness, and that only forcing them to do something would work with his students ‘I tell them you don’t have the calibre to be in this class. They don’t want to learn…same mistakes everyday....you have to be strict or they will take you for granted’ (Int.1).

The third important aspect of this theme concerned classroom methodology. Two participants showed a clear preference for traditional teaching methods,
believing that student-teacher interaction, individual work, and deductive methods were most suitable for their students, who had no knowledge of, or interest in group and pair work. Maryum, for example, said that she did not use group work due to the noise in the class, and believed that individual work is most suited to her students’ ability and preference.

However, some teachers strongly believed in using communicative teaching methods. Fatima, Sofia, Abbas and Sadia stressed the importance of students working together. ‘I like my class to be active and noisy. We have big classes, and it becomes…….difficult to divide them into group. Still I do it and they enjoy’ (Sofia, Int.2). Abbas believed in making the students independent, that ‘pair work, group work, and projects do help in this regard. I don’t like to stand and teach on the board’ (Int. 2).

There also appeared some contradiction in the beliefs expressed by two participants. Razia showed interest in communicative and task based teaching in her first interview, stating ‘I believe in group work and pair work. Students should be given tasks….. ‘This will make them feel that they are accomplishing something important’ (int.1). Nevertheless, during the second interview she said that she could not use pair and group work activities because it wastes time, as ‘the semester is very short and we are always under great pressure to finish the course….we can’t just do activities with them. They need to learn and pass’ (int.2). Samina, also, presented two differing views on teaching. In her second interview, she demonstrated a clear preference for the deductive approach, stating that the teacher should first explain the content and then the students should do activities. Ironically, she had emphatically supported the communicative approach in her first interview: ‘We learnt English in the traditional way. The teacher would stand….make us read and then explain. That’s not very useful. I strongly believe in communicative approach. This way they will learn by doing’ (Int. 1). This dichotomy among the views of two participants is an interesting issue, and is further discussed in the discussion section, and in section 5.5.
Another noteworthy belief in this category was that the role of the teacher is to teach to the examination. Maryum, Razia, Samina and Ahmed reported this belief. Razia said: ‘All skills are important…..not all are evaluated then why will the students be interested to learn, and….teachers….to teach’ (Int.2). Ahmed in this regard said that, ‘the goal of teaching English…in our context is to help the students pass the exams’ (Int.2). He very candidly declared that he only paid attention to the topics and skills included in the examinations.

5.2.3. The importance of different language skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub theme</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>No. of Refs</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relative importance of different language skills</td>
<td>Reading and writing most important</td>
<td>…We need to make our students perfect in writing and reading…….</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Speaking and listening should be emphasised</td>
<td>…Without good spoken English no chance of success in today’s world…..</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All are important</td>
<td>…I think we need all…….</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11. Beliefs about the importance of different language skills

The participants in the study exhibited mixed beliefs regarding the four language skills. Five participants most frequently cited the learners’ ability to read and write as the most important skills at this level, while three gave significance to speaking and listening. Those in favour of reading and writing believed that speaking, though an important ability is not the vital skill like the U.K. or the USA where it is needed to survive. English has acquired the status of the second language in Pakistan mainly in terms of reading and writing, and not in speaking. Sofia and Samina placed emphasis on reading and writing because in Pakistan

‘you will get so many occasions when you need to read and write. Reading we use in everyday life for information, research, pleasure or even to read how to use a machine……and writing applications, reports etc.’ (Samina, Int.1).

Maryum also showed her preference for writing in her context, believing that writing, though most difficult of all skills is of the greatest significance and necessity, being important for success in the academic world as well as in the
world of employment. She also thought that the university graduates in Pakistan are unable to write even a few correct sentences in English, which negatively affects their employment endeavours. Therefore, effort should be focussed on developing the writing skills.

Another belief in this context was that speaking is merely an embellishment, a way to show off, and a status symbol. Ahmed in this respect said that it would be sufficient if the students could write simple English to convey their meaning. It was also pointed out that learning to read and write would eventually increase spoken confidence, as Razia stated: ‘once they learn to read and write it automatically will give them confidence to speak’ (Int.1). One more reason stated by Ahmed and Maryum for their views on the lack of importance of speaking was the teachers’ own weakness in spoken English. They believed that if teachers were under confident about their own pronunciation, they would not have the confidence to teach it.

Three participants who believed that spoken English is an important skill and should be given a major emphasis at the higher education level countered the above-mentioned views. The reasons for this importance were the job prospects, globalization of the language, prestige, and confidence. Fatima and Abbas believed that for all good, high profile and highly paid jobs, fluency in spoken English is an asset of undeniable importance. Abbas pointed out that although a job application is very important, ‘you can ask anyone to write it for you, good spoken English, and the ability to understand the questions in interview is of vital importance’ (Int.1). Sadia believed that Speaking and listening skills in English are important for studying and working in English-speaking countries. Speaking was also considered important because of its high social standing in the country, as explained by Fatima: ‘fortunately or unfortunately, it is ingrained in us that good English means a higher status, and everybody won’t read your writing. You are socially judged by your speech.’ She stated that there is disparity even in the classrooms, where teachers discriminate among the students because of their spoken proficiency.

In terms of listening, the teachers considered it important, but had reservations regarding what the students listen to in the class. Sofia explained that students
do not have access to good listening models inside or outside the classroom. Abbas rounded up the theme of language skills in these words:

.........our students should be able to express themselves in English, be it speaking or writing, and should be able to understand written texts, and spoken English. All four skills are interconnected and development of all is important (Int.1).

Thus, the above results indicate that there was a mixture of beliefs regarding the importance of the various language skills. Some participants believed that in Pakistani context the ability to read and write English is of utmost importance for academic as well as for the employment purposes, while others underscored the importance of speaking and listening along with that of reading and writing.

5.2.4. Role of target language (TL) in the classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub theme</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>No. of Ref</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role of TL in classroom</td>
<td>Priority of TL in class</td>
<td>We are here to teach English we should try to teach in English…</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L1 can support learning</td>
<td>This is unrealistic not to use any Urdu…if my students don’t understand me what’s the fun…..</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12. Beliefs about the role of TL in the classroom

One more belief reported in this category was the issue of using TL in the English language classroom. Two participants Razia and Maryum believed that teachers should only teach in English and should encourage students to speak English in class because they rarely find opportunities to use English outside the classroom. Maryum said, ‘It is an English class, we should try to teach them in English, or they will never learn. They won’t learn if the teacher translates’ (Int. 1). They believed that if students listen to and use the TL in class they develop the confidence to use it independently. Samina and Fatima believed that teachers should use concept check questions rather than translating words directly.

However, Abbas, Sadia, and Sofia believed that L1 does play a role in language learning. ‘I have to use Urdu from time to time and it’s not realistic to expect them to do all their group work in English. They use more Urdu than
English’ (Abbas, int.1). These participants believed that it is important to encourage the use of TL; however, there does remain an important role of L1, because it helps students’ understanding and supports learning. They thought that to consider using TL exclusively would be unrealistic in their context.

5.2.5. The importance of grammar and vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub theme</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>No. of Ref</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar &amp; Vocabulary</td>
<td>Significance of grammar &amp; Vocabulary</td>
<td>…These are the base on which everything stands</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar is not a by product</td>
<td>…We have to teach it not just think they’ll learn just like that</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar not to be taught in isolation</td>
<td>…Teaching it exclusively will never teach language</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vocabulary develops proficiency</td>
<td>…If you know words you are confident</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13. Beliefs about Grammar & Vocabulary

Knowledge of grammar and vocabulary were considered of significant importance. Most participants believed that these two being vital for the ability to communicate in written as well as spoken English, must be focussed on, and should not be considered as by-products of language learning. Ahmed presented the strongest case for grammar:

Grammar is at the centre of students’ ability to use English……the foundation on which the building of a language is raised. To think….we will teach the skills and students will acquire the grammar is stupidity. We should teach them grammar to be able to learn the language…….Otherwise, their errors will become permanent (Int.1).

Sofia also believed in the significance of grammar, but opposed the traditional grammar translation method. However, three participants believed that it is a misconception to expect the students to discover the rules while being involved in communicative activities. Razia in this context said:

The….over excitement about communicative teaching is…..too much….we are trying to teach the students skills at the expense of grammar. We mustn’t forget that grammar is the base……Wouldn’t it be better if the students are introduced to the grammatical issue……in the activities in the beginning…? (Int. 1).
Samina who in her first interview rejected traditional grammar teaching, demonstrated inconsistency in her belief in her second interview. ‘We teach them first then we ask them to do activities...there is grammar, we should explain the concept and...rule first. I can’t do activities on a tense without teaching it first’ (Int.2); this conflict has also been pointed out in the beliefs of this participant in 5.2.2, and is discussed later. Conversely, Abbas and Sadia believed in providing opportunities to the learners to discover the grammatical patterns and rules from the examples and activities presented by the teacher. This would allow them to use grammar as a tool while learning other skills, and they would not be learning grammar in isolation.

Furthermore, the participants also highlighted the importance of vocabulary. They believed that a large storage of vocabulary helps language proficiency. Fatima believed that one of the biggest problems faced by students is the lack of vocabulary: ‘If they understand the key words....they will...comprehend the whole idea...We should aim at improving the vocabulary of our students’ (Int.1). Ahmed believed in the importance of vocabulary to the extent that he declared that he gives ten new words to his students to learn every day. He said: ‘I don’t mind if they learn them by rote. I wanted to learn the dictionary (as) a student, and believe me learning word really helped me improve my English’ (Int.1). Sadia believed that if students' vocabulary bank is good they are more confident while doing any activity. If they do not know the meanings of words, it increases their anxiety and fear.

### 5.2.6. Literature vs. Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub theme</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>No. of Ref</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literature vs language to teach English</td>
<td>Teaching English through literature the best way to teach English in Pakistan</td>
<td>...I learnt English reading literature...it was better my students learnt more and enjoyed it more…</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English should be taught through language</td>
<td>...I always thought why do we teach English through literature. ...When we focus on language students obviously learn more.... ...Both are important. I think there should be a good balance.....</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Balance between literature and language</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14. beliefs about literature vs. language to teach English
The participants displayed variance of beliefs about the use of literature in language teaching. Three lecturers believed that literature was the best way of teaching a language in their context. Ahmed thought that students automatically learn the language when they read the literature of a language, that concentrating only on language without literature is depriving students of the finer and aesthetic aspects of English. ‘The way we learnt was the best. We were lost in the beauty of literature and this...helped us learn the language’ (Int.1). Another viewpoint related especially to the female students at public sector institutions who have little exposure to the language outside the classroom. The participants’ believed that these girls would probably not write a business letter or give a presentation in future. They perhaps would never work but ‘if they study literature, they will get something that will stay with them lifelong. It is only in the class that these girls get a chance to study literature. It will teach them to be better humans’ (Maryum, Int.1). They also believed that literature develops an interest among the students, and they learn the language while enjoying the stories, plays, and poetry. Moreover, they thought that literature is closely related to real life thus it develops the students’ capacity to think and analyse.

However, three participants with literature background believed that English should be taught through language, and not indirectly through literature. Samina expressed her beliefs in following words: ‘when we are teaching literature, we are not developing language. We are promoting rote learning. We should develop their skills and this is possible through proper language teaching’ (Int.1). These participants also opposed its use for language teaching because of the nature of literary language, which they believed might not be very useful in language learning.

Considering the importance of both the language and literature of English, two participants believed that there should be a balance between the use of language and literature at HE level. Students should be taught skills but along with that, they should also be taught the literature of the language. Thus, they ‘will learn the basics of the language and the.....refined aspects of English through.... literature’ (Sadia, Int. 1).
5.2.7. Sources of teachers' beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub theme</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>No. of Ref</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sources of teachers' beliefs</td>
<td>Experience as learners</td>
<td>...My English teacher was very strict, I didn’t like her class</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>...Loved to go to my English class in college..</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experience as teachers</td>
<td>...When you become a teacher your ideas change so much. As times passes our thinking changes it was a new world for me..</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15. Sources of teachers' beliefs

An important aspect of teachers' beliefs is the sources of these beliefs. All the participants reported that their school experience as students had a great impact on their beliefs about teaching. Four participants reported that they imitate their own teachers. Maryum said, ‘I liked my class. My teacher explained things very well. She made my concepts very clear. I teach like her...I think it's the best way’ (Int. 1). Ahmed also reported a teacher-centred classroom and believed that it was a positive experience, and that he copied his teachers. Fatima’s English teachers in school and college were very friendly, encouraging and cooperative: her English lessons were always her favourites because they were interesting and motivating. ‘These teachers I think influenced me a lot and......my way of teaching and dealing with students is like them’ (Int.1).

However, it was not positive for all the participants. Abbas reported a negative experience at school:

Oh! I would never...follow my teacher at school. She insulted us...... She would stand by the board and teach...told us that we are useless and won’t learn anything. I will never do it to my students (Int.1).

Samina also recounted a negative experience as a learner. Her teacher would only concentrate on preparing students for examinations ‘and teaching grammar through tables and exercises. The words that we didn’t know were.....translated. We had to learn the questions and answers by heart’ (Int.1).

The participants thus exhibited mixed reactions towards their learning experiences. Four had positive experiences at school and college and believed that they followed their teachers’ style in their classrooms though with time the
courses and the methodology have changed. The other four had serious reservations about it and considered it a negative experience. All eight participants positioned themselves as teachers in relation to their own teachers, either by aligning to them if they were good or opposing them if they were bad.

The participants’ experience as teachers also influenced their beliefs. The majority reported that the teaching experience was a reality check, a revelation in many ways. Four of the participants recounted that as they had an English medium background they had no idea that English language teaching would be so difficult. Razia said that coming from an English medium background she was shocked to find that English was very difficult for the students. She said:

*I tried to teach English in English but it was useless. I tried using… the communicative teaching methods I had learnt in my ELT module in masters but failed and so had to compromise with reality* (Int.1).

Maryum and Sadia also expressed similar views. Maryum said that her experience with the public sector students has taught her much. With an Urdu medium background, they are very weak in English, and need much help to pass the exam to move forward. Sadia summed it up for all the participants when she said that teaching experience has a strong impact on teachers’ beliefs. Whatever they experience as teachers, teaches them a number of things, such as, ‘what will work and what will not work’ (int.1).

**5.2.8. Discussion of lecturers’ beliefs about English language education in Pakistan**

In this section, I have discussed the key findings from the data to answer the research question 1 with reference to the wider body of research. The way teachers regard English is vital for understanding their beliefs about the English language teaching and learning. The beliefs of the majority of the participants presented in section 5.2.1 that English language education is the key to the economic, social, and academic progress of the individuals as well as the country are in line with Colman’s findings that in developing countries English is considered crucial for employability, research, and technical advancement (2010). Like Haque (1993), these lecturers suggested that English remains a status symbol in Pakistan due to its historical links with the rulers and the elite class. Similarly, like Rasool & Mansoor (2009) my
participants acknowledged that English is the language of power in comparison to Urdu and other regional languages.

The findings indicate that, in Pakistan, national development is largely dependent on access to modern technology and information, which is mostly accessible in English; thus, the socioeconomic needs of the society are considered the justification for the importance of English. Moreover, society is classified into classes, with two streams of education creating privileged and non-privileged classes, and socioeconomic prosperity and power are bestowed to those with higher proficiency in English thus resulting in the perpetuation of inequalities. This raises the issue of social justice also pointed out by Rehman (2004) and Shamim (2011). They in their respective studies called this classification an educational and linguistic apartheid. Contrariwise, it might also suggest social mobility based on education, as the participants of my study believed that anyone with higher English proficiency could strive for better jobs and higher salary. This indicates the utilitarian and functional role of English language in the economic and social development of individuals and the societies. The Punjab government’s policy to start English from grade one in all public sector schools (see chap.2) could be considered as an effort to end this divide.

However, two participants’ strong criticism of the dependence on English for the economic development of the country, and their beliefs that this reliance is due to the slavish mentality developed by the country’s colonial past, oppose previous research. Kachru (1986) and Mansoor (1993 & 2003) in their studies found that the teachers and the students looked at English in terms of its instrumental value only and not as the legacy of the colonial past. This difference could be due to the belief that dependence on English results in a certain level of cultural imperialism. This reflects the anti-colonial sentiments discussed in chapter two, which resulted in resistance to accept English as the official language of the country. These participants might also see English as a threat to the cultural, religious, and national pride, and thus disapprove of it as the language of development. These conflicting beliefs might mirror the societal tensions between those who reject English as a colonial legacy and those who, like Li (2002), assert its value as a linguistic and economic resource through which, ‘one can access more information and people-through higher education,
on the job, in cyber space and international encounters’ (p.55). These findings are important, as the negative attitudes towards English language exhibited by these participants might reflect the feelings of numerous in the society, which may perhaps act as a barrier to the student engagement with English. As they lack intrinsic motivation to learn English, the result is general low proficiency level among them, despite the official importance attached to the language, and its role in the socio-economic advancement.

An interesting finding worthy of discussion presented in section 5.2.2 was the use of metaphors by all the participants to describe their roles in classroom. These results provide concrete illustrations of teachers’ beliefs about teaching and teachers’ roles. Previously, Farrell, (2006), Michael & Katerina (2009), and Stokes (1998), among others, made use of metaphors to explore teachers’ beliefs. Harmer (2001) identified different roles such as controller, assessor, organiser, prompter, and participant, depending on the way the teachers look at their roles in the classrooms. While in the previous research, the personal characteristics of the teachers and their teaching roles were separated, in my study; the participants linked their personal characteristics as teachers with their teaching roles. For example, a chameleon could be considered a personal characteristic but my participant linked it to her role in the classroom, describing how she changes her behaviour and actions in the classroom according to the requirements at a particular time. This linking could be an attempt of the lecturers to make sense of their experience of teaching, an effort to understand their own identities and practices. Thus, they saw their personal characteristics extended to their teaching.

Moreover, unlike previous studies where metaphors were explicitly elicited from teachers, (e.g. Michael & Katerina 2009); these arose spontaneously in response to a question about their teaching roles. This unanticipated use of metaphors could derive from the participants’ literature background. Since all had Masters’ degrees in English literature, it might have influenced their beliefs. It might also be because they considered teaching difficult to conceptualize, thus used metaphors to make it more familiar and accessible. The usage of metaphors highlights the way the lecturers envision themselves, their students, and the process of teaching and learning. Those who saw themselves in multiple roles seem to believe that teaching and the professional identity of the
teachers in its entirety has much diversity of range (Warford & Reeves, 2003; Martinez et.al. 2001). My participants used contradictory metaphors to describe their roles in classroom. This mixture of opposite beliefs could be attributed to a number of factors. The participants may see themselves as changing roles according to the needs of their learners; or it could be the manifestation of the difference between their core beliefs and peripheral beliefs. It could also suggest like Donaghue (2003), that, because beliefs are held unconsciously, the lecturers find it difficult to exactly define teachers and teaching therefore, use numerous roles to describe themselves and their teaching.

Findings in the same section related to lecturers’ beliefs about teaching methodologies also raised a number of thought-provoking questions. Basturkmen, et.al (2004) state that all teachers hold ideas about what they consider desirable and undesirable teaching methodologies in their contexts. This was also visible in my participants’ beliefs about their preferred teaching methodologies. Six had clear and well-defined beliefs about teaching and learning, four espousing consistent beliefs in communicative approach. These clear ideas about communicative teaching could be because these teachers had recently completed or were enrolled in teacher training and development programs such as Masters’ in TESOL or other such courses. In contrast, two participants had clear preference for the traditional teacher centred teaching, and their other beliefs about learners, teaching different language skills, grammar, and vocabulary were in line with their didactic approach. This could stem from the fact that these teachers had been teaching English for over 17 years without receiving any refresher courses or workshops, making it difficult for them to alter entrenched beliefs and practices despite the new curriculum aims. The two sets of contrasting beliefs show the impact of continuing professional development in providing support to the teachers, when they are faced with the challenges of changing their practices to fulfil the curriculum change requirements. However, as may be expected (Pajares 1992) some participants also expressed inconsistencies. This dichotomy could be due to the difference between core beliefs and peripheral beliefs (Phipps & Borg 2009), with the popularity of communicative approaches inducing them to align to it, while their core beliefs are more traditional. It could also relate to teachers’ pedagogical knowledge. They might have insufficient knowledge and skills to
implement a communicative approach; this is supported by the fact that the participants’ reported lack of training in communicative methodology. Contextual factors such as lack of availability of resources could also be an important factor also seen in Hiep (2007), and Clark & Peterson (1986).

A particular belief worth discussing was that teachers should teach to the examinations; half of the participants thought that the most important job of a teacher is to prepare the students for the assessments, clearly articulating the fact that teachers should teach only the content and skills that are tested in the examinations. They also considered it their most important goal and purpose to help the students pass the examinations. This could be due to the washback effect of examinations, or as already discussed above, the lecturers’ pedagogical knowledge. These issues are discussed in more detail in sections 5.4 and 5.5.

The curriculum reform 2010 emphasises the need to develop all the four language skills; however, the findings in section 5.2.3 above indicate that the majority of the participants believed in the primacy of reading and writing in the Pakistani context. This is consistent with the findings of Rehman, (2001) and Alam & Bashiruddin, (2013). This is perhaps because the examination system is based on writing and reading. It could also be as the participants suggested, due to the importance of writing skills for employment, or could relate to the lack of interest in communicative language teaching. However, ironically, the lecturers revealed that the students at the higher education level are generally inadequate in writing skills. This situation could be as the participants mentioned, because of the students’ Urdu medium background as well as the inadequate education system in schools. Besides, the lack of preference given by my participants to speaking and listening could be due to their beliefs that these skills are unimportant, or contextual factors such as the low proficiency level of learners, non-availability of resources, large classes, lack of time, or the nature of assessment: these skills are not assessed in the examinations. This position raises certain questions about the validity of the curriculum reform, which on one hand failed to create a balance between the four skills, and on the other, misconstrued the students’ skill level. It expected from them a much higher level of writing skill, than they actually have. This situation indicates the importance of needs analysis before implementing such large-scale changes.
However, it is notable that almost half of the participants asserted the importance of oral communication in accordance with communicative teaching, following the current thinking in the field of English language teaching. This calls for a balance between the four language skills as emphasised by Abbas at the end of section 5.2.3.

The controversy between using the target language (TL) and L1 in the class was one more interesting finding as it highlighted lecturers’ approach to language teaching. Four participants believed that using the TL in class means providing the students with an approximation of real life situations, which they considered an essential condition for language learning (McDonald, 1993). Belief in using TL exclusively in class could be for them what Butzkamm & Caldwell (2009) call a ‘badge of honour’ (p.24), reflecting the importance these teachers attach to English. Conversely, others had a more flexible attitude. They believed that using L1 in class along with TL is more natural and can be very helpful for the students. This belief reflects the wealth of research (Herdina & Jessner, 2002; Hauptman, et.al. 2008; Timor, 2012; Turnbull, 2001) according to which, the strategic use of L1 works as scaffolding, saves time and enhances understanding and learner confidence.

An important debate, which appeared in 5.2.6, was the use of literature or language to teach English at this level. In Pakistan for more than three decades English at undergraduate level was taught through various genres of literature before the present curriculum change in 2010 (see chap. 2). The participants, when asked whether they were in favour or against its use in language classes, voiced their opinions quite fervently. Those against using literature for language teaching contended that the language used in literature is not the standard language, and that it has contextual complexity that might hinder learning. Moreover, like the findings of Savvidou (2004) and McKay (1982), they questioned its practicality for developing English for employability as well as for academic purposes.

On the other hand, there was a strong support for using literature from three participants, who, like the participants of Shrestah (2008) in Iran and Nasr (2001) in Lebanon, believed that literature develops the students' intrinsic interest in the TL. One of the aspects pointed out in this respect was the
authenticity of literary texts and their closeness to real life situations. The participants’ belief that literature introduces students to the finer aspects of the language, and thus enhances imagination and critical thinking, is also found in previous literature (Ladousse-Porter, 2001; Van, 2009). The belief related to the importance of literature for Pakistani female students is specific to the context and highlights the social and cultural aspects of an English language classroom. English is not used in everyday life, and there is absence of reading tradition in Pakistan. The classroom is thus the only place where these students can indulge in English literature. This belief highlights the issues of social justice and social mobility addressed above. The participants seem to suggest that studying English literature is very enriching for these female students, and provides them access to the range of experiences unavailable to them in their lives outside the college.

Finally, in this section I address the factors that shape lecturers beliefs. The findings in 5.2.7 above suggest that prior learning experiences affect teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning (Boz 2008). My participants also reflected this. Two strongly believed in teacher-centred classroom because this is how they were taught and they considered it the best way, echoing Miller & Aldred’s (2000) findings that those taught in a teacher-centred classroom maintain their beliefs. However, this is refuted by the fact that four participants, whose prior experience was in teacher-centred environment reacted against it, considering it negative. This could be due to their teacher training, experience as teachers, or the result of their experience with formal knowledge (Richardson, 1996). Research has also shown that teaching experience also affects teachers’ beliefs (Phipps & Borg, 2009). In the case of my participants, the low proficiency level of the students in the government sector colleges shocked them and led them to develop certain beliefs about language teaching, indicating that the socialization process that teachers go through at work also affects their beliefs (McLachlan et al., 2006).
5.3. Lecturers’ perceptions about the curriculum change

This section aims to answer the second research question:

**What are these lecturers’ perceptions of the change in the English language curriculum at the HE level in Pakistan?**

In this section, the findings related to the participants’ understandings and perceptions of the curriculum change in the undergraduate English language curriculum are presented and discussed. Six recurrent themes were identified chiefly in the interview data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Themes about lecturers’ perceptions</th>
<th>No. of participants mentioning theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Appropriateness and necessity of change</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Practicality of change</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Role of lecturers in the change process</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Readiness of the lecturers and students for the change</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Readiness of the systems for the change</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Prospects of sustainability</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 16. Lecturers’ Perceptions**

5.3.1. Appropriateness and necessity of change

The general idea of change in curriculum and the efforts towards the implementation of communicative language teaching was positively perceived by five of the eight participants. They believed that curriculum change at the higher education level was overdue, and was much needed. The following statement by Abbas is representative of these participants’ perceptions:

…the idea of change developed by HEC is really impressive. It was high time that we changed our curriculum; it’s many decades old. The world is changing and we need to change as well…so the direction HEC is taking our English education is absolutely correct (Int. 1).

They believed that this curriculum, with the focus on skills, would help develop the students’ language, which they would be able to use in all subjects, as according to the new reforms at the HE level English is the medium of instruction for all the major subjects. Fatima said that their proficiency in the language would be beneficial as ‘they (students) have to write their dissertations too…this I hope is a new beginning (Int. 1).
They thought that curriculum change was important to bring Pakistan’s education system parallel to the international level. Three participants stated that with growing competition the world over, and with the neighbouring countries making efforts to improve their education systems, it was the right time to introduce new systems, and to change and update the curriculum. It was also appreciated based on the beliefs that change is an important part of human life. Sofia stated that without change we become stagnant, and that we should move with time. She said ‘it has also shaken us out of our laziness. It’s not perfect.....but still something is happening’ (Int.1). Abbas and Fatima thought that it has exposed them to new challenges, which has led the lecturers to educate themselves and to seek teacher development: ‘I used to go to class without even looking at my books. Now I prepare my lesson a night before. This new thing doesn’t let us be lazy, it makes us work which is good’ (Abbas, Int.1).

5.3.2. Practicality of change
Though the idea of change in general received much appreciation by a majority of the participants, they were of the view that the curriculum, though theoretically very impressive, was quite impractical. The lecturers believed that anything to be practically implemented should be based on the requirements and feasibilities in that particular situation. Three participants spoke about the lack of practicality of the curriculum in the educational reality of Pakistan. They expressed their dismay at the fact that there was no needs analysis done before bringing about such a radical change. Razia summed up these views. She said:

It’s a massive change; the whole system has changed. We need change yes....But did they do needs analysis. Our situation should’ve been reviewed then such a move should’ve been taken. Everything others are doing may not be for us. It is practical if we are aware of our conditions and our reality (Int. 1).

Seven participants commented that the learning background of most of the students in the public colleges would cause problems with the new curriculum. They have a rote learning background, have studied from the beginning in large teacher centred classes, through a literature-based curriculum, and at the undergraduate level, their comprehension of English is very low. They were now thrust into a much difficult system and skills based curriculum, and
therefore they found it difficult to cope. Maryum’s comment exemplified their concerns:

This change is ideally good. But when we practically teach these students…it’s a failure…The curriculum makers forgot about the big gap between the intermediate level they come from, and this…changed curriculum (Int. 1).

The participants thought that it was excessively ambitious and impractical to believe that the level of education could be raised to the international level simply by changing the curriculum. Samina said that without dealing with basic issues, it was merely ‘a cosmetic covering (with no visible changes in the standards) unrealistic, unless we deal with the grass root problems’ (Int.1).

Six participants strongly believed that the decision makers had a very limited vision of the situation in the public colleges and had no idea of the constraints faced by the students and the teachers of these colleges. They believed that the reality of the public college contexts should have been closely studied. These feelings were summarised by Abbas, who said

The decision was made from micro level standpoint not macro level. The experts involved belong to the elite institutions...There is a great difference between the level of their learners and ours. Our students have to work extremely hard to get through. Simply by changing the curriculum we can't bring radical changes in standards (Int. 2).

A final point raised here criticised the extension of the BA to four years instead of two as in the previous curriculum. Participants believed this would cause economic pressures on parents. Maryum, referring to a girls’ college, stated

We had strength of eight to ten thousand students in this college and with the new curriculum the number has really dropped.......our students belong to lower middle class families, their parents have constraints and they cannot afford their daughters studying for a BS for four years (Int.1).

5.3.3. Role of the lecturers in the change process

A third important perception about the change was the disregard for the role of the teachers in reforms. Three participants believed that the change was politically instigated and that HEC involved only a few important people from the elite institutions in decision-making, neglecting the opinions of the public sector teachers who have to practically implement it in classes. Maryum felt strongly about this topic:
We were not asked or informed about the whole idea. Those so-called experts who planned it do not represent us. They have no idea of the problems that we face...this kind of change is too much for them (students) to handle. There are money problems and only we know....what is needed...but well who asks teachers? (Int.1).

Five participants stated that though they had accepted the change positively and were trying to teach in the best possible way, and to improve their own skills, it could not be denied that the new curriculum was forced upon them. They were ordered to teach it without being consulted or having their views and situation taken into account. They were treated as unimportant people whose work is only limited to the classroom. They also expressed dismay at the way the affiliated universities treated the college teachers.

*We are not even involved...in day-to-day affairs....We are given orders every day and we follow...We were just told this is the change and you have to teach the new syllabus and that’s it* (Razia. Int. 1).

The participants believed that in Pakistan the bureaucrats and the politicians make policy decisions. The teachers have to teach what is given to them. They are not involved in the planning and enforcement of the educational reforms. ‘Why should I be consulted? I am just a teacher not a decision maker’ (Ahmed, Int.1).

**5.3.4. Readiness of the lecturers and the students for the change**

The participants thought that the reform policies and measures were not in accordance with the preparedness of the students and teachers for the change, resulting in problematic implementation of the policies. All the participants stated that they were not opposed to the idea of change, but it was unrealistic to expect teachers to teach something entirely different in a new system without educating or training them. It results in undue pressure on them. Similarly, they stated that if the students are not ready to assimilate what is taught to them, it is useless. Sofia gave the example of reading and listening skills in the very first semester, saying that since the students had depended on rote learning in their previous classes they did not understand the idea behind such activities. She said that it was difficult for them to quickly adapt themselves to the new ways. Maryum thought that the change was abrupt and far above the students’ level. She said:
Instead of bringing them to this level step by step you have suddenly thrown them in the middle of deep waters and you expect them to swim…is it possible? It’s like putting the cart before the horse….how can this work? (Int.1).

They also indicated that because most of the teachers have masters in English literature, they do not have expertise in language teaching, and thus training was a much-needed requirement. Two participants spoke about the ELTR (English language teacher training program for teachers) by HEC, they had heard about it, but the majority had no information about this program. Sadia asserted that ‘there should be more workshops and...programs for teachers to teach this curriculum. We’ve been listening about so many things…but where and who is being trained?’ (Int.1).

Samina pointed out that in the beginning the lecturers who had no support found it very difficult to understand how to teach in accordance with the new curriculum. She recollected the situation when the curriculum was implemented:

*It gave us sleepless nights. I used to go…..asking how to teach. It was trial and error. Those who wanted to tried, but everybody doesn't have resources and the will to do so, and this is not enough…actually we are still not clear* (Int.1).

The participants also raised the issue of teacher readiness to teach certain specific skills. Sadia said that the teachers were supposed to teach presentation skills to the students, but most of them did not know much about it and had no idea how it was taught. ‘*Those who are doing M.Phil or other things are now learning. But…this should be done before you introduce something new*’ (Int.1). Maryum also emphasised the need for teacher training; ‘*shouldn’t we be trained…to efficiently teach speaking and presentation skills to a class of 120 students in one hour?’* (Int.1).

The participants realised that the introduction of a semester system demands a change in the teaching methodology, in order to keep pace with the short time in which the teachers are supposed to teach and test a certain amount of material. They stated that they were not given any guidance about the necessary changes, rather were left on their own to work things out for themselves. Razia said that teachers being unfamiliar with the semester
system should have been trained not only in teaching but also in designing examination questions, which are different from those in the previous system. She further said, ‘the semester system has brought a new marking system………what is the arrangement for quality assurance? Shouldn’t we be trained in all these things?’ (Int.1). Ahmed drew an analogy to elaborate the idea of lack of readiness for the change. He said:

It’s like you have a cosy home and suddenly you are made to leave it and stand outside in the cold….the shock is huge. Now to reduce this shock they should have made us ready but it never happened (Int. 1).

They believed that before implementing a change of such magnitude the authorities responsible for the planning and imposition of change should have carried out a needs analysis in order to understand the needs and the readiness of the students and the teachers.

5.3.5. Readiness of the systems for the change
The participants believed that the success of any educational change depends on how ready its systems, institutions and the stakeholders are. They declared that the whole system of education was unprepared for this change, and that changing the curriculum completely without any preparation cannot raise the standards. Six participants felt that there was lack of planning, and it was a rushed implementation, and the absence of groundwork was blatantly apparent. According to Samina: ‘did they see if the system was ready…..? It’s not about changing books and increasing the years. Everything is different the examination system, the way of teaching’ (Int.1).

Moreover, they were very vocal about the weaknesses of the affiliating universities. They considered these institutions highly inefficient and ill equipped for this change. They said that the universities were as shocked as the colleges. They were suddenly asked to affiliate and manage three to four colleges. As the systems were not prepared, there was confusion:

We receive a new syllabus every day. The semester examination papers are leaked. The universities should have been trained at all levels to manage the colleges….We don’t even know if we are testing students’ English or memory. If you ask a question ‘what colour was John wearing----red- green or blue?’ What are we testing? (Abbas, Int.1).
5.3.6. Prospects of sustainability
Three participants were highly sceptical about the long-term sustainability of this large-scale change. They believed that it was politically driven, and called it a political stunt. They felt that the social and financial instability of the country along with the lack of planning might bring it to a sudden end similar to many other initiatives taken by the governments in the past. Ahmed stated that in the past the succeeding governments tended to ensure that the ambitious educational programmes launched by the previous governments are stopped, or at least disrupted and made redundant. Maryum feared that the lecturers’ hard work might go to waste if some new politician thought of some other change. She also spoke about the financial constraints caused by the political instability, which could negatively affect the success of the reform and could even lead to its suspension altogether.

5.3.7. Discussion of lecturers’ perceptions about curriculum change
The analysis of data highlighted a number of findings in answer to the second research question, which is concerned with the lecturers’ perceptions about the curriculum change.

The results presented in section 5.3.1 above point out that a majority of the participants generally perceived the idea of change as good and appropriate. These findings underscore the fact that the lecturers had an understanding of the necessity of change in an educational setting. They considered the change as much awaited and long overdue because the last curriculum was old and out dated, rigid and limited in scope, lacked innovation, and encouraged rote learning. The results also indicate that most of the English language lecturers in this study are quite progressive and believe that an educational environment should be active and vigorous, are interested in continuous professional development, and recognize the requirements of the changing international scenario. This puts the curriculum change in a positive light as it has compelled the educationalists to be dynamic and active in their own development. Interestingly, these findings are in contrast to those of Konings et al. (2007) and Choi (2008), who in their studies about reforms in schools in Netherlands and Korea respectively found that the teachers perceived the curriculum change
and reform negatively because they did not believe in the idea of the intended CLT reforms.

However, at the same time the participants considered (5.3.2) the new curriculum impractical and unrealistic since the pedagogical and logistic limitations were not regarded. This calls attention to the fact that any curriculum change in order to be successful must take into account the pedagogical realities of that society. If it is not matched to the basic realities, even though stakeholders theoretically hold positive ideas about it, the change is bound to create problems at the time of implementation, which seems to be the case in my research. These findings are in line with Orafi (2013) who in his study in the Libyan context found that changes that are not grounded in reality negatively affect implementation. Moreover, Nunan (2003), in his research in a number of countries in the Asia Pacific region, concluded that lack of consideration for the teachers, social realities, and cost can result in failure of curricular change and reform.

The present research shows that the socioeconomic and pedagogical realities of the country, the background, and the constraints of the students have not been taken into consideration while making decisions about this change. The lecturers believed that the decision-makers had little or no experience and understanding of the needs, lacks and wants of the public sector colleges. They therefore took a limited perspective of the situation and based the reforms on the student level of the elite universities, which is much higher and different from that of the public sector colleges. This might result in negative effects and instead of improving quality to the international level it could worsen the standards. Part of the problem could be put down to the failure of the decision makers to carry out a needs assessment, which is the most important aspect of any change. Ali & Baig (2012) also discussed this issue in their study about the implementation of a curriculum change in the medical colleges in Pakistan. They found that the faculty thought that the program was unsuccessful because it was not in accordance with the national needs, but was imposed by the world health organisation. Shamim (2011), debating on English for development in the Pakistani context, refers to Brock-Utne (2007b) to emphasise the point that ideas without any indigenous needs analysis can never be successful in solving the language education issues in any country. Thus, any plans or decisions
imposed from outside without realizing the needs of the individuals, the society, and organizations directly involved can seldom result in reforms which could be fruitful for the educational future of a country.

The above discussion also relates to the significant matter of a top down approach to curriculum change. Research shows that this top down method is an ineffective approach for curriculum change. Weber (2008), analysing curriculum change in South Africa, found similar results that teachers must be directly involved in proposals of change and must develop ownership of change if they are to become a reality, even those emanating from powerful sources such as the state. Sieburth (1992) also, while reviewing the curriculum change in developing countries like Papua New Guinea and Israel, found that ‘effective and innovative practices are those that promote teacher directed curriculum change and management’ (p.191). Spillane et al. (2002), while reviewing research on educational policy implementation, state that absence of teacher participation in planning may lead to inappropriate implementation on the part of the teachers. This could be due to the lack of knowledge, understanding, and skills required for successful execution of reforms. In the present study, the participants strongly felt that people remote from the real life of classroom, the politicians, bureaucrats, and the representatives of the elite universities planned the curriculum change. The lecturers felt marginalized and considered themselves passive recipients of the orders of those in power. This highlights the fact that important and lasting decisions about curriculum change cannot occur in an environment where teachers are treated merely as technicians who execute orders. Rather, they should be included in the decision making as professional decision-makers, so that they can own the curriculum.

The findings further revealed that the implementation of change was hurriedly enforced, without any long term planning. It seems that the universities that these colleges were allied to had not been properly prepared in terms of the management and the logistics to handle the responsibility of the affiliated colleges with a large population. The result was inefficiency and inadequacy. According to Sieburth (1992), the quick fix deal usually does not work and may cause further resistance. The lecturers in my setting did not resist but seemed dissatisfied for many reasons. These findings raise an important issue: that if an educational reform has to show positive results in the long run and has to
fulfil the purpose for which it is introduced, there should be long term planning based on the needs and situation analysis. Policies and changes implemented in haste without any groundwork would probably result in inefficiency and wastefulness of both human as well as economic resources.

Along with the preparedness of the systems, the issue of teacher preparedness also emerged in section 5.3.4. The findings confirmed that if the teachers lack the required skills, expertise and information, they would not be confident to put the change successfully into practice. This problem was also noted by Cohen & Hills (2001), who stated that to expect teachers to embrace new instructional approaches without sufficient training and information about the importance of such a change often results in inadequate adoption of the curriculum mandate, which in turn will affect its practical success. Moreover, the absence of such provision might result in anxiety and thus the teaching and learning process suffers, and the ultimate victims are the students. The participants of my research found themselves unprepared for the change. They were expected to change their teaching methodology, introduce new and latest techniques such as presentation skills to the learners, and were supposed to work in a semester system they were unfamiliar with, and for which they felt that they were ill equipped. These circumstances exposed them to undue stress and they were worried about the impact of the situation on the students. They were of the view that they should have been properly trained before the implementation of change.

An important perception brought forward was the lecturers’ scepticism about the viability of such a major change within the constraints caused by the political instability of the country. There is no doubt that the political scenario in Pakistan is quite volatile and creates uncertainties about the policies including the educational policies. Many governments in the past sixty-eight years have been overthrown in an untimely manner and a number of reforms initiated by them have been reversed by their successors. Aly (2007) states that rather than continuing the policies for the larger interest of the people, the government in power acts on what he calls ‘dominant political paradigm and compulsions of the day’ (p.2). Jamil (2009) also discussing the state of education in Pakistan has a similar opinion, that curriculum changes are politically instigated and their continuation is greatly dependent on the political conditions in the country. Due
to the continuous political turmoil and successive changes in government offices at the highest levels, reform policies were hurriedly imposed without having clear and well-researched implementation plans. Therefore, not one of the ordinances could complete the period necessary to bring the expected results (Aly, 2007): the educational policies, plans and programmes of 1970, 1972, 1979 and 1992 all failed in varying degrees, to fully achieve their desired objectives (Ali, 2006. p.4).

Thus, it seems quite understandable that there is always a possibility in the minds of the lecturers that things might be terminated suddenly, and this feeling of uncertainty is quite harmful to teacher motivation and enthusiasm. However, this curriculum change is now in the fifth year of its implementation, and in spite of the change in the government, so far, there are no signs that any steps are being taken to revoke the curriculum. Therefore, the fear of unsustainability in the present situation so far seems to be allayed, and it is hoped that this change would stay and would complete its anticipated period.

5.4. Lecturers’ concerns about the change implementation

The third research question is

**What are the lecturers concerns about the implementation of this change?**

It investigates the participants’ opinions on the limitations and issues in the classroom linked to the curriculum change and its implementation. Majority of the participants believed that the current realities of the English language education in Pakistan put a number of constraints on the practical implementation of change in the classrooms. The interview data yielded five recurrent themes that are presented and discussed in this section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Themes about lecturers’ concerns</th>
<th>No. of participants mentioning the theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Examinations</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lack of resources and support from the universities</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lack of teacher training</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students’ level</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Large classes</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.4.1. Examinations

Examinations emerged as an important issue in the present research. The participants questioned the ability of the assessment system to test the learners' potential and proficiency. They voiced dissatisfaction with the new arrangement, and considered the new examination system as unsuccessful in assessing Students' language proficiency, as perceived by the policy makers. Ahmed said ‘these exams don’t develop language. How can you test students’ language by asking stupid multiple-choice questions?’ (Int.2). Razia also questioned the role of the present examination system in developing learners' proficiency:

...Just see if students have been able to achieve something. It is now worse than before. In the previous system...by cramming they at least learnt something, now we don’t know how to develop their basic skills (Int. 2).

The washback effects of examinations appeared as an important theme in this category. Six participants considered the semester, and the final exams as critical constraints on the implementation of change. They were of the view that the examinations strongly influence the way English is taught in the classrooms, as teachers are constantly worried about the students’ final grades. Moreover, the lecturers themselves are evaluated based on their class results. Consequently, they spend a considerable time preparing the students only for the examinations. Thus, teaching is predominantly exam directed. Samina summarized the situation in the following words:

...whole of our teaching is focussed on exams. We don’t teach them to learn but to pass the exams...it was always like this. Students want to pass exams. Before they wanted notes. Now though it’s better because they don’t have notes but still we only teach what will come in the exams (Int. 2).

They complained that they faced huge amounts of content to be covered in a very limited time. The result was that they excluded the materials not included in the examinations. The most common activities ignored were listening and speaking. These skills are integral parts of the new curriculum, and the lecturers realized the importance of these two skills, but neglected them
nonetheless. Razia described the lack of motivation for listening and speaking in teachers and students

I want my students to learn speaking and listening......But....It will not come in the exams. Why to waste time? My students ask me…‘Miss will this come in the exam. We have so much to cover’. They want to study only what will come in the exams so why to spend time on speaking? (Int.2).

The participants also spoke about the pressure caused by limited time for the courses before the semester examinations. ‘If we introduce a concept let us try to teach it properly not be pressurized to finish the course before the exams’ (Sadia.Int.2). This pressure also affected the teaching methodology. According to Abbas, instead of following the recommended communicative teaching methodology, which demands learner independence, creativity and time, the lecturers, resorted to teacher centred teaching. This was done to save time and to ease the pressure on themselves as well as the students.

Moreover, three participants questioned the credibility of the examination system. They said that as the teacher evaluation was based on their class results, they made use of different tactics to assist students to achieve high results. Maryum said:

...some teachers asking students to leave...parts of the exam paper. They take the papers home and do them themselves. I’m not saying all do it. I don’t…but........I know some who do it. It’s the pressure; nobody wants to do this (Int.2).

The participants stressed the need to reform the examination system. Abbas believed that an examination system in which equal weight is given to speaking and listening in the grading would lead to the development of these skills, as teachers as well as learners would pay attention to them.

5.4.2. Lack of resources and support from the universities

The participants were most vociferous about this problem. They stated that the curriculum itself was quite good, but such a massive change cannot be implemented in a vacuum, that it is unrealistic to change the system suddenly, and to expect the teachers to achieve excellent results. They were not very pleased with the resources provided to them to implement the curriculum.
Seven participants criticized the books, which they thought were extremely demotivating. Sofia stated:

*The material........is very difficult and is something that students don’t enjoy........what will they do with the definitions of different literary terms........and........the book prints are really bad just photocopies that too black and white. Don’t they know it’s not going to make them interested in English?* (Int.2).

The participants also showed displeasure with the provision of resources such as projectors, computers, speakers and other equipment for teaching presentation skills and listening. Five participants stated that if the curriculum designers wanted to introduce a world-class curriculum ‘then they should have first made sure that everything is available, all resources are there’ (Maryum, Int.2). They believed that the absence of essential resources makes the implementation of any reform or change almost impossible.

All the participants mentioned the inefficiency and uncooperative attitude of the affiliated universities. Samina, Abbas, and Ahmed voiced their discontent most fervently. They said that the universities were very unsupportive towards their affiliated colleges, and that, to compel the students of the colleges with lower language proficiency to study the same syllabus as the university students with higher language proficiency and to evaluate them at the same level had created an imbalance, as pointed out by Samina:

...to think that with this new thing some magic will happen and all will........learn English is sheer stupidity. Look at our students’ backgrounds. It’s like putting all the horses and the donkeys in one line. Our students are stressed. Many have left college (Int.2).

Moreover, the universities did not treat the college lecturers with respect; rather, treated them as inefficient subordinates and any suggestion, and advice by the college lecturers was taken as an insult to the university management. The participants contended that the affiliated universities declared in the beginning that the lecturers would be given complete information about the curriculum change, and the new courses but ‘we had to find our way through hit and miss........through trial and error. We sat together to find ways to teach’ (Ahmed, Int.2). They acknowledged that a few workshops were given to them much later but they were not enough, and that such workshops should be given before launching any ambitious plans.
The lecturers also criticised the examination papers, which came from the universities. They stated that the college lecturers were told before each examination to design and to submit question papers. However, the papers that came in the examinations were always in accordance with

\[\text{...what they (university teachers) have taught their students. We are told to teach everything. Their teachers teach what they give in the exams so who is at loss? We and our students! Their elitist attitude is really very bad for us (Samina, Int.2).}\]

Two participants, however, felt that the situation had improved, as now they were more confident and had learnt how to teach in accordance with the new curriculum. ‘We know our way now, not by someone’s help but by hit and miss and by helping each other’ (Fatima, Int.2).

5.4.3. Lack of teacher training

The third issue pointed out by the participants was the lack of, and in some places, the total absence of any teacher training to assist teachers in dealing with the completely new system and new courses. According to Sofia the teachers were used to the traditional annual system for over three decades, and ‘to shock them one fine day with a brand new system and to tell them to teach it without any training is wrong’ (Int.2). Six participants recognized that the university and college lecturers were offered the funded opportunities of further studies, but stated that such programs should have been offered before the implementation of change so that they could be well prepared to take up the challenge. Moreover,

\[\text{...very few got the chance to attend any training programs. Those who did had an advantage but still it was too little too late, the system.....the exam system brings all this training to nothing (Razia, Int.2).}\]

The participants also stated that programs such as MS, MA. TESL, and M.Phil though quite useful were more theoretical and did not help teachers in their practical communicative teaching. Furthermore, they said that these opportunities were not available to everyone. Three participants were greatly dismayed over the restrictions on such opportunities due to age limit. Maryum expressed her views vehemently:

\[\text{If I’m 50 plus it means I need no development. I want to become better and...teach better but...I’m old according to them only younger people}\]
Moreover, four participants articulated problems related to the timings of the programmes. The timings made it difficult for female teachers in particular, with family responsibilities, to attend the courses. The classes were held in the late afternoon until the evening and it was impossible for many ‘to leave...in the morning and to enter home at night’ (Sofia, Int.2).

5.4.4. Students’ level

The fourth concern voiced by all eight participants was the English language proficiency level of the learners, which they considered as one of the most critical limitations. They believed that the theoretically good idea of change and communicative language teaching loses its effectiveness because of the low proficiency level of the students.

If we wanted to make our students and system world class we should have started from the grass root level. For these students it appears as if we are just ticking boxes. There is no assimilation (Sofia, Int.2).

They were of the view that the students’ low proficiency level meant they needed more time and simplified materials to be able to learn. Sadia stated that the semesters were very short and the learners did not get enough time to practise the concepts introduced to them. The new curriculum was above the majority of their students’ level and therefore negatively affected learning as compared to the old curriculum. ‘They can’t even write one line now. What have we gained?’ (Ahmed, Int.2). Samina said that the difference in the level of the affiliated universities’ students, and the college students should have been kept in mind while planning and designing the change.

5.4.5. Large classes

All eight participants also cited large classes as one of the major restrictions on their efforts to implement the curriculum change. The average class size taught by the participants was 67 students. The participants recognised the importance of communicative teaching, but strongly questioned the feasibility and the practicality of communicative activities in large classes. Samina, who was in favour of communicative language teaching, narrated the plight of the teachers making an effort to use the communicative teaching methodology:
Is it possible to teach 70 students all this in a class of sixty minutes. I really need some special training to do so. If I give my students a group activity for example, how do I monitor it...There are so many students and the seating arrangement cannot be improvised....the idea of independent learning and group.....is already dead. We are left with student teacher interaction all the time (Samina, Int.2).

Razia recounted the times when she tried to make the students do some group activity. The class became too noisy and at times even out of control. The result was that teachers from the adjacent classes were disturbed and thus she was reported to the head of the department. The participants stressed that the class size should be decreased in order to make communicative teaching effective. Fatima criticized the large classes as negatively influencing efficient learning and teaching in these words:

*It’s impossible to teach language to such a big class. For...learning to take place, the fewer the better...70 or 80 it’s a joke really. And we actually live in this joke and the best is expected from us* (Int.2).

The participants considered that the ideal number would be 20, or at the most 25 students in a language class, but considering the situation in the colleges a maximum of 35 students in a class was also acceptable. A smaller class size would give students more opportunities to use the language, and would make it possible for the teachers to attend to all the learners equally. However, they believed that realistically this would never happen and the existing state of affairs would persist.

**5.4.6. Strategies to cope with Curriculum Change**

In order to deal with the above-mentioned problems the teachers described certain strategies that they employed to cope with issues they faced. These strategies included leaving out the activities not included in the examinations, providing models of written work and questions expected in the exams, taking extra classes to complete the courses, and sharing ideas with colleagues. Sofia summed it up quite well:

*We were on our own in the dark and had to find our way....we had to get results and nobody understood our situation so we did what was suitable to us. If we have to get results, we have to get them this way or that. I don’t know if they care about the students....or just results* (Sofia, Int. 2).
5.4.7. Discussion of lecturers’ concerns about the change implementation

The findings presented in the above section provide answers to the third research question. Three main areas of lecturers’ concern have been emphasised, and will be discussed in detail in this section.

The first important concern worthy of discussion is the assessment system presented in section 5.4.1. The participants perceived the examination system as the cause of considerable worry for them. The examination system in Pakistan has long been under criticism for its failure to assess learners’ competence. Khan (2012) in her study found that in Pakistan the assessment system tests the learners’ achievement through grades and marks rather than their proficiency to use the language. Correspondingly, the participants in my study also showed dissatisfaction with the examination system. They believed, like Siddiqui (2007), that the assessment system in Pakistan has never been successful in assessing the growth of learners’ critical thinking or creativity. In the past, it was a test of memory, but the present system was even worse as the students do not use language at all.

In addition, the participants voiced concerns about the limitation of time to complete the courses before the examinations. As the teacher and student achievement and evaluation is based on grades, the resulting negative washback effect of examinations adversely affects the lecturers’ ability to fulfil the new curriculum requirements of communicative teaching. These findings match the results of some previous studies (Noble and Smith, 1994; Ahmed and Rao, 2012), which found that the teachers and learners are mainly concerned about the exam results, and this puts much pressure on them and affects their teaching methodology. The findings are also comparable to the findings of Orafi and Borg (2009), and Amengual (2010) who found that in such situations neither the teachers nor the students attend to the demands of the curriculum change, which requires communicative language teaching. A noteworthy point in this respect is that majority of the previous studies discuss the washback effect of testing mainly in relation to the high stake public examinations at different levels, such as Adnan & Mahmood (2014) about higher secondary certificate public examinations in Pakistan, Choi (2008) about

However, in my research the negative washback is concerned with both the internal semester exams as well as the final external examinations. It indicates considerable pressure on the lecturers throughout an academic year, which in some cases appears to affect their teaching and subsequently the curriculum aims. It forces the lecturers to neglect key skills, such as speaking and listening, since they are not examined, and resorting to teacher-centred teaching, and providing models of work for the examinations. These measures show that as the demands of change increase and the pressure on the teachers grows, they realise that they have to live with it (Ballet & Kelchtermans, 2008), and devise their own ways to deal with it, which might not be in accordance with the curriculum aims. Apart from these, there can be certain more serious consequences of the examination washback, for example the issue of validity and authenticity. The participants reported that some teachers might resort to unfair means such as solving the paper themselves in order to get high results for their classes. This could be due to the accountability pressures and the evaluation criterion already discussed above. This is a critical finding because if the fairness and validity of the examinations are compromised it can have serious implications, to the extent that it may lead to the collapse of the system.

The second main area of concern presented in section 5.4.2 and 5.4.3, which needs to be discussed here is the role of the teachers, and provision of support to them in curriculum change. Teachers as already discussed in chapter three are crucial to the success of any reform. The feeling that they have a role in decision-making is integral to the success of any reform (Jessop & Penny (1998). This gives them a sense of responsibility and ownership, which elevates their professional esteem and agency throughout the change process (Lasky, 2005). The participants of my study did not have this feeling of participation. They considered themselves as subordinates who are supposed to follow the commands of the controlling authority. This can result in negative influence on the success of any educational change. This is a justifiable problem as research has also proved in the past that in order to make any
educational change possible the teachers’ voices should be taken seriously and they need to be assured that they are respected and that they have a key role to play in the educational system (Carl, 2005; Troudi & Alwan, 2010).

Along with the feeling of having a role in decision-making, the need to provide continuous support to teachers is also well established (Guskey, 2002; Troudi & Alwan, 2010). If they feel marginalised, anxious, and unsupported, it will adversely affect the reform implementation. Research shows that in the initial stages of change implementation teacher anxiety, fear, stress, tension and ambiguity are common feelings (Flores, 2005; Benesch, 2012; Troudi & Alwan, 2010); however, these feelings can change with time with continuous administrative support (Troudi & Alwan, 2010). The analysis of the data showed that the feelings and attitudes of my participants towards the reform also changed in four years.

However, this was not due to institutional support, as was found in the above-mentioned studies, rather it was due to the participants’ acceptance, resignation, and familiarity with the system and courses. As the decision-makers were far removed from the public sector, therefore, there was no direct contact or support for the teachers. The result was that the lecturers had to deal with the courses handed down to them in accordance to their own understanding. Moreover, as all the teachers found themselves in a similar situation they relied on each other to express their frustration, as well as for support. Such situations develop emotional affinities (Benesch, 2012) among the teachers, which help them to overcome the initial feelings of shock and fear. They try to find solutions to the common problems by assisting each other and suggesting practical strategies. The teachers thus become a source of clarification and understanding of the change. Similar arrangements have been reported in previous research (Sahlberg, 2005; Adamson & Yin, 2008). This approach is collaborative learning, which develops positivity and an atmosphere of collegiality, beneficial for the success of educational change implementation.

In terms of the support, an important concern raised by the participants was the absence of training for the lecturers. According to Carless (2006) support for teachers in the form of training and development programmes is of crucial
importance for the successful implementation of curriculum change. The training would bring about the desired change in the teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and classroom practices. This in turn would benefit the students’ learning outcome (Ha, et al., 2004). The participants of my study appeared dissatisfied with the provision of training programmes offered to them to support their change implementation efforts due to the infrequency as well as impracticality of these programmes. This calls attention to the need, appropriateness, and suitability of the teacher training programmes. Wedell (2009) and Guskey (2002) also emphasise the need of quality and relevance of the initial training so that it becomes a part of the natural repertoire of the teachers’ skills. In the absence of clarity about the change, and lack of knowledge and practical skills needed to execute the innovations, as was the case in my context, it may result in a number of obstacles in successful implementation (Spillane et. al., 2002).

Literature on curriculum change stresses the importance of suitable training opportunities for the teachers before and during the change implementation process. Fernandez et al. (2008), Troudi & Alwan (2010), and Guskey (2002) in their studies in various contexts, also found the provision of teacher training to be significant for successful change implementation. The participants also mentioned age limitation for funding, and the problems faced especially by the female teachers in attending courses after work. These highlight the contextual and cultural aspects in Pakistan. It emphasises the importance of the personal dimension of professional development (Poulson & Avradamis, 2003), and the contextual factors (Todd, 2006). If these are not taken into consideration, it could negatively affect teacher motivation and eventually the change implementation. In this respect, it is important to note that, in Pakistan, there is almost a non-availability of institutionalized arrangement for providing teacher training (Hussain, 2009). Though the education policies through years have emphasised the need for quality teacher education, practically, the teacher training programmes have not been very successful in being responsive to the needs of the teachers (ibid); indeed, there is a dearth of research on the tertiary level teachers’ views about their professional development needs (Chaudary, 2011). My findings support this need for teacher development programmes, which meet the demands of the ever-changing requirements of modern times, and the demands of the new curriculum in particular.
The third main area of concerns to discuss is the broad concept of context and culture presented in sections 5.4.4 and 5.4.5. The issues of the difference of competence level among the public sector students and those of the affiliated universities, the problem of large classes, and lack of resources and support raised by the participants highlight the importance of understanding and accommodating the local context for the successful implementation of curriculum change. Any reform that clashes with the context and the ground realities cannot be successfully implemented. In my study, the participants perceived the low proficiency level of their students and the difference of competence between them and the affiliated university students to be an important constraint on their classroom practice, and for the effective implementation of the reform. Pakistan’s intricate class-based education system results in a classification based on elite English medium schools and public sector Urdu medium schools (see chap.2).

Although the government has recently made provision for starting English language education for all at grade 1 (Government of Pakistan, 2009), most of the public sector college students belong to the cohorts who started learning English from grade 6. It is not surprising that the students from the English medium schools achieve better grades and generally go to the affiliated universities. This significant variation in the linguistic background leads to an unfair divide, and the public college students experience language problems, which can largely hamper their achievements. In consequence, the teachers might resort to traditional ways of teaching, because they fear that their students are too weak to be independent learners, as directed by the reform, and need more assistance. These findings correspond with the findings of a number of studies such as Blignaut (2008), who found that in South Africa the biggest constraint to the change implementation was the mismatch between the reforms and the low competency of the learners. The issue of the two parallel systems of education in Pakistan, which results in educational, class and economic inequalities, has been a subject of much research (Khattak, 2014; Shamim, 2007; Mansoor, 2005; Rahman, 2004). However, it has not been discussed before in the context of change at the tertiary level, as it has been done in the present research. This concern underscores the importance
of the level of learners as an important barrier to the success of any kind of educational reform.

Another important contextual constraint in implementing the change highlighted by the participants was teaching large classes, which hindered the effective communicative methodology imposed by the curriculum change planners. The challenges involved in such a situation could be quite daunting for the teachers. This area has been researched in various Asian contexts, such as Kam, (2002); Littlewood, (2007); O’ Sullivan, (2006); and in the Pakistani context Malik, (1996); Siddiqui, (2007); and Shamim, (2006) are some of the researchers who have explored the challenges of large classes and the ways to deal with them.

There are varying opinions about the number of students in a class to be called a large class. There can be no quantitative definition of what constitutes a large class, as opinions about this differ from context to context (Hayes, 1997), but for the purpose of this research, a large class refers to classes of 65 and above as the participants mentioned and I observed myself. Whatever number comprises a large class, my participants’ perceptions show that the problems associated with it are physical, psychological, and technical. Large classes with seats arranged in rows restrain the movement both of the teacher and the students, which leads to a lack of interaction and attention to individual students. The teachers might see the students as faces, and not as individuals. This could result in a lack of rapport between both the parties, and consequently teacher’s lack of knowledge about the needs of the learners.

Teaching large classes might also lead to mental and physical exhaustion for the teachers. Speaking aloud to convey instructions and explanations, and striving to complete tasks in the 60 minutes lesson can be physically draining. Moreover, marking a large number of assignments on a regular basis not only can be strenuous but also can negatively influence effective feedback. This could also adversely affect student participation in the group work and pair work activities, as there would be lack of monitoring by the teachers. Xu (2001) found similar issues in a study in colleges in China. Furthermore, there are discipline issues to be dealt with. Although this problem has been researched both internationally as well as in the context of Pakistan, there has not been
much research so far in the area in relation to the curriculum change at the higher education level.

One more contextual issue that arose in the findings presented in 5.4.2 is about the provision of resources. Orafi (2013) emphasised the need of developing a proper infrastructure and teacher support for the success of any change. My findings show that lack of resources and absence of support led to huge challenges for the lecturers and resulted in drastically undermining the implementation of the desired change. Resources like books and materials play a pivotal role in the achievement of a change plan. The results of the study demonstrate that the participants found the textbooks uninspiring and dull in content, as well as in presentation. Although they did not deem the previous books as perfect, but they considered them comparatively better than the new ones, which they found difficult and decontextualized, resulting in lack of motivation among the learners. This lack of motivation could seriously impede learning. These findings are in line with previous studies on motivation as well as the importance of instructional materials. Dornyei (2001) and Sakai & Kituchi (2009) found that textbooks play an important role in either motivating or demotivating the learners and the teachers, and those materials that deter motivation could hinder teaching and learning.

Apart from the instructional materials, other important resources and equipment also need to be made available. The findings show that the absence of equipment restricts the lecturers’ ability to teach certain important skills. Monk & Hodges (2000), Vally (2003) and Blignaut (2008) found similar results in their studies on curriculum change in South Africa. Salahuddin (2013) and Imtiaz (2014) found the constraints on teachers and learners due to the lack of resources a common situation in the public sector institutions in Bangladesh and Pakistan respectively. The situation shows that it is a common scenario in developing countries where focus on policy is intensive; however, the provision of proper infrastructure is overlooked. It could be because in most developing countries like Pakistan, policy decisions are politically instigated without any needs analysis, and funding plans. Moreover, due to the deficiency of resources there is lack of investment in education, which is a significant impediment for adequate infrastructure for implementation of reforms.
The above discussion answered the third research question about the lecturers' concerns related to the implementation of the curriculum change in the classrooms. In this regard, a number of important issues were highlighted which could restrict the successful implementation of curriculum reforms. These include contextual, psychological, and administrative factors. The absence of adequate training, support, and resources for the teachers can lead to a number of stresses on the teachers and thus could constrain their efforts to implement change in classrooms. Moreover, the pressure of teaching to the examination and the fear of negative evaluation could adversely influence desired implementation of change and reform. Therefore, there is an urgent need to address these issues in order to make the curriculum change effective and fruitful.

5.5. Lecturers’ classroom practices and curriculum change

This section presents the findings in answer to the fourth research question:

*How do lecturers’ classroom practices relate to their beliefs and perceptions about curriculum change and the issues in its implementation?*

This question seeks to explore the relationships between the teachers’ beliefs, their perceptions about the curriculum change and the issues faced by them in the practical implementation of change in the classrooms. In order to elucidate these connections I will first present the observation data, compare it with the beliefs and perceptions articulated by the participants in the interviews, and then will discuss the significant issues in this section.

Each class was observed for the whole lesson time i.e. for one hour. In the next section I will explain the relationship between the lecturers' espoused beliefs and opinions with their actual teaching practices. A summary of the classroom observations is presented in (App.11) in order to give a clear synopsis of what characterised each lecturer’s teaching.

5.5.1. Participants beliefs and classroom practices

In terms of the participants’ beliefs, four main areas appeared in the interview data. These are: the role of teachers in class; teaching methodology; relative importance of the four language skills; and the use of L1 in class. The classroom observations indicated a mixture of consistency and inconsistencies
between the lecturers’ espoused beliefs and classroom practices. The practices of Abbas, Fatima, Sadia, and Sofia were consistent with the metaphors they used for themselves in their interviews. They called themselves guides and facilitators. Their classes were mostly learner centred, and the teachers acted as guides to facilitate learning. In contrast, the atmosphere in the classes of Ahmed, Samina, Maryum, and Razia, who called themselves facilitators, helpers and friends were teacher centred and all the activities were directed and controlled by the teachers. There were very few pair or group activities. Class interaction was mainly between the teacher and the students only. The teacher would frequently stop the students in the middle of an activity to correct their mistakes. When the participants were questioned in the second interview, they justified their actions based on the shortage of time, student level, and large classes. ‘I don’t have time to waste. I can’t let them do stuff which they will not and cannot do. I tried once or twice but in the end; I had to do it again’ (Ahmed, Int.2). Razia considered the class size as the cause of teacher centred teaching: ‘in such a big class it’s really difficult. Discipline, noise…’ (Int.2). Interestingly Maryum and Razia had also used the metaphors of commander and knowledge transmitters for themselves, which was more visible in their classroom attitude and practices.

Concerning methodology, Ahmed and Maryum expressed clear preference for the traditional teacher centred teaching. The class observation found consistency between their beliefs and pedagogical practices. Four participants Abbas, Sofia, Sadia and Fatima strongly believed in student centred teaching and in their lessons much group work, pair work and process approach was noticeable. However, two participants, Razia and Samina emphatically spoke about the importance of communicative language teaching. However, during the observation the practical implementation of their beliefs was not visible. In Razia’s class where she was teaching oral presentation skills, the teacher did most of the explanation on the board for more than 20 minutes. The students were then given 15 minutes to prepare their presentations in pairs. There was lack of monitoring, and only two pairs presented their work. The participant repeatedly stopped the presenters and corrected their grammar and pronunciation. Samina’s lesson on reading was also largely teacher centred, with a few pair work activities. When questioned about this contradiction, they
explained their actions on the pretext of examination pressure, and the student level. Samina seemed to lack an understanding of the concept of communicative teaching. She said that it ‘is always the explanation that should come first and then exercises’ (Int.2). She believed that what she did in her class was consistent with the communicative teaching that she advocated in her first interview.

Another feature of beliefs about teaching observed in the practices was preparing students for the examinations. Razia, Ahmed, and Maryum explicitly spoke in favour of this belief in their interviews. Nevertheless, the classroom teaching of most of the participants was generally influenced by the examinations. The students also repeatedly asked their teachers if the activities or texts they were doing in the class would be included in the examinations, such as Fatima and Razia’s classes. When asked during the second interview Razia explained that the teachers as well as the students were mainly interested in what is tested in the examinations and that they did not have time for things that are not tested.

The third area appertains to the importance of different language skills, five participants believed in the importance of developing reading and writing skills. They thought that it would help the students in their academic as well as employment endeavours. Though the participants spoke of developing these skills, I observed that in majority of the lessons, the focus was only on completing the material in the books. Writing methodology seemed to follow a product approach, with only a few participants using a process approach to writing. Maryum justified her approach during the second interview in these words: ‘we have big classes and….little time. We can’t waste it all on brainstorming and other stuff. They have to sit in exams you see’ (int.2). Sofia, on the other hand, when asked how she was able to manage the process approach she said ‘we have problems no doubt, at least I try as much as possible and believe me the results will be better’ (int.2). Speaking and listening skills were considered important but there was inconsistent evidence in teachers’ practices. Fatima’s interview indicated her belief in the importance of speaking and listening skills. However, her classroom practices were to some extent in contrast to her beliefs. The speaking activity, which was very short, failed to involve the students and to get
any response from them. Moreover, it was suddenly aborted. She also skipped the listening activity and moved on to the text in her reading lesson. When asked about the discrepancy she said that the level of the students, time constraints and lack of availability of equipment were the causes of ignoring the speaking and listening skills. Sadia and Abbas, the other two participants who believed in the importance of speaking and listening depicted consistency in their beliefs and practices especially about speaking. The classroom observation of these lecturers showed that though they were teaching writing they tried to encourage students to share and discuss ideas during brainstorming.

In terms of their beliefs about English language teaching in Pakistan, the participants also spoke about the use of L1 versus TL in the classroom. Four participants’ interview responses showed that they believed in the exclusive use of the TL in the classroom. However, the observation revealed that all the participants used Urdu along with the TL. When questioned, Sofia summed it up ‘we believe in it surely and I even want to and try to use concept check questions but the learner level is the biggest problem’ (Int.2), interestingly she did not use a single concept check question in her lesson.

5.5.2. Participants perceptions and concerns about the curriculum change in relation to their class practices

The findings of the class observations related to the participants’ perceptions about the curriculum change and the issues that concern them are being presented jointly because of some overlap between the two. Teachers’ practices in relation to their perceptions about the curriculum change presented mixed results. The majority of the participants thought that the inclusion of all four language skills in the curriculum was much needed. However, during the observation, I witnessed that there was a predominance of reading and writing in the skills focussed upon. Neither the books contain any speaking activities nor did the majority of the teachers improvise any. The students were told to read from the text and answer the questions at the end in pairs in the reading passages. Samina, who stated that there is a need to bring a change in the education system in order to compete with the world through the introduction of a communicative approach, conducted a teacher-centred lesson. Ahmed even distributed samples of written work and told the students to learn them, and to
make the required changes in the examinations. Maryum made students fill in the gaps in the writing activity. When asked about the practices Ahmed stated, ‘they are weak. We can’t waste time in trying…It’s above them! Then I just give handouts’ (Int.2). In fact, in five of the eight lessons that I observed, speaking and listening skills were generally ignored. The justifications in this regard were the examination pressure, absence of any such activities in the books, and the level of the students. Most of the participants were of the view that they had to teach in a certain way due to the students’ learning background. Only three participants, while having reservations about the ability and the interest of the students in communicative approach, due to their Urdu medium and rote learning backgrounds, adopted this approach. Sofia, Abbas, and Sadia contrived speaking activities during their writing lessons and there was considerable student participation.

Regarding the participants’ views on the washback effects of the examination system, the class observations showed that the teaching of the majority of the participants was focussed on the examinations. At least three participants referred to the examinations a number of times during their lessons. Samina, in order to get the students’ attention, told them that if they would not learn how to answer the comprehension questions, they would not achieve good grades in the semester exams. Furthermore, participants’ perspectives that students are focussed on grades and examinations could also be seen in the class. In Fatima’s class, the students continually asked if the reading text being done in class would be included in the exams. In Razia’s class, the students in the very beginning asked if the presentations skills would be tested in the examinations. In Sofia’s class, also the students asked about the topics included in the exams. It should also be kept in mind that while the students repeatedly asked about the examinations, the assessments were not very near. When asked, Samina, Razia and Maryum stated that the reason behind this situation is that grades, evaluations, and course completion put much pressure on the teachers and the students. It is so because ‘the whole education system is wrapped in exams and marks’ (Samina, Int. 2).

With regard to the issues of preparedness of the systems and the lack of resources, the observation indicated that the resources were undeniably scant, or sub-standard. The books were not of a very good quality in presentation. In
places some words were missing or the pictures were blurred (App. 7). There was no equipment available in any classroom for listening or presentation skills. Razia taught presentation skills on the board and Sofia did a listening activity with her students using her mobile phone. When asked about this later, the participants said, ‘we are trying to make the best of the worse situation. This is all that we can do’ (Razia, Int. 2).

The low proficiency level of the students was another issue noticed during the observations. Almost all the participants were of the opinion that the demands of the new curriculum were unrealistic because of the level of the students in the public sector colleges. The observation data supported the teachers’ concerns and demonstrated that most of the students could not speak even a few sentences of English. They spoke in L1 with their teachers as well as during the group and pair work. Independent work also seemed difficult for them. When Sofia tried to encourage her students to work independently, they seemed unsure and constantly asked for the teacher’s assistance. Some did not complete their work and kept it for homework. When asked about this, Sofia said that the students are ‘not used to work on their own…they try to take work home because there they can get someone’s help to complete it’ (Int. 2).

All the eight participants had voiced concerns about large classes. There were between 65 to 75 students in all the classes observed. The teachers had to speak loudly to be heard at the back. The classes were generally noisy and the students in the back seats, where it was difficult for the teacher to reach, seemed uninterested. In one class, I noticed some students looking at a magazine while the teacher was giving instructions. The teacher did not take notice of the situation and only communicated with the students in the front rows. When asked about this, Samina said: ‘the classes are too big. We can’t pay equal attention to all. There will always be some, who will not be interested. We can’t do more in one hour’ (Samina, int.2). On the other hand, in spite of the large classes two participants involved the whole class in activities. The classes were noisy, but mainly due to the excitement created by the activities. Abbas explained the situation in these words, ‘it is hard no doubt, but…we have to try to create interest. Believe me these children can be motivated, but it’s the teachers motivation that should come first’ (int. 2).
With reference to the strategies used by the lecturers, the classroom practice showed that three teachers skipped some materials in the books, while few lecturers provided ready-made work for examination preparation, such as Maryum and Ahmed. They supported their actions because of time and examination pressure: ‘we don’t have time, they are weak, and the exams are just around the corner always. We can't keep waiting for them to learn which I’m sorry to say in these conditions won’t happen’ (Maryum, int. 2).

5.5.3. Discussion of lecturers’ classroom practices in relation to their beliefs and perceptions

The accounts in the two segments above illustrate the participants’ practical implementation of the curriculum change in the classrooms in relation to their beliefs and perceptions. I observed Semester 1 and Semester 3 classes, as the lecturers teaching these semesters were available at the time of data collection. The aims of these semesters can be seen in (App.6). In this part, I will discuss the key findings that emerged from the data in relation to my fourth research question. I will look at the lecturers’ beliefs and perceptions, along with the role of the contextual factors that influenced the lecturers’ implementation of the curriculum change.

This curriculum change was implemented in 2010, and since it is relatively a new development, it has not been subject to any type of evaluation, especially in terms of classroom implementation. However, it should be noted that in Pakistan classroom execution of change is often neglected (Siddiqui, 2007). The policy decisions are taken at the governmental level and are politically motivated (Jamil, 2009) and attention is not given to effective implementation of these policies (Mehru-Nisa, 2009). Considering the central role of teachers in the implementation of change, this study aimed to investigate the lecturers’ practices in classrooms in relation to their beliefs, perceptions and their concerns about the change.

The relationship between lecturers’ beliefs and classroom practices strongly influences the whole process of teaching and learning. Beliefs influence the way teachers perceive the reforms. The implementation of any curricular change greatly depends upon the extent to which it is accommodated within the teachers’ cognition (Allen, 2002; Breen et al., 2001), combined with the
contextual factors involved such as teacher’s skills, class size, learners' proficiency level, and teaching materials (Borg, 2003; Phipps, 2010; Orafi, 2013). The participants used metaphors to represent their beliefs about their identities as teachers (section 5.5.1). The practices of four participants were clearly consistent with these metaphors. Similarly, more than half of the participants’ espoused beliefs about classroom methodology were visible in the observations. Two participants clearly showed preference in their interviews for teacher-centred teaching, which was in contrast with the aims of the curriculum reforms and this belief was observable in their practices. Likewise, four participants who strongly believed in communicative language teaching tried to implement it in their classrooms. In addition, beliefs about the importance of different language skills and use of L1 in the classrooms were noticed to be consistent with the classroom practices of some of the participants. This confirms the argument that teachers’ classroom decisions are based on their beliefs about teaching and learning, also found by Johnson, (1992 & 1994), Attardo & Brown (2005), Jones & Fong (2007), Richardson (1996) and Borg (2003 & 2011). These studies reported a significant interaction amongst the teachers’ beliefs and their classroom practices. The practices of my participants reflect the findings of Johnson’s (1992) study, which concluded that teachers’ practices are strongly influenced by their theoretical orientations, and that “ESL teachers teach in accordance with their theoretical beliefs” (p.10).

However, as mentioned above, this relationship is not a straightforward one. It is far more multifaceted and complicated. The findings of this study have also emphasised the complex nature of the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and the practical implementation of any reform. Four participants (5.2.2) used the metaphors of guides, facilitators, friends, and helpers to describe their roles in the classroom, but it appeared that their stated identities did not match with their classroom practices. Instead of being friends and guides who would facilitate learners’ independent learning, they seemed to give information in the way that precluded independent thought or effort. Moreover, interestingly some of these participants used contradictory metaphors to describe their roles. Their classroom practices depicted them as controlling the learning process. The contradiction between the stated metaphors and practices could be because the participants’ metaphors might be influenced by some biases, and thus might not represent their actual thinking (Miller et al., 2002) or it might indicate
the contextual pressures which interfere with their ability to teach in the way they would like to teach. It could perhaps be due to the lack of understanding of their own identities and roles as teachers; or they like to present themselves in some idealised roles; or it may well reflect the fact that they take on different roles at different times in the teaching process. As I observed one class of each participant, I might have witnessed only one aspect of their teaching roles.

Along with metaphors, there were inconsistencies between the participants’ beliefs and practices concerning the teaching methodologies, significance of teaching speaking and listening skills, and the use of L1 in class. These conflicts could be due to the difference in the core and peripheral beliefs of the participants. For example, Razia’s peripheral beliefs (5.2.2) might be in favour of communicative teaching, which was also the aim of the curriculum reform, so she spoke fervently in favour of learner independence and student centred teaching. However, her core beliefs, which are more stable (Phipps and Borg, 2009), could have influenced her classroom behaviour, which was largely teacher-centred. This reflects the idea that the core beliefs of the teachers are those applied to practice, while the peripheral beliefs that are theoretical are seldom reflected in their practical behaviour, the goals, and intentions of a reform or change notwithstanding. These findings are consistent with past research (Graden, 1996; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Hiep, 2007; Van der et al., 2008), which found that though the teachers expressed certain beliefs, their actual classroom practices were at variance with those beliefs.

This discrepancy could be due to the teachers’ lack of consciousness of their real beliefs (Nespor, 1987). It could also be owing to poor understanding of what communicative teaching is; as reported above, one of my participants believed that her practices were in accordance with communicative language teaching, although her own words, as well as the observation demonstrated conflicting results. This also points to lack of teacher training. Alternatively, it could be that these teachers really believe in the importance of communicative methodology, but practically they found that it would be more beneficial for their students to teach them in a teacher-centred class. Phipps & Borg (2009) reported similar results; while their participants believed in group work, they found that teacher-student interaction was more advantageous for their students. This highlights the role of contextual factors in the disparities between
beliefs and practices (Phipps, 2010; Borg, 2003). Hiep (2007) also found that though the teachers’ beliefs were consistent with the CLT that was introduced by the curriculum reform in Vietnam; the contextual factors hindered the practical implementation of the reforms. The discrepancies related to the importance of speaking and listening skills voiced by my participants, and their actual classroom practices could again be due to the differences in core and peripheral beliefs. They may also be due to the contextual and pragmatic factors such as the need to finish course material quickly before the examinations, and the low proficiency of the students. It may of course be possible that though, they did not do any speaking or listening activities in the one class that I observed, they practice these skills at other times.

Another example of inconsistencies in beliefs and practices was the use of L1 or the target language in classrooms. Although the use of English by the teachers is not one of the principles of the curriculum reform (App.6), the fact that English is supposed to be the medium of instruction at this level (Aly, 2007) implies that the use of TL in class would be recommended. Although half of the participants believed in exclusive use of English, and concept check questions rather than explaining meanings in L1, all eight teachers used L1 in class along with the TL. This could indicate the teachers’ own lack of confidence in speaking English in the class. Research has shown that anxiety and lack of confidence to use English in the class is quite common in non-native English teachers. Horwitz (1996) and Kim (2004) found that non-native teachers suffer from emotional stress and lack of confidence, which might inhibit a teacher’s ability to exercise her/his role effectively in class. Coleman (2010), discussing the problems in English language teaching in Pakistani schools, points out that English teachers in Pakistan resort to using Urdu or other local languages due to their own lack of competence and confidence.

However, this did not seem to be the case with my participants. They seemed to have a good command of the TL, but probably used the L1 due to some other circumstantial pressures, or for purely practical reasons. The participants might theoretically believe in using English only, but practically they found using L1 more useful for communicating with the learners. This relates to the influence of the contextual factors, the fact that along with other elements any educational change in order to be successful requires compatibility between the
policy directives and the contextual realities. If the reality on the ground is in conflict with the policy expectations, no matter how perfect the curriculum draft might be, the execution tends to be ineffective. The findings of this study showed that there was discord between the demands of the change policy and the context, which in turn influenced the implementation.

The participants’ perspectives about change and the issues faced by them while practically implementing it in the classrooms (presented in sections 5.3 and 5.4) also underline the differences between the theoretical expectations of the policy-makers and the actual realities. The study highlighted the relationship between the participants’ views and classroom implementation based on the contextual factors such as level of the learners, examinations, availability of resources and support, large classes, and the lack of teacher training.

One major factor, which surfaced in the interviews, was the participants’ perceptions of change based on the proficiency level of the public sector college students. The curriculum should be in accordance with the level and needs of the learners. If there is a mismatch between the expectations of the curriculum planners and the level of the learners, the results are generally not very positive. According to my participants, the public college students lacked adequate English language skills for the demands of the curriculum because of their Urdu medium background. Previous research has also shown that the learner level at the undergraduate level in Pakistan in the majority of the public sector colleges is quite low (Malik, 1996; Siddiqui, 2007). Mansoor, (2005) in her nationwide research with students and teachers in the public and private sector higher education institutes found that the students in the public sector colleges faced severe difficulties in English language.

This lack of language proficiency negatively affects curriculum change implementation. Li (2002) reported a similar impact of the students’ low English proficiency on the teachers’ implementation of the curriculum reform in Hong Kong. Doukas (1995) also found that Greek students’ limited command over English made it difficult for the teachers to implement communicative language
teaching. This issue is quite complex, and calls into question not only the feasibility of the curriculum change for the context, but also the whole process of curriculum planning and implementation. This discord between the curriculum aims and the student level might be due to the curriculum designers’ ignorance of the level of the learners. If this was the case then the very basis of change becomes open to discussion. Was there an underlying agenda, or a political tactic behind this change and reform? Few participants believed that it was a political stunt. Or else it could be the weakness of the teachers themselves. They might be comfortable with the previous curriculum, found it difficult to cope with the new one, and thus blamed the curriculum planners for their difficulties to implement the curriculum. There could be multiple reasons for this, including the ones mentioned above along with some contextual limitations. These are important questions and need to be answered in detail; I could only raise them as one part of my study. It is not possible to discuss them here at length because of the nature of the study.

The low English proficiency level of the learners also affects the extent to which English can be used in the classroom. In spite of being in favour of using the TL, lecturers were forced to resort to L1 because their students could not understand the concepts and instructions in English. The teachers realised the importance of using English in the classroom but they were also aware of their students’ limitations. This was clearly visible during the class observations. The students seldom used any sentences in English either with the teacher or with each other. The participants thus found it difficult to follow the directives of the new curriculum with regard to the use of English in the classroom.

The problem of the students’ level becomes more complex when there is a vast difference between the proficiency levels of the students of the top universities with English medium background, and those studying in public sector affiliated colleges with Urdu medium instructional background. All these students follow the same curriculum. This disparity in the proficiency levels creates complications for the students as well as the teachers in the implementation of the expected changes. Mansoor (2004) has pointed to the diversity of the educational backgrounds of the Pakistani students at the university level. Wang (2008), researching in China, also found this difference in the level of the students, and its negative effects on the curriculum implementation. She
reported that the teachers working in average universities in China believed that those teaching in the top universities had an advantage over them, as the student level was much better. The similar concerns of my participants were obvious as the students’ proficiency level was observed to be very low, and as I have myself taught in one of the good universities, therefore I could see this difference. In Pakistan, the universities plan and draft the courses. These courses are then implemented in these universities as well as the affiliated colleges where the students’ proficiency level is different. The universities do not realize this difference and as a result, the students and the teachers of the colleges have to suffer.

It is important to note that an educational change is not merely a change in teaching materials, it is actually a kind of social change, and in order to enact the social change the planners should carry out needs analysis to examine the cultural, social, and pedagogical realities of the context where it is being implemented. The students of the public colleges had a rote learning background as pointed out by the research participants in 5.4.4 and 5.5.2. They were used to an annual system of examinations in which they depended on cramming notes provided by the teachers, or other sources and thus could pass the examinations. Siddiqui (2007) states that Pakistani students ‘instead of attempting to learn the language skills, (they) consume their time in rote learning’ (p.150). The lecturers too were accustomed to this type of educational culture. In this situation, the curriculum imposed on them overnight without any prior preparation or groundwork was bound to cause problems. Previous research in the area of curriculum change has called attention to the problems caused by this incongruity between the context and the change. According to Phillipson (1992), curriculum reform projects in the developing countries have been increasingly mismatched to the realities on the ground in these countries. Wedell (2003) discussing the changes in the language curriculum in Japan refers to Pennycook (1989), who states that approaches to language learning and teaching process, adopted without considering the classroom realities and educational cultures into which they are being introduced, will result in failure. Thus if the new curriculum, no matter how good it might seem on paper, does not match the educational culture and the learner and teacher beliefs and pedagogical realities, it is bound to be resisted and thus be unsuccessful. This
issue relates to Holliday’s (1992) metaphor of tissue rejection discussed in chapter 3.

Another important concern of the participants was the nature and effects of examinations on teaching and learning. It was witnessed in the classroom observations (5.5.2) that the students as well as teachers were mainly focussed on what would be included in the examinations. Not only did the teachers regulate their teaching in accordance with the exams, but the students as well kept referring to and asking about the topics included in the examinations. If the emphasis of the whole process of teaching and learning is on the preparation for the examinations, and the resulting grades, it affects teaching overtly and covertly (Prodromou, 1995). This negative washback of examinations leads to the reduction and narrowing of the learning time, as the teachers limit their teaching to those topics and skills, which are tested, and tend to ignore those that are not tested. Thus in this situation the aim of the teachers and the learners is to prepare for the examinations (Murray, 2005). The result is that the quality of the instruction in the classroom is undermined (Hill, 2004). Siddiqui (2007), discussing the Pakistani educational scenario, states that the assessment system affects the process of teaching and learning in a number of ways. Firstly, teachers’ energies are completely utilized in preparing students to get good grades, and secondly, it negatively influences the teachers’ own view of teaching. A similar situation was visible in the present research. The main aim of my participants also seemed to be to assist students to achieve good grades. They were not concerned with developing the learners’ language skills, but with helping them pass the examinations.

The participants also seemed dissatisfied with the nature of the examinations as a reflection of the students’ learning. That is, even if the students obtain high grades, they cannot apply the language skills proficiently in their academic or occupational pursuits. This mars the aims of the curriculum. The potential of the examinations to measure the students’ proficiency in terms of the curriculum change have been discussed by Wang (2008). She found a similar situation in her research in China; the students, while achieving good scores in the examinations, could rarely use the language fluently in accordance with the expectations of the curriculum reform. In Pakistan, Khan (2012) has discussed the problem of lack of proficiency of the learners in spite of achieving high
grades. In her research with postgraduate students who were also schoolteachers, she also found that the examinations fail to test the development of learners’ proficiency. Thus, the result is that the development of basic skills for the learners to apply in real life in the future remains unattended. The inflated role played by the examinations had another effect. It emerged that the teachers are evaluated based on their class results. This led the majority of the participants to be only interested in the tested skills, and a few to even resort to inappropriate practices. This situation not only narrows down the curriculum, but it might also lead to consequences that are more serious, such as controversial validity and authenticity of the examination system. This would fail the very aim of the curriculum change and would harm the education system in the country.

A further contextual issue raised by the participants presented in 5.4.5 and 5.5.2 is concerned with the number of students in the class. Research has shown that language teachers face many problems in large classes including physical constraints, lack of individual attention, student motivation, and feedback. It can hinder the process of teaching and learning (Harmer, 2000). Wang (2008) also found that in China large classes caused a number of problems related to management, pedagogical and affective aspects of teaching and learning. In Pakistan numerous studies (Shamim, 2006; Siddiqui, 2007; Vazir & Wheeler, 2004) have discussed the issue of large classes. The issue has become more complex as the new curriculum requires communicative teaching, which is extremely challenging for the teachers in large classes. My participants found it very difficult to carry out communicative activities due to the constraints caused by the large classes. The lack of student interest, especially of those sitting at the back where the lecturers found it difficult to reach, marked these classes. According to Wang (2008), there should be at the most thirty students in each language class for successful communicative teaching. However, in the Pakistani public sector colleges this does not seem possible due to the economic and logistic constraints.

Along with the large classes, the lack of resources was another factor, which multiplied the problems of the lecturers to implement the curriculum properly. There was an absence of important equipment required to teach certain
important skills. The uninteresting, poorly presented books (App.7) further increased the problems. It seems that lack of resources is a common feature in the English language classrooms in developing countries. O’ Sullivan (2002) in the Namibian context found that the reform could not be properly implemented because of insufficient resources. Segovia and Hardison, (2009) also reported that the lack of adequate resources led to a number of constraints in the implementation of communicative reforms in Thailand. Siddiqui (2007) also mentions the lack of resources as a noteworthy limitation of the EFL scenario in Pakistan.

Finally, it is undeniable that teachers hold the key not only to implement any educational change, but also to sustain it. They turn a policy plan into a practical reality (Hussain, 2009). Any change introduced will not be successful unless the teachers ‘have a continuous access to the opportunities to learn and be seriously engaged in expanding intellectual world’ (Boyer, 1987. p.10). The observation data of this study revealed that the majority of the participants lacked the practical knowledge of communicative language teaching that they were expected to execute in classes. The result was that they resorted to teacher-centred lecture style of teaching they were used to from before. They also mentioned in their interviews that they lacked support in terms of their voices being heard, teaching resources, and training opportunities to update their knowledge and practices to meet the demands of the change. Most participants had studied English literature at the Masters’ level and found it very challenging to teach language, which requires specific skills. There is a lack of training facilities for the tertiary teachers, and the sporadic training facilities that exist are generally not of high standard (Hussain, 2009), or are beset with a number of restrictions such as age limitation, distances, and timing. When teachers are not well equipped with the latest English language teaching methodologies the implementation of the curriculum aims is bound to be deterred. It is noteworthy that three participants practised the expected communicative teaching reasonably well in spite of all the issues related to the level of the students, large classes, and lack of resources. The reason was that they had recently completed some teacher development and TESOL Master’s level courses, which assisted them in practising communicative language teaching. The enthusiasm of these participants was also much higher than that
of the other participants. This enthusiasm was being transferred to the students as well who seemed considerably interested in learning. This difference highlights the importance of the teacher preparation and training for the success of any educational reform or change.

5.6. Summary

In this chapter, I have presented and discussed the beliefs and perceptions of the English language lecturers about language teaching and curriculum reform. These were also discussed in relation to the issues faced by the lecturers, and to their actual implementation of change in their classrooms. The findings reveal that the classroom practices coordinated with their beliefs and perceptions to some extent; nevertheless, there were a number of contradictions, which were mainly due to the differences between the participants’ core and peripheral beliefs and the limitations caused by the contextual factors.

In the next chapter, I will make some recommendations relating to the issues discussed in this chapter, and will examine the implications for future research in the field.
CHAPTER VI

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION
6.1. Introduction
In this final chapter, I will first summarise the critical points emerging from my thesis and then discuss how the knowledge of these points can help improve the implementation of curriculum change in Pakistan. Following this, I will outline the contributions of my study to the body of research in the field of curriculum change implementation. I then offer suggestions for further research and conclude the chapter with some personal reflections on this work.

6.2. Summary of the main findings
As a teacher practitioner myself, I believe that teachers are at the heart of teaching and learning and thus of any educational change and reform. This position is strongly supported by Fullan (2001a, p.115) who notes that, ‘Educational change depends on what teachers do and think- it is as simple and as complex as that’. Given this key role of teachers, the purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between the lecturers’ beliefs, perceptions, the issues faced by them and their actual implementation of English language curriculum change in the public sector colleges in Pakistan. The aim was to gather information about the lecturers’ beliefs regarding the necessity, appropriateness, and quality of this reform in the contextual realities of Pakistan. This was carried out through interviews and classroom observations.

The findings indicate a complex relationship between the participants’ beliefs and perceptions about the English language curriculum change and their practices within the contextual limitations faced by them in their context. The participants were generally positive about the concept of curriculum change, as they considered English language vital for the individual and national progress; however, the study points to an overall limited uptake of the communicative curriculum change by the English language lecturers in public colleges. The research highlights a range of interacting factors, which caused the divergence between the intended curriculum and that which the lecturers enacted. These factors were related not only to the lecturers’ beliefs about English teaching and learning, but also noticeable were the external factors such as the level of the students, educational culture, pressure of the examinations, absence of
resources and support, and lack of teacher training. The study indicates that irrespective of the lecturers' beliefs there are problems in the implementation of curriculum change because it conflicts with the realities on the ground. The lecturers' were mostly found to be filtering the content and pedagogy of the new curriculum according to what they considered feasible and desirable in their circumstances based on their beliefs about teaching and learning, and the contextual limitations. Where the reform policies were not aligned to the lecturers' beliefs or/and the constraints caused by the circumstances, the change implementation was negatively affected. This situation highlights the significance of the need for compatibility between the teachers' beliefs, contextual factors, and reform policies for a successful implementation.

6.3. Recommendations

The analysis of the data presented in chapter 5 has generated some recommendations about the issues relevant to the implementation stage of a curriculum change.

6.3.1. English language education

The findings illustrate the importance of English language in the country, along with the negative notion of social apartheid caused by its links to the colonial past, and political, social, and economic power (Phillipson, 1992; Pennycook, 1994). English in fact has become a global requirement for progress, as the successful economies in the 21st century are increasingly knowledge based and the majority of world's knowledge is in the English language (Rajagopalan, 2005). Therefore, I believe that steps should be taken at the governmental level to separate language from the colonial legacy, and to highlight its instrumental value and practical use for international communication and the developmental purposes. Given the fact that numerous participants reflected on the role that English plays in securing social and economic advantage, their concerns about its colonial heritage and social apartheid must be heeded, and quality English education must be made accessible to all students with uniformity rather than the fortunate few. This would lead to social parity, where there is a feeling of equal opportunity for all the strata in the society. Moreover, it is also recommended that the policy makers while drafting language policy for various levels in the country should identify the social, economic, and political forces
that might influence these policies, and should carefully draft policies that represent the local needs as well as the global requirements for education.

6.3.2. Teacher education and support

Teachers, as already discussed, hold the key to the success of any curriculum change (Fullan, 2001a; Joyce et al. 1999; Wang et al. 1993); it is important to give suitable attention to their beliefs, perceptions, and practices. If teachers are neglected, the gap between policy and implementation might never be filled. Indeed the findings in chapter 5 of this study indicated that due to the lack of consideration for the implementers, their beliefs, perceptions and the challenges they face, the new curriculum aims could not be fully implemented. In such a situation the policymakers should make sure that the reform from its inception should focus on the practices it wishes to promote as well as the extent to which these policies are aligned to the teachers’ beliefs and practices. This does not mean that reforms should be drafted in accordance with the teachers’ beliefs, which are many and diverse, but that the curriculum planners should be able to assess the gap between the required practices and the existing beliefs of the teachers, as teachers might need to modify their beliefs and consequently their practices to make the implementation successful. It is of utmost importance that the policymakers are aware of when changes to the curriculum are likely to conflict with or challenge teachers’ beliefs, and provide support for this.

This support should reflect the fact that policymakers realise that it is not enough to assume that the teachers would automatically understand the curriculum demands and that they could bring about change by introducing a new system and a new set of books. It also implies a change in the teachers’ thinking and behaviour. They need support to understand the reform and to prepare them for the challenge. Poulson, et al. (2001) highlight the lack of consideration for the diverse belief systems of the teachers in professional development programmes.

*Rarely has provision for professional development been differentiated to take account of teachers’ levels of expertise, experience, professional qualifications, or theoretical perspective. The discourses which frame educational reforms tend to construct the new as good, and the old as bad; yet fail to provide ways of helping teachers to accommodate,* or
adjust to, innovations by relating them to their existing theoretical belief structures (p. 290).

This lack of consideration not only puts strain on teachers, but also negatively affects change implementation, as was the case in my research. Therefore, for effective implementation of reform it is of vital importance to take into account the teachers’ beliefs and circumstances, and to support them through suitable training and professional development programs. Troudi and Alwan (2010) state that ‘training and support should be of great help in reducing the stressful effects of change during implementation’ (p.117). The teachers, for example, might not be aware of the influences of their existing beliefs on their teaching as presented in chapter 5. This unawareness could lead to anxiety among teachers, as they are not clear about their actions with reference to the curriculum aims. This implies the need of support for the teachers through the provision of education and development programs, which develop reflective practices among them (Borg, 2011; Farrell, 2015). This encourages the teachers to engage in reflecting upon their own conceptions, beliefs, and practices, which in turn assists them in improving their teaching practices.

The data analysis of my study indicated that the participants generally had a positive attitude towards up-skilling themselves to meet the demands of the curriculum change. This positive attitude towards professional development is vital for progress and growth (Bailey, et al. 2001). HEC, the affiliating universities, and the provincial education departments could take up this responsibility of providing support in this context. Moreover, this support should not be a one off incident, rather it should be continuous and on-going, because without continuous support the education might be forgotten and the teachers might revert to their former ways of teaching (Guskey, 1989). This provision is essential for a successful implementation of curriculum reform (Carless, 1998).

This study also indicated that potential barriers to the accessibility and practicality of this support must also be considered. Limitations over funding for teacher training and lack of sensitivity to the personal circumstances especially related to female lecturers were mentioned during the research. Steps should also be taken to make the provision of teacher education all-inclusive; age, for example should not be a deterring factor in professional development opportunities. The authorities should also be mindful of the personal situations
of the lecturers, which could hugely influence their professional lives. However, I believe that it is not enough to provide training only; in order to bring about an efficient, effective, and on-going change there is a need to develop among teachers a culture of learning from one another, sharing ideas, and supporting each other. This involves promotion of professional learning communities among teachers. The lecturers in my study did make informal learning communities. They shared ideas, tried to find solutions to common problems by assisting each other, and suggested practical strategies. They became a source of clarification and understanding of the change in the absence of any formal guidance and training. Sahlberg (2005) and Adamson & Yin (2008) support this approach, as cooperative learning enhances positive collegiality and is valuable for the success of educational change implementation.

Another recommendation related to the teachers is the need to involve them in the decision-making process. Research has shown that externally imposed curricula have seldom resulted in successful implementation (Carl, 2005). This top down approach to curriculum development, which has been discussed in chapter 3 (3.4.2) of the present study was also visible in my research. The lecturers felt that they were not included in the decision-making and it negatively affected the implementation of curriculum change. Teachers are undeniably the key stakeholders in the process of curriculum change (Fullan, 2001; Dembele & Lafoka, 2007), thus, in order to have a successful and sustained curriculum change, teachers' voices should be given due importance. They should be involved from the planning stage and this should continue throughout the implementation process. When teachers are given a voice and have their due role in decision-making and planning of change and reform, it enhances their professionalism (Brown, 1995); they take responsibility and ownership of the curriculum (Carl, 2005), which is imperative to the success of any reform. This study indicated that lecturers thought that their efforts were not recognised. They felt marginalised, unsupported, and not respected by the associated universities. They rather believed that they were considered mere technicians whose job was to follow orders. This situation could be injurious for the teachers' self-respect as individuals and professionals. With teachers being central to the success of any reform or change, if they remain 'voices crying in
the wildernesses’ (Carl, 2005, p.228) it might impede any effort towards successful reform.

6.3.3. Contextual issues and resources

A significant recommendation generated by the study is connected to contextual issues. To believe that teachers would implement reforms as envisaged by policy makers without consideration for the contextual factors is a fallacy (Waters & Vilches, 2001). The interviews and class observations raised a number of noteworthy contextual issues, such as lack of resources, proficiency level of the learners, large classes, and the educational culture based on memorization, teacher centred learning, and examinations washback. These issues highlighted the necessity of needs analysis, and situation analysis for efficient change implementation. Before planning any language policy or change, it is important to know the existing level and the skill needs of the learners for whom the change is proposed (Kelly, 2009). Planning reforms based on the levels of a minority of students would not achieve the required results. The policymakers in Pakistan should thoroughly assess the level and needs of the public sector students in order to identify the gap between what students are able to do and what would be realistic to achieve.

Moreover, the classroom limitations within which the teachers work should be kept in mind while introducing changes; for example, it is not practicable to teach listening in a classroom without the necessary basic equipment such as computers, CD players, and speakers. Quality resources including books and other equipment need to be provided. This means more government funding. The question of feasibility of communicative teaching in large classes also needs to be addressed in this regard. In Pakistan public colleges, large sized classes are an undeniable reality, and in the present financial scenario, this is unlikely to change in the near future. Therefore, steps should be taken to make large classes supportive of the new educational practices and to prepare the teachers to cope with a big number of students and to devise innovative ways to accomplish effective communicative teaching and learning in large classes (Sarwar, 2001).
6.3.4. Student preparedness for change

A further recommendation relates to the preparedness of students for the curriculum change. The participants in the study pointed out that students found it difficult to cope with the new kind of English teaching and learning. As the educational culture is that of passive teacher-centred learning, memorization, and importance of grades, the students find it difficult to understand the idea behind the active communicative teaching and learning. The curriculum planners need to understand that the students are critical stakeholders, and must be supported to make necessary adjustments required by the change. They should be properly informed why they are required to act in a certain way, and how they can learn more effectively. This requires a change in the educational culture. An educational environment should be developed where only high grades are not considered as the measure of achievement, but the actual knowledge acquired by the learners. This is a tall order and needs long term planning, with gradual and persistent effort to bring a change in thinking and subsequently the culture and practice.

An important suggestion obtained from the study was that in order to improve the general English language proficiency at the HE level, there is a need to start reforms at the grass root level as recommended by the participants. English should be taught from the early years through communicative methodology and the public school teachers at this level should be properly trained in order to build a strong base for the students.

6.3.5. Reforms in Examination System

The findings of the study emphasised that the examination system needs to undergo an overhaul in order to make the outcomes of learning more effective. It is the responsibility of the educational officials at all levels to create an alignment between the examinations and the new curriculum. The analysis of the data suggested that in order to diminish the negative washback of examinations, grades should also be given on class participation and projects, and speaking and listening should be included in the assessment.

Another recommendation related to examinations is the need for the reliability of the examinations system. The participants of the study reported malpractices in the examination system in the form of question papers being leaked and
teachers helping the students. Therefore, steps need to be taken for quality assurance. Forming quality assurance teams comprised of the trained university and the affiliated colleges staff, who could keep a quality check on the examination system, can do this. The secrecy of the examination questions should also be the responsibility of the quality control team. Furthermore, as the participants had reservations about the examination questions which are mostly drafted by the university lecturers, it would be fair that the lecturers of the public sector colleges should be trained in test development, so that everybody has the capability and gets an opportunity to design papers. This could be carried out in rotation between the university and the colleges, or as a collaborative project between lecturers from the colleges and the university. This would give these lecturers a feeling of ownership and could go a long way in creating positive effects on the curriculum change.

6.3.6. Continuous Evaluation
Finally, all this is possible if there is an on-going evaluation of the curriculum change in order to find out if the aims are being achieved, and what more needs to be done to achieve effective implementation and sustenance of change. Troudi & Alwan (2010) also stress the need for continuous evaluation to modify various components of the curriculum if required. Thus, an on-going evaluation and periodic appraisal of the curriculum is highly recommended in order to make the necessary adjustments and improvements to benefit all the stakeholders. This evaluation should be systematic, regular, and could be based on feedback from teachers and students, classroom observations, course analysis and the analysis of the results. This would enable the planners to monitor the gap between the curriculum goals and the pedagogical realities and thus to make the necessary adjustments and changes wherever they are needed in the curriculum (Orafi & Borg, 2009), and/or in teachers through the provision of suitable training, and/or through development of resources needed to fill this gap. This orientation of the curriculum change is in line with the process model, which conceptualizes curriculum as a process, an ever developing and improving comprehensive entity.
6.4. Contribution to knowledge

Although I cannot claim that my study provided any definite solutions to the problem of curriculum change implementation, it does illuminate some critical issues that need to be addressed, and points out the limitations to curriculum change implementation. Since no study of this type has been conducted on this issue in Pakistan at the HE level so far, this research is the first attempt to fill the gap in the literature in this setting. Simultaneously, I expect that this study will contribute to the existing body of research on curriculum change implementation. Carless (2004) for instance, noted that insufficient attention has been given to how teachers implement educational changes in classrooms. In this regard, this study provides a detailed insight into different factors that shape the way teachers implement changes in the curricula. It also indicates how certain adverse forces and conditions both internal and external to the teacher can constrain curriculum implementation.

The theoretical framework of this research as already pointed out in chapters 3 and 4 relates to the concept of structure and agency and Fullan’s 1991 model of curriculum change. The study indicates that the societal and institutional attitudes towards English language, the policy drafted by the designers, and the expectations that it would be followed accordingly all stand for structures. Agency is the lecturers’ personal choices based on the identities they form in their context utilising the structures as resources. These identities are visible in lecturers’ beliefs, their perceptions, and consequently in their practices during change implementation. As it underscores the importance of people involved in the change process it is linked to Fullan’s (1991) model of curriculum change.

The study further broadens Fullan’s model by linking it with Holliday et al’s (2004) concept of structure and agency. It does not only underline that teachers are central to the curriculum change implementation, but also moves further by emphasizing what leads to the decisions they make in the classroom. It has highlighted that for the curriculum change to be successful it would be oversimplifying to draft a policy considering that concentrating on the goals, practices and outcomes would bring about the required change. There is clearly considerably more involved in this process. The policy mutates as it
migrates from the decision makers to the implementers. It is influenced by the exercise of reflexive human (teacher) agency. The way the teachers conceptualize change, the process that leads to the decisions taken by them is influenced by a number of internal and external factors; this means that this agency is achieved within the enabling and constraining framework provided by various structures. The study thus emphasised the point that teachers, their beliefs, their perceptions and their decisions occupy the fundamental position in curriculum implementation. Teachers draw from a variety of sources to make decisions, and their agency is socially constructed and shaped. They form meanings, shape their identity and consequently their actions based on a variety of aspects.

The combination of Fullan's model of change and Holliday et al's concept of structure and agency added weight to the view that change implementation is a multifaceted and a complicated process. Teachers, their beliefs, perceptions, and practices have a great influence on the practical success of an educational change. At times, the study found an absence of the teachers' espoused beliefs in their practices in the classroom, demonstrating the fact that beliefs are a complex and a multi-layered concept, and showing how contextual factors such as class size, level of the learners, availability of resources, examinations, and educational culture further complicate the enactment of the teachers' espoused beliefs in the classroom and thus affect the change implementation. Despite these observed gaps between beliefs and practices, the study also exhibits how teachers' beliefs, and their understanding of their own beliefs, can influence their classroom practices and consequently the execution of reform. I therefore believe that this study provides significant insights into the process of curriculum change, and educational reform in general. The study has also recommended some implications for English language education in Pakistan, as discussed in the preceding section.

Methodologically, this study illustrates the usefulness of interpretive research involving both observations and interviews in studying how and why teachers implement curriculum change in particular ways. The choice of interviews and observations was made in order to develop a more rounded and a clear picture of the workings of the participants’ agency in the structural and contextual
realities of curriculum change. It highlighted the importance of the human factor in the implementation of a reform by acknowledging the complex interrelation of beliefs and the contextual actualities in response to the curriculum change. Interviews helped me understand the themes of lived daily world from the participants’ perspectives, while observations provided rich descriptions and practical representations of the lecturers’ beliefs and perspectives within their context.

6.5. Future Research

The purpose of this study was to understand lecturers’ beliefs, perceptions, and practices in relation to the English language curriculum change at the undergraduate level in Pakistan. It also explored the challenges the lecturers have faced, the strategies they have used to cope with the change, and how all these have influenced their implementation of the change in classrooms. Considering that the study is the first of its type at the higher HE level in Pakistan, I now propose some suggestions for further research in this field to provide insights into the Pakistani context as well as in other developing countries. Further qualitative studies of the teachers' beliefs and practices could be valuable to build on the understandings obtained in this study.

The findings of this study point out that one of the biggest problems in change implementation is the gap between the intended change and the way teachers practically implement it in the classrooms. This gap implies that teachers will reinterpret the change in the light of their own knowledge and experience, resulting in changes, which may be different from what is expected by the policy makers (Todd, 2006). Research indicates that there is an urgent need to address this incongruence, and to investigate if, how, and why change and reform can be consolidated at the implementation stage so that it becomes sustained and progressive (Todd, 2006).

1. This study thus provides the basis for a future longitudinal study into the beliefs and practices of the teachers in terms of curriculum change implementation. This could lead to a profound understanding of the change implementation process.
2. Moreover, research is also recommended to investigate the features of effective teacher development programs, which would facilitate and support the teachers in the times when they are needed to alter their beliefs and practices in order to implement innovations and changes. This would positively contribute to the curriculum implementation process.

3. It is also suggested that studies should be designed in which the beliefs and practices of a wider range of HE lecturers can be studied to acquire a more comprehensive understanding of the situation, which could guide policymakers and teacher educators not only in future planning but also in improving the present curriculum change. This is so because curriculum change and development is an on-going process and continuous research and evaluation of the curriculum leads to improvements and positive modifications from time to time in order to achieve the aims of the change.

4. Furthermore, another important factor, which was repeatedly mentioned in this study, was the impact that the students have on change implementation. Students are the most important stakeholders in the wake of curriculum change, and research is needed to examine students’ perceptions and the challenges faced by them during this time.

5. Related to the students, an important factor, which surfaced during the present study was the lack of compatibility between the curriculum change aims and the suitable student level. Research in this area in the form of need/situation analysis is also suggested. This would provide a clear picture of the requirements of the students and the type of reform needed to improve learning and consequently the standards.

6. Finally, as already discussed above the large class size is a manifest actuality in Pakistan, and the study demonstrates that it influences the implementation of change. Thus, it is suggested that using communicative methodology in a large class can also be considered as an avenue for further research. An investigation to explore how to best implement communicative practices with large class sizes would be beneficial not only in the Pakistani context but in many other international contexts faced with similar circumstances.
6.6. Conclusion and personal reflection

This study explored the English language curriculum change at the higher education level in Pakistan and described the effects of teachers' beliefs and perceptions on curriculum change, and vice versa, in relation to the classroom implementation of change and reform. The study was guided by four research questions.

The first question was about the lecturers' beliefs about English language education in Pakistan. The findings showed the significant importance of English for the economic, social and academic progress. This implies the effective role of the English language for the economic and social development of the individuals and the societies. However, tensions were also visible between this belief and those, which rejected English as it was seen as a threat to the religious, social, cultural and national pride. This could act as a barrier to the student motivation to learn the language. Also important were the findings related to the role of teachers. The lecturers used metaphors to link their personal characteristics as teachers with their teaching roles. An assortment of beliefs about teaching methodologies also highlighted a number of interesting issues such as the importance of continuous professional development and the difference between core and peripheral beliefs. Moreover, issues related to the importance of different language skills, use of L1 in class and teaching language through literature also arose in this question.

The second question dealt with the lecturers' perceptions about the English language curriculum change. The analysis of the data indicated that generally the lecturers were quite progressive and considered change and innovation as an imperative requirement in the changing international scenario. However, they criticised the impractical and unrealistic nature of the change. This discussion was related to the top down approach to change, the lack of understanding of the decision makers about the actual realities and problems faced by the teachers and the students, the unpreparedness of the systems, the institutions and the stakeholders and the viability of such a large scale change in the political instability of the region.
The third research question investigated the participants’ concerns related to the curriculum change implementation. The issues highlighted were contextual, psychological and administrative. The washback effect of the examinations, fear of negative evaluation, large class size, level of the students, absence of adequate training and support for the teachers and lack of resources were some of the outstanding issues which were considered as having a negative influence on the successful implementation of reforms.

The fourth research question illustrated the participants’ classroom implementation of curriculum change in relation to their beliefs and perceptions. The relationship between the participants’ beliefs and practices appeared to be a combination of consistency and complexity. Certain espoused beliefs were clearly visible during the observation while some presented a more multifaceted nature and a number of contradictions could be observed, which could be due to reasons such as the difference between core and peripheral beliefs or due to contextual factors.

This question also highlighted the relationship between the participants’ perspectives about the change and the issues faced by them and the classroom implementation of change. The factors that influenced the implementation according to the participants were the proficiency level of the learners, examination pressure, lack of resources, large classes and the lack of teacher training.

The study emphasised that curriculum change is a complicated issue. A number of features such as teachers’ beliefs and the contextual factors might affect the implementation of change. These might facilitate or hinder the success of a reform. The study pointed to only a partial application of the communicative curriculum change by the English language lecturers in public colleges due to a number of interacting aspects, which led to the deviation between the intended curriculum and that which the lecturers implemented. These factors were related not only to the lecturers’ beliefs about English teaching and learning, but also evident were the external factors such as the student level, educational culture, examination washback, lack of resources, support and training for teachers. It also showed that notwithstanding the teachers’ beliefs, there could be difficulties in the implementation of the
curriculum change if it conflicts with the realities on the ground. The teachers filter the content and pedagogy of the new curriculum according to what they consider practicable in their circumstances. This situation highlights the necessity of compatibility between the teachers’ beliefs, contextual factors, and reform policies for an efficacious implementation.

Finally, reflecting on my journey as a researcher, I can see how immensely valuable this experience has been; both in my personal as well as my professional life. I started almost as a novice researcher, with some basic research experience, not very clear ideas and a number of questions in my mind. I had planned to tackle two enormous concepts: curriculum change implementation and teachers’ beliefs, and had to knit them together. Frequently this looked too chaotic and even impossible to achieve. There was doubt and confusion that I had to overcome through extensive periods of reading and repeatedly going over things. In this time of uncertainty, when it looked unmanageable, my supervisors supported, and guided me. Their constructive feedback gave me direction, and gradually I could see meaning and order emerging out of the clutter of the mass of data.

As an interpretive researcher, I had to keep myself focused in order to cognize the situation from my position as a researcher and not to let my personal preconceptions influence the interpretations. Unquestionably, this was an enormous challenge. I practised reflexivity, understanding and disclosing my position in the context, constantly reminding myself of the purpose of my research and entering into the study aspiring to create an honest environment. I tried to achieve credibility and dependability through a number of ways. I used triangulation, which helps to verify emerging findings (Silverman, 2001). While sharing information with the participants I made sure that the shared information was completely unbiased and neutral. I went through the data repeatedly to be totally engrossed in the data so that the constructions of meaning and interpretations could be based on the data and not my personal bias. Member checking was also employed. All these measures contributed to the detachment required to interpret and understand the participants’ experiences, beliefs and thinking about this process of change.
The experience has given me an ample understanding of interpretive research processes, the challenges one can anticipate, and how to overcome these challenges. As I progressed through this study, it helped me to develop research ideas and skills that I would never have been able to master otherwise. My understanding of the standards of academic writing, collecting and analysing data, connecting and illustrating ideas was considerably enhanced. I learnt from the experts and acquired the desirable skills and confidence to make sustained engagement in qualitative research a worthwhile experience. My insight into the process of curriculum change implementation, and the importance of the teachers as stakeholders and the context as a limiting or a facilitating factor was also vastly enriched. I have come to acknowledge that curricular change is, ‘...an inherently messy, unpredictable business’ in the words of Markee (1997: 176) that educes a blend of sentiments, involves a variety of attitudes and beliefs, and most importantly requires support and takes time (Lamie, 2005).

In the personal dimension, I have become more empathetic and appreciative towards the challenges faced by teachers when they are required to implement complex curriculum changes and reforms. I realise the need for support, training, and development for teachers in general, and particularly English language teachers at the HE level in Pakistan, so that they could become active participants in the educational change and reform. Thus, I believe that while exploring the complex relationship between beliefs, which is a messy construct (Pajares, 1992), and curriculum change implementation, which has its own complications (Fullan 2001a), the study provides answers to some key questions in the field. These questions relate to teachers' beliefs about English language teaching and learning; their perceptions about change and the challenges faced by them in their efforts to implement this change, all these were then seen in relation to their practical implementation of this change in the classroom. The answers to these questions have significance for HE in Pakistan in particular, and educational reform and change in general.

To close my reflection, I must add that my journey as a researcher was indeed a memorable one. The personal growth, professional development and a sense of empowerment is what delineates the experiences I underwent during this process. It is, I am sure, not an end but a new beginning.


Daily Jang (2011) BA kei Talba ki mushkilaat (The problems of the BA students). 26th October paper. Lahore


Karavas-Doukas, E. (1995). Teacher identified factors affecting the implementation of an EFL innovation in Greek public secondary schools. Language Culture and Curriculum, 8(1), 53-68.


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Your student no: 590043576

Title of your project:

Pakistani teachers' beliefs about English language education and their perceptions about the large scale curriculum change at the HE level.
*(With specific reference to the public sector colleges)*

Brief description of your research project:
In Pakistan, the English language curriculum at the undergraduate level in the public sector colleges underwent a significant change in terms of the materials as well as the principles of teaching and learning in 2010. With the assumption that the teachers, as one of the main stakeholders and the actual implementers of change in any educational setting, play an important role in this curriculum change as well, this study seeks to investigate the beliefs of the English language teachers about teaching. On the basis of these beliefs I intend to explore their perceptions about the recent curriculum change at the higher education level. Moreover the study aims to explore what, according to these teachers, are the issues faced by them in the implementation of this change in the classrooms in relation to their beliefs.

Give details of the participants in this research (giving ages of any children and/or young people involved):
The participants will be 8 English language teachers (females & males) working in the public sector colleges in Lahore, one of the biggest cities of Pakistan with a large number of public sector colleges where the new curriculum has been implemented. The participants are experienced English language teachers who have taught both the old curriculum as well as the new curriculum from its inception. The participants will all be adults with their ages ranging from 30 to 60 years.

Give details (with special reference to any children or those with special needs) regarding the ethical issues of:
a) Informed consent: Where children in schools are involved this includes both head teachers and parents. An example of the consent form(s) must accompany this document.
I will strictly follow the code of ethics and conduct. Issues related to respect, confidentiality and informed consent will be carefully considered. Participants will be given a consent form to sign. All participants in the study are informed about the use of the data for the doctoral thesis only. The views of the participants will be listened to and respected. I will also endeavour to respect any individual, gender, religious, or ethnic differences that might exist among the participants. All interviews will be conducted with the consent and understanding of the participants that they may withdraw from the study at any time should they wish.
b) anonymity and confidentiality

The names of all the participants will be changed and the names of the institutions at which they work will not be disclosed. The position they hold and the country in which the institution is located will be given in the data as it is mandatory to my research. The participants will be informed about this aspect of the research before the interviews.

All interviews will be recorded with the consent of the participants. The transcribed interviews will be returned to the participants for verification prior to using the data. I will make sure that the data collected is secure. Collected written information will be destroyed and securely disposed of when no longer needed.

Give details of the methods to be used for data collection and analysis and how you would ensure they do not cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress:

The data for the study will be collected through in-depth face to face interviews and classroom observations. The study participants will be invited to participate personally and will only be contacted again if they show willingness to take part in the study. The purpose of the study is to collect data about the beliefs, views and lived experiences of the participants, thus I will ensure their comfort and stress free environment. The time location and the setting of the interviews and the observations will be in accordance with the wishes of the participants. Any questions which they are not comfortable with, or are unwilling to answer will be omitted. If anything, such as audio recording makes them uncomfortable during the observation, I will make sure to discontinue it promptly. As mentioned before, the participants will be informed that they can withdraw from the study at any time during or after the interviews and the observations if they have any reservations.

Give details of any other ethical issues which may arise from this project (e.g. secure storage of videos/recorded interviews/photos/completed questionnaires or special arrangements made for participants with special needs etc.):

The data collected will always be kept in a secure place, and only I will have access to it. Audio recordings and the transcribed data will be kept in a locked drawer in my office. The audio recordings will be copied on my personal computer, secured by a virus protection system, and will be deleted from the recorder. All the electronic data will only be accessed by me through a username and password. I will make sure that the recorded and written information is deleted and destroyed as soon as it has been used for the research.

Give details of any exceptional factors, which may raise ethical issues (e.g. potential political or ideological conflicts which may pose danger or harm to participants):

The nature of the study is such that it does not raise any political issues. However in terms of institutional ideology it might raise certain issues. The beliefs of the teachers might be in conflict with the ideology of the institutions and the HE commission. Moreover, their perceptions about the curriculum change might be opposite to the ideals of the curriculum planners. This being an interpretive research, such issues might strengthen the study and bring out matters which need real attention. However, I will ensure as already stated above to fully guard the confidentiality of the participants so that they are protected and are allowed freedom of expression in their interviews.

This form should now be printed out, signed by you on the first page and sent to your supervisor to sign. Your supervisor will forward this document to the School's Research Support Office for the
Chair of the School's Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.

N.B. You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor.

This project has been approved for the period: July 2013 until: March 2014

By (above mentioned supervisor's signature): [Signature] date: [2nd July 2013]

N.B. To Supervisor: Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.

GSE unique approval reference: D | 13 | 13 | 14 | 0

Signed: [Signature] date: [15/12/13]

Chair of the School's Ethics Committee

This form is available from: [http://education.exeter.ac.uk/students/](http://education.exeter.ac.uk/students/)
Dear Colleagues,

My name is Farwa Hussain Shah. I am doing a doctoral study on the recent curriculum change at the higher education level in Pakistan. Teachers' beliefs and perceptions are significant in this respect, as they are one of the most important stakeholders in the curriculum change process. Thus I would like to interview you and to observe your classes in order to collect data about your perceptions and the implementation of the curriculum change. The data collected will only be used purely for academic purposes. It will be stored securely on a password protected computer. Only I will have access to it, and your names and identities will be kept anonymous at all times and will not be disclosed under any circumstances.

Thank you for your cooperation

Yours Sincerely

Farwa Hussain Shah

Doctoral candidate (EdD TESOL)

University of Exeter, U.K
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

CONSENT FORM

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

There is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may at any stage withdraw my participation.

I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me.

Any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications.

If applicable, the information, which I give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form.

All information I give will be treated as confidential.

The researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.

(unsigned)

(Signature of participant)   (Date)

(Printed name of participant)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s).

Contact phone number of researcher(s): 00966562143877 / 00923218160356 / 00923008427759

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, please contact:

Farwa Hussain Shah
Email: fh233@exeter.ac.uk

OR

Dr. Susan Riley
Email: S.M.Riley@exeter.ac.uk

Data Protection Act. The University of Exeter is a data collector and is registered with the Office of the Data Protection Commissioner as required to do under the Data Protection Act 1998. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and will be processed in accordance with the University’s registration and current data protection legislation. Data will be confidential to the researcher(s) and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties without further agreement by the participant. Reports based on the data will be in anonymised form.
Dear………….. 

I am writing to request the institution’s permission to conduct a research study on English language lecturers’ beliefs about the recent curriculum change at the higher education level, and the classroom implementation of the new curriculum. This research project is a part of a requirement to complete the EdD TESOL, i.e. Doctoral program in TESOL (Teaching of English to the speakers of other languages) at the university of Exeter, U.K.

The lecturers’ participation in the study will consist of taking part in individual interviews and classroom observations by the researcher.

The data collected will only be used for academic purposes. It will be stored securely, and the participants’ and the institution’s identities will be kept anonymous at all times and will not be disclosed in any situation.

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Farwa Hussain Shah

Doctoral candidate (EdD TESOL)

University of Exeter, U.K
CURRICULUM
OF
ENGLISH
For
BS (FOUR-YEAR)
& MS (TWO-YEAR)

2008

HIGHER EDUCATION COMMISSION
ISLAMABAD.
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

STAGE-I  STAGE-II  STAGE-III  STAGE-IV

CURRICULUM UNDER CONSIDERATION  CURRICULUM IN DRAFT STAGE  FINAL STAGE  FOLLOW UP

COLLECTION OF EXP NOMINATION UNI, R&D, INDUSTRY & COUNCILS  APPRAISAL OF 1ST DRAFT BY EXP  PREPARATION OF FINAL CURRICULUM  QUESTIONNAIRE

CONS. OF NCRC.  FINALIZATION OF DRAFT BY NCRC  PRINTING OF CURRICULUM  COMMENTS

PREPARATION OF DRAFT BY NCRC  IMPLEMENTATION OF CURRICULUM

ORIENTATION COURSES BY LI, HEC  BACK TO STAGE-I

Abbreviations Used:
NCRC: National Curriculum Revision Committee
VCC: Vice-Chancellor's Committee
EXP: Experts
COL: Colleges
UNI: Universities
PREP: Preparation
REC: Recommendations
LI: Learning Innovation
R&D: Research & Development Organization
HEC: Higher Education Commission

Page 5 of 124
## STANDARDIZED FORMAT / SCHEME OF STUDIES FOR FOUR-YEAR INTEGRATED CURRICULA FOR BACHELOR DEGREE IN BASIC, SOCIAL, NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCES

### STRUCTURE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr.</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>No. of courses Min - Max</th>
<th>Credit Hours Min - Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>General Courses to be Chosen from Other Disciplines</td>
<td>7 – 8</td>
<td>21 – 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Discipline Specific Foundation Courses</td>
<td>10 – 11</td>
<td>30 – 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Major Courses including Research Project / Internship</td>
<td>12 – 14</td>
<td>36 – 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Electives within the Major</td>
<td>4 – 4</td>
<td>12 – 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>44 – 46</strong></td>
<td><strong>130 – 136</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Total numbers of Credit hours: 130-136
- Duration: 4-years
- Semester duration: 16-18 weeks
- Semesters: 8
- Course Load per Semester: 15-18 Cr hrs
- Number of courses per semester: 4-6 (not more than 3 lab / practical courses)
# Scheme of Studies
## For BS Four-Year Program in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Credit (CH)</th>
<th>Compulsory/Requirement (Annex A-D)</th>
<th>General Courses (GC-To be chosen from other disciplines)</th>
<th>Discipline specific Foundation courses</th>
<th>Major Courses</th>
<th>Electives within the major</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Max Total CH</td>
<td>130 – 136</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21-24</td>
<td>36-33</td>
<td>36-42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Used Total CH</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semester I</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>• English – I (e.g. Psychology-I)</td>
<td>GC-I (e.g. Psychology-I)</td>
<td>• Introduction to Lit. I: History of Eng Lit.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Pakistan Studies</td>
<td>GC-II (e.g. Philosophy)</td>
<td>• Introduction to Linguistics I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semester II</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>• English – II (2)</td>
<td>GC-III (e.g. Psychology-II)</td>
<td>• Introduction to Lit. II: Poetry and One-Act Plays</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Islamic Studies</td>
<td>GC-IV (e.g. Philosophy)</td>
<td>• Introduction to Linguistics II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semester III</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>• English-III (Communication Skills)</td>
<td>GC-V (e.g. Entrepreneurship)</td>
<td>• Introduction to Lit. III: Fiction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Introduction to Computers</td>
<td>GC-VI (e.g. Environmental Sciences)</td>
<td>• Introduction to Ling III: Phonetics and English Phonology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semester IV</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>• Advanced Academic Reading and Writing</td>
<td>Citizenship Education (Human Rights)</td>
<td>• Introduction to Lit. IV: Prose</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Academic Writing and Reading</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Introduction to Ling IV: The Structure of English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 3</td>
<td>Semester V</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|       | • Introduction to Research Methodology | • Lit. Criticism-I  
• Poetry: 14th to 16th Century  
• Novel: 18th & 19th century | • Psycholinguistics  
• Sociolinguistics |
|       | • Literary Movements | • Classics in Drama  
• Lit. Criticism-II  
• Pakistani Literature in English | • Semantics  
• Discourse Analysis |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Semester VII</th>
<th>15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|       | • Research Thesis (3 Cr) | • Romantic Poetry  
• American Lit. I: Novel and Poetry  
• Women Writers | • TESOL I: English Language Skills  
• Pedagogical Grammar  
• Lexical Studies | • Afro-American Lit.  
• Continental Drama  
• Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)  
• Applied Translation Studies |
|       | • Research Proposal | | | • Research Proposal |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semester VIII</th>
<th>15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|               | • American Lit. II: Drama  
• 20th Century Literature | • TESOL II: Syllabus and Materials Evaluation and Design  
• TESOL III: Language Assessment | • Modern Poetry  
• Modern Novel  
• Literacy Studies  
• Feminist Linguistics  
• Pedagogy / Internship (English Language Teaching)  
• Pedagogy / Internship (Literary Pedagogy) |

Please Note:

1. A minimum of 4 courses are to be selected from Groups A and B (Literature and Linguistics respectively) each.
DETAIL OF COURSES BS 4-YEAR IN ENGLISH

COMPULSORY ENGLISH COURSES
YEAR ONE

There will be two separate Compulsory English courses; the first course will focus on using language in context. The second course will focus on developing students' critical reading and writing skills for academic study.

Semester I

Compulsory English I: Language in Use

Aims:

1. To develop the ability to communicate effectively
2. To enable the students to read effectively and independently any intermediate level text
3. To make the experience of learning English more meaningful and enjoyable
4. To enable the students to use grammar and language structure in context

Objectives: (Contents)

A: Listening and Speaking Skills*

To develop the ability to:

- Understand and use English to express ideas and opinions related to students' real life experiences inside and outside the classroom
- Give reasons (substantiating) justifying their view
- Understand and use signal markers
- Extract information and make notes from lectures
- Ask and answer relevant questions to seek information, clarification etc.

B: Reading comprehension skills

To enable the students to read a text to:

- Identify main idea/topic sentences
- Find specific information quickly
- Distinguish between relevant and irrelevant information according to purpose for reading

Page 15 of 124
• Recognize and interpret cohesive devices
• Distinguish between fact and opinion

C: Vocabulary Building Skills

To enable the students to:
• Guess the meanings of unfamiliar words using context clues
• Use word formation rules for enhancing vocabulary
• Use the dictionary for finding out meanings and use of unfamiliar words

D: Writing skills

To enable students to write descriptive, narrative and argumentative texts with and without stimulus input

E: Grammar in context

• Tenses: meaning & use
• Modals
• Use of active and passive voice

* Listening and Speaking skills will be assessed informally only using formative assessment methods till such time that facilities are available for testing these skills more formally.

Methodology
The focus will be on teaching of language skills rather than content using a variety of techniques such as guided silent reading, communication tasks etc. Moreover, a process approach will be taken for teaching writing skills with a focus on composing, editing and revising drafts both individually and with peer and tutor support.

Recommended Reading:

Semester II

English Compulsory II: Academic Reading and Writing

Aims:
To enable the students to:
- Read the lines (literal understanding of text), read between the lines (to interpret text) and read beyond the lines (to assimilate, integrate knowledge etc.)
- Write well organized academic texts including examination answers
  with topic/thesis statement/supporting details
- Write argumentative essays and course assignments

Reading and Critical Thinking
1. Read academic texts effectively by:
   - Using appropriate strategies for extracting information and salient points according to a given purpose
   - Identifying the main points supporting details, conclusions in a text of intermediate level
   - Identifying the writer’s intent such as cause and effect, reasons, comparison and contrast, exemplification
   - Interpreting charts and diagrams
   - Making appropriate notes using strategies such as mind maps, tables, lists, graphs.
   - Reading and carrying out instructions for tasks, assignments and examination questions

2. Enhance academic vocabulary using skills learnt in Compulsory English I course

3. Acquire efficient dictionary skills such as locating guide words, entry words, choosing appropriate definition, and identifying pronunciation through pronunciation key, identifying part of speech, identifying syllable division and stress patterns

Writing Academic Texts

Students will be able to:
1. Plan their writing: identify audience, purpose and message (content)
2. Collect information in various forms such as mind maps, tables, charts, lists
3. Order information such as:
   - Chronology for a narrative
4. Write argumentative and descriptive forms of writing using different methods of developing ideas like listing, comparison, and contrast, cause and effect, for and against
   - Write good topic and supporting sentences and effective conclusions
   - Use appropriate cohesive devices such as reference words and signal markers

5. Redraft checking content, structure and language, edit and proof read

Grammar in Context
- Phrase, clause and sentence structure
- Combining sentences
- Reported Speech

Methodology
In this curriculum, students will be encouraged to become independent and efficient readers using appropriate skills and strategies for reading and comprehending texts at intermediate level. Moreover, writing is approached as a process. The students will be provided opportunities to write clearly in genres appropriate to their disciplines.

Recommended Readings:
COMPULSORY COURSES
YEAR TWO

Semester III

English III: Communication Skills

Aims:
To enable the students to meet their real life communication needs

Contents:
- Oral presentation skills (prepared and unprepared talks)
- Preparing for interviews (scholarship, job, placement for internship, etc.)
- Writing formal letters
- Writing different kinds of applications (leave, job, complaint, etc.)
- Preparing a Curriculum Vitae (CV), (bio-data)
- Writing short reports

Recommended Readings:

Semester IV

Advanced Academic Reading and Writing:

Aims:
To enable the students to:
- Read Academic text critically
- Write well organized academic text e.g. assignments, examination answers
- Write narrative, descriptive, argumentative essays and reports (assignments)

Contents:
1. Critical Reading
   Advanced reading skills and strategies building on Foundations of English I & II courses in semesters I and II of a range of text types e.g. description, argumentation, comparison and contrast
2. **Advanced Academic Writing**

Advanced writing skills and strategies building on English I & II in semesters I and II:
- Writing summaries of articles
- Report writing
- Analysis and synthesis of academic material in writing
- Presenting an argument in assignments/term-papers and examination answers

**Recommended Readings:**
5. Gardner, P. S. 2005. *New Directions: Reading, Writing and Critical Thinking*

**Semester IV**

**Citizenship Education (Human Rights [HR] Component):**

This particular course deals with good citizenship values and human rights components. Although the course does not strictly or necessarily fall under the category of English curriculum and syllabi, the contents/topics designed for this course must be studied and used by the teachers of English language and literature to offer a comparative study with the textbooks they use for their classes. Whether the teachers pick on the UN HR charter or they use the last address of the Holy Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) for such comparative analysis the major aims of the course should be as described below.

**Aims:**

The major aims of this course should be to:
- Promote human values, in particular religious tolerance for others
- Promote HR, in particular those of the minorities and ethnic groups

Page 25 of 124
Sample Materials

RAJA RASALU

RASALU’S EARLY LIFE

"On a Tuesday he entered his narrow domain,
A Saturday smiled when he left it again;
O then was brought forth that monarch of might,
And Rāsāl on the day of his birth was he hight."

AJA SULWAHĀN (SALLA-
VAHAN) OF SIALKOT, a
descendant of the great
king famous in story,
whose name was Vī-
krāmājī, of the empire
of Ujjain, had two queens, the elder of whom
was Ichrān, and the younger Lūna, a tanner’s
daughter. By the former whom he had married
first, he had a son Pūran, who by the advice of
the astrologers was secluded from the sight of
his father in a lonely palace from the moment
of his birth until he was twelve years old. On his release
from duress, he was permitted to appear at court, and his
father on one occasion sent him to pay his respects to his
newly married wife, Rāni Lūna, who was about the same
age as the young prince and exceedingly fair. Pūran also

* This introductory chapter is compiled from scattered fragments and
traditions.
The Rasalu Legend

Rasalu’s Early Life

READER’S QUIZ

Some of these statements are true, some are false. Can you tell which are true, and why the others are not?

1. Raja Rasalu was the son of Vikramjit, who had two wives.  True
2. Puran’s mother was febran.  True
3. Rani Luna fell in love with her step son, Puran, who refused to listen to her.  True
4. The king was reluctant to banish his second son, Rasalu because he did not want to lose him like the first one.  True

GUESSING THE MEANING

Guess the meanings of the following words, and then find out their dictionary meanings. What clues in the story help you to make the correct guess?

deceived
incensed
implacable
exile
languish
vantage-ground
consort
conjunction
presaged
minstrels
solicitations
frenzy

QUESTIONS FOR COMPREHENSION

1. What happened to Puran before and after he was twelve years old?
2. Who was the Fakir the king and his younger queen visited? Why did they visit him?
3. Who was Rasalu? Why was there sorrow and heaviness at his birth?
4. Describe Rasalu as a young boy.
5. Why was Rasalu banished from his father’s kingdom?
6. Why was Rani Luna doomed to weep for her only son?
BS II (Semester III)
English Compulsory
Final Term

Time Allowed: 3 hours
Max. Marks: 50

Attempt Question No 1 on the question paper and the rest on the answer sheet.

Question No. 1 Write True or False for the following statements.

- CV stands for Curriculum Visuals. ______ False ______
- Chronological CV is skill-based while Functional CV deals with educational accomplishments. ______ True ______
- Eye-Witness report is some incident that is narrated to you by someone. ______ True ______
- For an interviewee, it is very important to make sure that his potentials and abilities are known to the interviewer. ______ False ______
- Combination CV is the best points of both Functional and Chronological CVs. ______ True ______
- It is not important to highlight skills in the Chronological CV. ______ False ______

Question No. 2. Look at the job advertisement given below. Read the requirements for the job and write a Covering Letter and a detailed CV to apply for the job of a producer. Mention your SKILLS and POTENTIALS to make your CV look effective.

_____/10+10_____
Question No. 3. Imagine you have received a call from the Manager of FOX NEWS CHANNEL for the above mentioned job. Write a dialogue between yourself and the Manager. Try your best to convince him to hire you.

Question No. 4. During your interview, the manager told you about a STRIKE outside his News Channel office of the workers who wanted an increase in their salary. While the manager went to see the situation, he took you along where you witnessed the chaotic agitation of the workers and the blocked traffic due to their strike. Write a report of 200 words highlighting the important incidents and also include some remarks of the people present there.

Question No. 5 a) Translate the following passage into English.

b) Translate the following passage into Urdu.

Beauty is a combination of qualities that delight the senses. It is an inborn instinct in human beings to appreciate beauty. Man has developed an eye for beauty right from the Stone Age. Artistic creations are man’s attempt to depict the joy created by beauty. Man cherishes the beautiful moments and things in life. The imagination helps to revive and relive the happy moments spent in the company of beautiful things. Beauty abounds in nature. Poets and painters seek inspiration from beauty. The creations of sculptors, architects and musicians are appreciated by all. Spiritual beauty is something nobler and higher than physical beauty. The beautiful aspects of nature uplift the spirit of a pessimist. Beauty links man with eternity. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.
Interview schedule

Background information

Kindly introduce yourself in terms of your education, years of English language teaching experience. The educational levels you have taught and the years you have taught the new curriculum

Teachers’ beliefs about English language teaching & the sources of these beliefs

Previous experience as an EFL learner

1. What do you remember about your own experience as an English language learner?
   a) What approaches or methods were used?
   b) Did you enjoy learning English or not? If yes why and if not why not?
2. How has your own experience as an EFL learner influenced the way you teach English today?

Teaching

3. How and why did you become an EFL teacher?
4. What formal language teaching training did you receive?
   a) Was a particular way of teaching promoted?
   b) Which aspect(s) of the course(s) did you find most memorable?
5. What recollections do you have about your earliest teaching experiences?
   a) Were they particularly positive or negative?
   b) What kinds of teaching methods and materials did you use?

Reflections on teaching experience

6. What do you feel is the most satisfying aspect of teaching EFL?
7. As a teacher what roles have you taken up in teaching? (Prompts: knowledge transmitter, an army commander, a parent, a guide, an organizer a resource person, a demonstrator, a helper and a resource person, a learner companion, a mentor)
8. What is the hardest part of the job?
9. What do you feel are your strengths as an EFL teacher?
10. What do you feel are your weaknesses as an EFL teacher?
11. What do you think is most important in teaching and learning English in Pakistan? (in terms of content, methodology, students needs)
   a. What should be the content and why?
   b. What do you think are the needs of your students in terms of learning English language?
c. Which methodology is most suitable for your students and why?

d. Do you have any preferences in terms of classroom activities?

**Perceptions about Curriculum change**

12. Are you aware of the HEC’s efforts to reform English language education in Pakistan?
   a. Can you describe some of the reform efforts and changes introduced in the undergraduate curriculum?
   b. In what aspects of the curriculum has change occurred? To what extent do you consider this as change?
   c. How do you feel about these changes?
   d. How do you feel about having to deal with a new curriculum?
   e. What do you like or agree with? What do you not agree with?
   f. Do the current developments meet expectations from the field (teachers, students and administrators)? If yes how? If not why not?

**Implementation of the change in the classroom (after observation)**

13. What have been the greatest influences in your development as a teacher?  
   (probing questions about experiences as learners, or teaching itself or teacher education etc).
14. How do you describe your approach to teaching?
15. What approach did you adopt during your lesson?
16. To what extent were you able to implement your intended approach in the classroom?
17. As you know the new curriculum advocates the communicative and EAP approach to English language teaching, do you think your lesson has reflected such an approach? If yes how? If not, why not?
18. Has the new approach affected your teaching behaviours in classroom? If yes in what ways? If not, why not?

**Issues around the change implementation (after observation)**

19. What are your most important concerns in implementing the curriculum change?
20. What about your teaching environment? How would you describe it?
21. Do you have support to implement the new curriculum?
22. How important is the environment in implementing the curriculum?
23. What do you think English language education should be like in Pakistan?
Sample Interview

R = Researcher
F= Fatima (Participant)

Background information

Researcher: Kindly introduce yourself in terms of your education, years of English language teaching experience. The educational levels you have taught and the years you have taught the new curriculum

Fatima: I'm Fatima, I have an MA in English literature and I am doing a masters in TEFL from (ABC) university. I have been teaching English language and literature for over 8 years. I have taught FA’s BA’s and MA’s both literature and language. Umm this new thing...well I have been teaching it from 2010, when it was introduced

Teachers’ beliefs about English language teaching & the sources of these beliefs

Previous experience as an EFL learner

Researcher: 1. What do you remember about your own experience as an English language learner?

Fatima: Well, it was good, quite good. I liked my English class a lot. I was good in English so never had any problems.

Researcher: a) What approaches or methods were used?

Fatima: In school, the teachers were mostly using explanations, reading aloud and explaining the text of the stories, or whatever we read. But, there were lots of fun activities as well. One of my teachers’ used to do kind of class projects. That was fun. In college, there was mostly reading of stories and plays. My teacher used to ask us to prepare the plays and act in class. That was fun.

Researcher: Which plays? Some random plays?

Fatima: No no the ones in the course. We liked that. We all the friends became different characters and acted in front of the class.

Researcher: How long was your class?

Fatima: 45 minutes and then it became 50 minutes.
**Researcher:** How do you think this time was enough to do these class projects and to complete the courses?

**Fatima:** Ummm! Yes kind of. Maybe we were all quite good so she knew she could do such things. She used to give us work for home as well so it made up for the lost time I think.

**Researcher:** b) Did you enjoy learning English or not? If yes why and if not why not?

**Fatima:** Oh! I liked English more than other subjects. My teachers in school and college were very friendly and helpful. My favourite class was English, you see if the teachers make classes fun and buck up the students it makes the students happy.

**Researcher:** 2. How has your own experience as an EFL learner influenced the way you teach English today?

**Fatima:** As I said, I liked my English classes. My teachers were nice and friendly, and I liked going to their classes. I wanted to do the English homework only because I wanted my teachers to be happy with me. These teachers I think influenced me a lot and I think my way of teaching and dealing with students is like them.

**Teaching**

**Researcher:** 3. How and why did you become an EFL teacher?

**Fatima:** Well! I actually never thought of it. I won’t say I always wanted to, from my childhood (chuckles) but it so happened that I was good in English and my father advised me to do masters in English literature and then the job was advertised. I took the test and interview and landed in teaching. Really, I had never planned it. I rather wanted to become a bureaucrat honestly. But I’m happy that I became a teacher.

**Researcher:** 4. What formal language teaching training did you receive?

**Fatima:** During my MA, with literature, there was one ELT subject that we were taught. But, very basic ELT stuff. It was kind of just the theory. Then I attended a few short workshops by British council, which helped a lot. Now I’m doing MA TESOL, which is great and I’m learning a lot.

**Researcher:** a) Was a particular way of teaching promoted in the ELT subject, and now in your MA?

**Fatima:** In MA when I studied ELT it talked about communicative teaching, but all in theory. In the workshops again the same but with some activities which gave us practical experience. But, now in MA TESOL I’m learning both theory and practice of communicative teaching.

**Researcher:** b) Which aspect(s) of the course(s) did/ do you find most memorable?

**Fatima:** I always like the group work and pair work activities. When they ask us to do stuff with partners. I enjoy that especially when we can do brain storming in groups or
pairs for writing. I never thought we could teach writing in this way. I think this is for me the most memorable because I’ve got lots of ideas now.

Researcher: 5. What recollections do you have about your earliest teaching experiences?

Fatima: Oh! many many, I have such memories. I just can’t forget. It was a new world for me when I started teaching in the public sector.

Researcher: a) Were they particularly positive or negative?

Fatima: Well I won’t say negative. But shocking can be the word. I came from an English medium background and had no idea that English was so difficult. Then suddenly I landed in a public college. My very first class that was with a BA was the biggest shock. It was a reality check. I just couldn’t understand why the girls could not understand English. I never thought English language teaching was so difficult.

Researcher: b) What kinds of teaching methods and materials did you use?

Fatima: In the beginning?

Researcher: Yes. When you started teaching?

Fatima: I taught as I was taught in my time. Used to take out the book, ask one girl to read the poem aloud, for example and asked them what they understood and then used to explain it to them by trying to elicit ideas from them as well. It was basically the traditional method. We had literature-based course you see and that is how we were taught so we taught in the same way.

Reflections on teaching experience

Researcher: 6. What do you feel is the most satisfying aspect of teaching EFL?

Fatima: I like to see my students learn. That’s the most satisfying thing for me. Before it was literature, now things have changed, and we teach skills so if I feel my students are gaining confidence, I feel the class was good, and I feel satisfied. And yes exams are the most important thing here, for us and for the students. If my students get good marks, we are all happy, because it saves us from a lot of trouble.

Researcher: Would you like to tell what kind of trouble?

Fatima: (Laughs) You know what kind of troubles! You were a part of this system. That if your students don’t get good marks you are the one responsible. You are marked as the bad teacher. Your ACR (Annual Report) is affected etc etc.

Researcher: 7. As a teacher what roles have you taken up in teaching?

Fatima: Umm! Well! My role well, my role is to make sure that students learn the language.
**Researcher:** Ok great! In your efforts to make the students learn what role, do you play as a teacher?

**Fatima:** A teacher has so many roles. Can I say more than one?

**Researcher:** Yes sure as many as you want

**Fatima:** I play many roles. Can you give me some ideas? Like if I think I’m a facilitator, will it work.

**Researcher:** Of course, whatever you think your roles are as a teacher

**Fatima:** Ok! Give me some more examples so that my mind works

**Researcher:** Well people see themselves in different roles, such as, a guide, an organizer a resource person, a demonstrator, a helper a learner, a companion etc.

**Fatima:** Oh yes yes! I get it. I’m think first a facilitator, this is what we have learnt in our TESOL class, and I try to be one. . I also advise students, and sometimes help them in their problems, which are sometimes not about studies so I think I’m also a kind of an advisor a counsellor. Then sometimes we are the ones giving all the information and knowledge to the students so I also think I am the fountain of knowledge and info for my students from whom the info flows towards them. There are so many roles that we play in the class you see. It depends on the situation and the need of the situation.

**Researcher:** 8. What is the hardest part of the job?

**Fatima:** The hardest part….ummm well lots of hard parts. The very very large classes. You see I have a huge class. It is really hard to teach them and to check their work and to give each student the attention that is needed. We don’t even know their names and the year passes.

**Researcher:** How many students do you have in your class?

**Fatima:** I’m teaching three groups. One has 68, one 69, and one 70. People even have 80 students in their classes. Then the girls are very weak. They come from Urdu medium schools and lower middle class families. Their fathers can’t afford to put them in English medium schools, they are expensive you see. The girls are really really weak. These are the two most difficult things for me. But I try my best.

**Researcher:** 9. What do you feel are your strengths as an EFL teacher?

**Fatima:** I think a teacher should be motivated to get the best out of any situation and I try to do that. Then I have the command over the language. I very strongly believe that teachers’ who don’t have the command over language can actually not teach. This is the biggest cause of generation after generation of graduates with weak English. Although it is a compulsory subject here.

**Researcher:** 10. What do you feel are your weaknesses as an EFL teacher?
Fatima: My weakness...hmmm well I think I’m still learning and trying to do my best with the weak students and the whole system as it works. We don’t have the independence to do what we want to do. That is my weakness.

Researcher: Any personal weakness as a teacher that you would like to improve?

Fatima: I think managing such big classes. I try to use all my newly learnt techniques but how to make them work in such big classes is a problem for me still. I’m trying and do my best.

Researcher: 11. What do you think is most important in teaching and learning English in Pakistan in terms of content, methodology, students’ needs?

Fatima: I believe that for employability English is valuable. For all good, high profile and high paid job interviews, fluency in spoken English is an asset and its importance cannot be denied. I wonder why, though we all know how important English is in our country don’t pay attention to speaking. Fortunately or unfortunately, it is ingrained in us that good English means a higher status, and everybody won’t read your writing. You are socially judged by your speech. Even in the classrooms honestly teachers give importance to those students who speak better English. I think speaking should be an important part of the curriculum. I’m not saying reading and writing are not important, but we cannot deny the importance of speaking and listening as well. : Now talking about reading and writing I think if they understand the meaning of the key words....they will be able to comprehend the whole idea...We should aim at improving the vocabulary of our students. Good vocabulary gives them confidence and motivation.

Researcher: a) Do you have any preferences in terms of classroom methodology and activities?

Fatima: I believe in the importance of students working together and communicative language teaching so for me of course communicative methodology. You see I’m learning it now, and feel that it is really good for our students as well. Times have changed. Learners should be encouraged to work independently in pairs and groups. Teachers should know that we are not the centre but the students are. We should teach keeping them in mind. It sounds bookish but honestly it is important.

Researcher: b) What language do you think should be used in the English class, English, Urdu or a mixture of both and why?

Fatima: Well you see we are teaching English and as I said this is the only place they will be exposed to English so we should use English, only English in class.

Researcher: Ok! And how do the teachers make sure that the students have understood considering the low proficiency level of these students as you mentioned before?

Fatima: Yes, this can be a problem and always is but I think teachers should use concept check questions to teach stuff like difficult words and should not just translate them for the students.
Perceptions about Curriculum change

**Researcher:** 12. Are you aware of the HEC’s efforts to reform English language education in Pakistan?

**Fatima:** Yes I know some, but not in detail. Things have been going on for producing more PHDs and all those British council programs. And teachers are also been sent abroad for higher studies. But we are not that touched by this stuff. For us the change in the courses is the main reform.

**Researcher:** a) Can you describe some of the reform efforts and changes introduced in the undergraduate curriculum?

**Fatima:** Some! Well, all is changed. The annual system has become semester system. The BA was a two-year program but it has become a four-year program, in keeping with the world. All the courses have changed so as they say to bring the education in Pakistan to the international level.

**Researcher:** b) In what aspects of the English language curriculum has change occurred? To what extent do you consider this as change?

**Fatima:** All has changed. We used to teach English through literature, now we teach through communicative skills based course, and some also call it academic English But that is mostly in the 3rd and most in the 4th semester. We basically now teach them skills. To say it more clearly, though we still teach English as a compulsory subject for the first two years, but the way it is taught and the courses are completely different.

**Researcher:** c) How do you feel about these changes?

**Fatima:** I think it is a good change. All the world business, communication, best books in higher education are in English....our students should learn English.......I strongly believe that to come to the level of the rest of the world we need English.......the world has become what they call the global village” I mean

**Researcher:** d) How do you feel about having to deal with a new curriculum?

**Fatima:** Well! I was excited in the beginning and in a way still am. It forced me to start studying again, which I had forgotten long ago, which is really a good thing. But, there is also a feeling of being lost.

**Researcher:** Why do you feel lost?

**Fatima:** Because it was so so sudden, so quick. We were all surprised, and didn’t know what to do. Everything was so new

**Researcher:** e) What do you like or agree with? What do you not agree with?

**Fatima:** I like this course as the attention is given to language and not just rote learning the questions on poems or stories. It will help students to learn English, which we’ve been trying for the last so many years. They need English for other subjects now; they have to write their dissertations too for all the subjects. This I hope is a new beginning. On the other hand, it is very difficult for the students as well as the teachers.
Everybody is not doing an MA, so how will they teach just like that. I don’t agree with the sudden way in which it was imposed on us. Then look at our students they are so weak. Did we do any ground work. Just to bring something so suddenly without making people ready is what I don’t like.

**Researcher:** f) Do the current developments meet expectations from the field (teachers, students and administrators)? If yes how? If not why not?

**Fatima:** Hmm! Theoretically all is well. It’s a new course in line with the changes around the world, but practically I have my reservations. I believe that the most important thing before starting a new thing is to see how prepared all the parties are. Even the systems the colleges the universities with which we are affiliated. I mean were they ready? Did they have the maturity to carry so much. I don’t think so. But you see this is a long debate. But things are improving. The dust is settling down and we are getting more control over things.

**Researcher:** Right. That’s it for today. Thank you very much for your time. It was wonderful talking to you. I will see you again soon.

**Implementation of the change in the classroom (after observation)**

**Researcher:** It is really nice to see you again. Now we will start part 2 of our interview

**Fatima:** Sure! Im ready

**Researcher:** 13. What have been the greatest influences in your development as a teacher?

**Fatima:** Influences, well many influences. Could you give an example

**Researcher:** Sure! What influenced or affected you most your experiences as learners, or teaching itself or your teacher education etc.

**Fatima:** Umm! I think it’s a mixture of things. My experience as a learner, i.e. when I was in school and college. The way my teachers taught it probably unconsciously sank in me, and most recently I think the MA TEFL that I’m doing now it has a lot of influence on my teaching. Then teaching itself develops you. You know how to deal with your students and what they need.

**Researcher:** 14. How do you describe your approach to teaching?

**Fatima:** I think, rather I’m sure that I have a communicative approach towards teaching English.

**Researcher:** 15. What approach did you adopt during your lesson?

**Fatima:** I tried to use the communicative approach. I used pair work and prediction activities for reading, as they should be done in communicative teaching

**Researcher:** 16. To what extent were you able to implement your intended approach in the classroom?
Fatima: I think I tried my best, though I think I couldn’t implement it the way I would like to.

Researcher: In your last interview, you stressed the importance of speaking.

Fatima: Yes, I did and I do believe that speaking is a very important skill.

Researcher: The observation showed a very short speaking activity and it was stopped suddenly. Would you like to explain this discrepancy.

Fatima: Yes you are right. What makes it impossible for us to implement the way we want to teach is the level of the learners. When we ask them to speak they either don’t speak or start talking in Urdu. You see they are weak very weak. Then there is so little time. We are always hard pressed for time. To top it all look at the number of students in the class. It’s impossible to teach a language to such a big class. For effective learning to take place, the fewer the better. I can work with 30 or even 35 but 70 or 80 it’s a joke really. And we actually live in this joke and the best is expected from us. Then how should I do listening? Do I have a CD player or speakers. They give us nothing and expect everything from us

Researcher: 17. As you know the new curriculum advocates the communicative and EAP approach to English language teaching, do you think your lesson has reflected such an approach? If yes how? If not, why not?

Fatima: I think my lesson was a mixture of communicative and teacher centred teaching. Why well! There are many many reasons. We have very weak students. with low proficiency level not matching the courses. Then they are always under pressure of exams. Then big classes as I said and the time available is only one hour, so I just did what I could in these circumstances.

Researcher: 18. Has the new approach affected your teaching behaviours in classroom? If yes in what ways? If not, why not?

Fatima: Of course it has. I try to teach the way communicative approach demands. I try to do pair work and group work for example, which I never used to do before. But, to what extent well that is relative to the problems I have mentioned before

Issues around the change implementation

Researcher: 19. What are your most important concerns in implementing the curriculum change?

Fatima: As I have said before as well I like the idea of change. we do need communicative approach in order to bring our students to the international level. You know change is life. But to just impose it suddenly like this has lots of problems. I mean look at the class size. Is it suitable for communicative teaching? The students are very weak and it is pressurizing them more. The exams are always a big pressure on teachers and students.

Researcher: 20. What about your teaching environment? How would you describe it?
Fatima: If I talk about my own college then it is very helpful in whatever resources we have available. We support each other and in spite of the lack of everything we are all working together and helping each other. But, if you talk of the university we are affiliated with, it not good at all. We are not respected not trusted. They can’t provide us anything because they either don’t have it or they are really unable to handle colleges

Researcher: Would you please explain this a little more

Fatima: Yes sure. The university itself was not ready for the change so how can it create a feasible environment for the affiliated colleges. We never know what’s happening and we suddenly get an order. So this all makes it a really bad environment. There is a strange competition between the university staff and the college staff.

Researcher: 21. Do you have support to implement the new curriculum?

Fatima: No as I said nothing. We were never given any kind of training or any kind of help from the beginning. We had to ask them a hundred times to get an answer. The books the other material everything has been a big problem. But, well, the situation has improved and id better now. We didn’t know how to handle the new stuff but we know now how to teach this new course and our confidence is a lot more now. As I said, we know our way now, not by someone’s help but by trial and error and by helping each other

Researcher: 22. How important is the environment in implementing the curriculum?

Fatima: It’s very important. If the conditions are not helpful to the change we will not be able to implement it properly in class. It cannot achieve what is expected of it. If we want the students to develop their language, we have to provide them with proper conditions

Researcher: 23. What do you think English language education should be like in Pakistan?

Fatima: I think the direction we are taking is right. We need communicative approach. We need to improve the students’ speaking ability. But all this needs proper planning from the beginning. We have to prepare the students from earlier levels to be able to handle all this at this level. The classes especially language classes which is not a lecture type class should not be so big. We need to pay attention to all students so there should be smaller classes. The universities themselves should be first trained to be able to handle colleges and if you want us to do something provide us with the things like CD players etc so that we can teach. I can’t get these things from home. Then if things are not included in the exams the students will not be interested. They keep asking all the time if something will come in the exams. That’s it I think.

Researcher: 24. Do you have any more recommendations?

Fatima: All this that I have mentioned. If we do all this, our system would definitely improve and our students will do much better I’m sure
Researcher: That is all for today. Thank you very much for your time and your interest in my research………
Classroom Observation Guide

General information:
Instructor: ____________________________________________________________
Date: ________________________________________________________________
Time: _________________________________________________________________
Classroom: __________________________________________________________

Focus of the observation:
1. What is the class seating arrangement?
2. How many students are there in the class?
2. Who is conducting most of the talking, the teacher, or the students?
3. How does the teacher teach generally? Using what methods?
4. What kind of interaction takes place between the teacher and the students?
5. How does the teacher ask and respond to the students’ questions in the class?
6. Is there any group work or pair work during the lesson?
7. Is there any speaking practice in the classroom teaching?
8. How are the classroom activities conducted in the class?
9. How is English used in the class?
10. How much English is used in the class?
10. How is Urdu used in the classroom activities?
11. How much Urdu is used in in the class?
## Summary of classroom Observations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Observation <em>(semester, number of students present, lesson)</em></th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Fatima    | - Semester 1  
- 71 students  
- Reading | - Mixture of communicative and teacher centred teaching,  
- Use of pair work in the prediction and reading for specific information activities  
- Students encouraged to infer meaning from the context  
- Teacher explained the meaning of the text herself by reading the text paragraph by paragraph and translating some things in Urdu  
- Teacher used a combination of English and Urdu to teach and to give instructions.  
- Students generally failed to respond in English in the speaking activity. This seemed to indicate lack of language proficiency.  
- The speaking activity time given to the students in the whole lesson was only eight minutes.  
- The teacher rephrased the sentences a number of times and lent support by using Urdu.  
- Students asked a number of times if the text would be included in the exams |
| Sofia     | - Semester 3  
- 69 students  
- Narrative writing | - Learner centred teaching. Group work for pre writing activities and brainstorming  
- Teacher encouraged students to work independently in their groups  
- Teacher used a combination of English and Urdu to teach and to give instructions.  
- Students generally spoke in Urdu while working in groups, though, the teacher encouraged them to try to speak in English  
- Students seemed to be finding it difficult to work on their own.  
- They kept asking the teacher to check if the sentences they were writing were correct. |
| Samina    | - Semester 1  
- 75 students  
- Reading activity | - Mainly teacher centred with some communicative pair work  
- Pre reading activities mostly teacher centred  
- Students did the reading activities individually  
- Students checked the comprehension questions |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Razia   | Semester 3 | 66       | Oral presentation skills          | - Mixture of teacher centred and communicative pair work activities  
- Teacher taught the students about presentation skills on the board  
- Students prepared their presentations in pairs. The topic was given by the teacher: ‘Importance of employment for women’  
- Teacher monitored only three pairs sitting in front  
- Teacher used a combination of English and Urdu to teach and to give instructions.  
- Two pairs presented due to the time constraint.  
- Students generally had very low level of English. All the presenters had grammatical mistakes in almost each sentence they spoke or read from the paper for example “The every student like to doing jobs”  
- The students asked at least twice if presentation skills would be included in the examinations  
- Teacher stopped their presentations a number of times to correct their mistakes |
| Abbas   | Semester 1 | 68       | Descriptive writing               | - Learner centred teaching. Fun warm up activity, group work for pre writing activities and brainstorming. The students encouraged to discuss their opinions in groups.  
- Process approach to writing  
- Teacher tried to monitor all the students during group work  
- Teacher used a combination of English and Urdu to teach and to give instructions  
- Students generally spoke in Urdu while working in groups, though, the teacher consistently encouraged them to try to speak in English  
- Students did not complete the work due to the time constraint. The work was thus given for homework. |
| Ahmed   | Semester 3 | 65       | Writing a formal letter           | - Traditional teaching method directed toward exam preparation  
- Teacher centred teaching  
- Teacher used a combination of English and Urdu to teach and to give instructions  
- Teacher taught about the parts of a formal letter on the board.  
- Teacher wrote outlines of two formal letters on the board and asked the students to choose one as a pair and to complete it |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Sadia | - Semester 3  
- 67 students  
- Job application  
- Learner centred teaching. Fun warm up activity, group work for pre writing vocabulary activities and brainstorming. Students encouraged to speak in English and share ideas during group work  
- Lack of monitoring during the group activities.  
- Teacher used a combination of English and Urdu to teach and to give instructions  
- Students mostly spoke Urdu during group work and while asking questions  
- Students could not complete the work during class, thus it was given for homework |
| Maryum | - Semester 3  
- 64 students  
- Exam practice - application  
- Writing  
- Teacher centred teaching, with some pair work  
- Teacher wrote an application on the board with gaps. The missing words were written on one side of the board.  
- Students copied the letter and worked in pairs to fill in the gaps  
- Students read out lines with missing words in the gaps and the teacher gave feedback |
Sample Observation data

Classroom Observation no: 2
Participant: Razia
Date: 30th September, 2013
Time: 11.00-12.00

There were 66 female students and 1 female teacher in the classroom.
The classroom was at the end of a long corridor.
The seating arrangement was in fixed rows of desks and benches on both sides with an aisle in the middle.
The teacher entered the class and all the students stood up.
Greetings exchanged.
The teacher asked the students about their previous day.
The students stayed quiet.
The teacher took random names to ask them about their previous day. The students stayed quiet.
The teacher told the students that they would do oral presentation skills in the lesson.
The teacher asked the students if they knew what it was.
The students did not reply. The teacher asked again. One student said, “talking in front of people.”
The teacher appreciated the student’s effort, and asked another student who did not reply.
The teacher then started writing points about presentation skills on the board. The board marker was almost finished, and the writing was very light and places hardly visible. The students started taking notes as soon as the teacher started writing.
The teacher then explained the points to the students. She asked the students to take notes. The writing and explanation went on for about 20 minutes.
The students at the back kept talking while the teacher was explaining.
The teacher then asked the students about the planning and preparation checklist.
Three students in front raised their hands and one was selected by the teacher to answer the question. Her answer was not in accordance to what was written on the board and the teacher moved on to the next student and asked her the same question. The student’s reply was according to the points written by the teacher on the board.
The teacher appreciated the student.
The teacher then asked if the students had any questions.
One student asked in L1 “Miss will this be included in the exams?”
The teacher replied, “Let’s see. But now we have to do it quickly, come on.”
The teacher then told the students not to waste time and to prepare a presentation in the class in pairs ‘We have other things to do. I don’t want you spend all the time on this. I don’t want you to fail’.
The teacher then wrote the topic on the board “Importance of employment for women”
The teacher then explained the topic to the class by giving a few examples.
The teacher asked the students ‘How important it is for women to work and why?’
Four students in front raised their hands to answer. The teacher chose one who started talking in English but switched to Urdu after one sentence. The teacher spoke in English as well as in Urdu. She also translated a few words spoken by the student into English.
The teacher then asked the students to work with the person sitting next to them and to prepare an oral presentation. There was confusion in the class as the students did not understand the teacher’s instructions. The teacher explained to them again in L1.
As there were five students in each row, the last student was asked to work with the one sitting behind her.
The students were given fifteen minutes to prepare their presentations.
The students mostly spoke Urdu while working in pairs. The teacher kept giving instructions in English and Urdu. The teacher monitored only three pairs sitting in the front two rows.
The students sitting at the back again asked if the work would be graded and if this skill would be included in the examinations. The teacher said “Don’t worry about this just do it now, we have other things for exams”.

The teacher did not reply.
The students kept talking aloud and the teacher kept telling them to be quiet and to talk softly and in English. The students continued talking loudly in Urdu.

At the end of twenty minutes, the teacher asked the students if someone was ready to present their presentation.
One pair from the second row raised their hands. The teacher called them by their names and asked them to come to the front. The teacher took her place on her chair that was lying close to the rostrum. One student from the pair presented while the other stood near her. The teacher would stop her in the middle and correct her mistake. The number of times the correction took place was four.

The first pair presented for 3 minutes and 16 seconds. The whole class and the teacher clapped after the presentation. The teacher then asked that who would come and present next. One student from the third row raised her hand. The teacher asked the pair to come forward in front and to present. This pair divided the presentation between themselves. The first student presented for two minutes. The teacher stopped her twice to correct her mistakes.
Appendix 13

Sample Observation raw data coding 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observation raw data</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>(Concerns &amp; perceptions)</td>
</tr>
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<td>The seating arrangement was in fixed rows of desks and benches on both sides with an aisle in the middle. The teacher entered the class and all the students stood up. Greetings exchanged.</td>
<td>Fixed seating</td>
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<td>Student teacher interaction</td>
</tr>
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<td>(Discrepancy:</td>
</tr>
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<td>Lack of resources</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(Concerns)</td>
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<td>Teacher centred teaching</td>
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<td>(Core &amp; peripheral beliefs)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Large classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Practicality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher centred</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The teacher appreciated the student. The teacher then asked if the students had any questions. One student asked in L1 “Miss will this be included in the exams?” The teacher replied, “let’s see. But now we have to do it quickly, come on”.

The teacher then told the students not to waste time and to prepare a presentation in the class in pairs. “We have other things to do. I don’t want you spend all the time on this. I don’t want you to fail”.

The teacher then wrote the topic on the board “Importance of employment for women”.

The teacher explained the topic to the class by giving a few examples. The teacher asked the students ‘How important it is for women to work and why?’

Four students in front raised their hands to answer. The teacher chose one who started talking in English but switched to Urdu after one sentence. The teacher spoke in English as well as in Urdu. She also translated a few words spoken by the student into English.

The teacher then asked the students to work with the person sitting next to them and to prepare an oral presentation. There was confusion in the class as the students did not understand the teacher’s instructions. The teacher explained to them again in L1.

As there were five students in each row, the last student was asked to work with the one sitting behind her. The students were given fifteen minutes to prepare their presentations.

The students mostly spoke Urdu while working in pairs. The teacher kept giving instructions in English and Urdu. The teacher monitored only three pairs sitting in the front two rows.

The students sitting at the back again asked if the work would be graded and if this skill would be included in the examinations. The teacher said “Don’t worry about this just do it now, we have other things for exams.” The teacher did not reply.

The students kept talking aloud and the teacher kept telling them to be quiet and to talk softly and in English. The students continued talking loudly in Urdu.

At the end of twenty minutes, the teacher asked the students if someone was ready to present their presentation. One pair from the second row raised their hands. The teacher called them by their names and asked them to come to the front.
The teacher took her place on her chair that was lying close to the rostrum. One student from the pair presented while the other stood near her. The student read out the work prepared by them. As she was reading the other students were busy talking and working on their own presentation. The student presenting her work made a number of grammatical and pronunciation mistakes (example: the student read: “The every student like to doing jobs” the teacher said “No we don’t say it like this what you want to say is that every student likes working, or likes to have a job. What is it? Say it again with me. Every student likes working or every student likes to have a job”).

The teacher would stop her in the middle and correct her mistake. The number of times the correction took place was four. The first pair presented for 3 minutes and 16 seconds. The whole class and the teacher clapped after the presentation. The teacher then asked that who would come and present next. One student from the third row raised her hand. The teacher asked the pair to come forward in front and to present. This pair divided the presentation between themselves. The first student presented for two minutes. The teacher stopped her twice to correct her mistakes…….
Sample Observation data coding 2

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observation raw data</th>
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<th>Interview excerpts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Large classes</td>
<td>I tried a few times to do a lot of group work and pair work and tried to move the girls but it was too noisy kind of out of control. The teacher in the next class went and complained to do all this in such a big class it’s really difficult. Discipline, noise as you saw (Int.2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The classroom was at the end of a long corridor.</td>
<td>Fixed seating (practicality Concerns &amp; perceptions)</td>
<td>You can’t move the chairs to make students move and to change partners etc. (Int.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The seating arrangement was in fixed rows of desks and benches on both sides with an aisle in the middle</td>
<td></td>
<td>It’s a massive change; the whole system has changed. We need change yes...But did they do needs analysis. Our situation should’ve been reviewed then such a move should’ve been taken. Everything others are doing may not be for us. All that looks good on paper is not always suitable. It can only be practical if we are aware of our conditions and our reality (Int. 1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher entered the class and all the students stood up.</td>
<td>Student teacher interaction (Discrepancy: Core &amp; peripheral beliefs)</td>
<td>‘I believe in group work and pair work. Students should be given tasks to do. This will make them feel that they are accomplishing something important. Its learning by being involved in the task themselves rather than me standing there telling them everything (int. 1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greetings exchanged</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher asked the students about their previous day</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The students stayed quiet.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher took random names to ask them about their previous day.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>The teacher told the students that they would do oral presentation skills in the lesson</td>
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<td>The teacher asked the students if they knew what it was.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The students did not reply. The teacher asked again. One student said, “talking in front of people.”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher appreciated the student’s effort, and asked another student who did not reply.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher then started writing points about presentation skills on the board.</td>
<td>Lack of resources (Concerns)</td>
<td>we are trying to make the best of the worse situation. This is all that we can do’ (Int. 2).</td>
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<tr>
<td>The board marker was almost finished, and the writing was very light and places hardly visible.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The students started taking notes as soon as the teacher started writing.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The teacher then explained the points to the students. She asked the students to take notes. The writing and explanation went on for about 20 minutes.</td>
<td>Teacher centred teaching (Core &amp; peripheral beliefs)</td>
<td>Wouldn’t it be better if the students are introduced to the grammatical issues involved in the activities in the beginning and then give them activities…?</td>
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<tr>
<td>The students at the back kept talking while the teacher was explaining. The teacher then asked the students about the planning and preparation checklist. Three students in front raised their hands and one was selected by the teacher to answer the question. Her answer was not in accordance to what was written on the board and the teacher moved on to the next student and asked her the same question. The student’s reply was according to the points written by the teacher on the board. The teacher appreciated the student. The teacher then asked if the students had any questions. One student asked in L1 “Miss will this be included in the exams?” The teacher replied, “let’s see. But now we have to do it quickly, come on”</td>
<td>Large classes (Practicality)</td>
<td>I look at myself as a facilitator, helper and friend. At the same time I am a commander and a knowledge transmitter (int.1).</td>
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<td>The teacher then told the students not to waste time and to prepare a presentation in the class in pairs. ‘We have other things to do. I don’t want you spend all the time on this. I don’t want you to fail’. The teacher then wrote the topic on the board “Importance of employment for women”</td>
<td>Examination washback (Pressure)</td>
<td>I want my students to learn speaking and listening……. But what’s the point of doing it. It will not come in the exams. Why to waste time? My students ask me ‘Miss will this come in the exam. We have so much to cover’. They want to study only what will come in the exams so why to spend time on speaking? (Int.2). ‘the semester is very short and we are always under great pressure to finish the course…we can’t just do activities with them. They need to learn and pass’</td>
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<td>The teacher then explained the topic to the class by giving a few examples. The teacher asked the students ‘How important it is for women to work and why?’ Four students in front raised their hands to answer</td>
<td>Teacher centred</td>
<td>Teacher centred Washback</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teacher centred

Large classes (Practicality)

Teacher centred Washback
The teacher chose one who started talking in English but switched to Urdu after one sentence. The teacher spoke in English as well as in Urdu. She also translated a few words spoken by the student into English. The teacher then asked the students to work with the person sitting next to them and to prepare an oral presentation. There was confusion in the class as the students did not understand the teacher’s instructions. The teacher explained to them again in L1. As there were five students in each row, the last student was asked to work with the one sitting behind her. The students were given fifteen minutes to prepare their presentations.

The students mostly spoke Urdu while working in pairs. The teacher kept giving instructions in English and Urdu. The teacher monitored only three pairs sitting in the front two rows.

The students sitting at the back again asked if the work would be graded and if this skill would be included in the examinations. The teacher said, ‘Don’t worry about this just do it now, we have other things for exams.’ The teacher did not reply. The students kept talking aloud and the teacher kept telling them to be quiet and to talk softly and in English. The students continued talking loudly in Urdu.

At the end of twenty minutes, the teacher asked the students if someone was ready to present their presentation. One pair from the second row raised their hands. The teacher called them by their names and asked them to come to use of TL in class

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<tr>
<th>Use of TL in class</th>
<th>I strongly believe that we should teach English in English. Where else will they speak English in Pakistan? They will not get a chance to learn. I always try to speak English in class and also tell my students. (int.1).</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pair work (unclear instructions) (Training)</td>
<td>Very few got the chance to attend any training programs. Those who did had an advantage but still it was too little too late, the system, the exam system brings all this training to nothing. We don’t know how to deal with this situation (Int.2).</td>
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<td>Use of TL in class</td>
<td>‘All skills are important no doubt, not all are evaluated then why will the students be interested to learn and the teachers interested to teach’ (Int.2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lack of monitoring (CLT Training)</td>
<td>To do communicative activities in such a big class? We try our best but it’s really difficult….there are many problems…lack of discipline….noise….the other classes are disturbed. (int.2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examination washback</td>
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<tr>
<td>Noise in class Large classes (Concerns)</td>
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the front.
The teacher took her place on her chair that was lying close to the rostrum.
One student from the pair presented while the other stood near her.
The student read out the work prepared by them
As she was reading the other students were busy talking and working on their own presentation
The student presenting her work made a number of grammatical and pronunciation mistakes (example: the student read: “The every student like to doing jobs” the teacher said

“No we don’t say it like this what you want to say is that every student likes working, or likes to have a job. What is it? Say it again with me. Every student likes working or every student likes to have a job”).

The teacher would stop her in the middle and correct her mistake.
The number of times the correction took place was four.
The first pair presented for 3 minutes and 16 seconds.
The whole class and the teacher clapped after the presentation.
The teacher then asked that who would come and present next.
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Just see if our students have been able to achieve something. It is now worse than before. In the previous system though by cramming they at least learnt something, now we don’t know how to develop their basic skills (Int. 2).
### Sample Observation data analysis

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<th>Interview excerpts</th>
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<td><em>I tried a few times to do a lot of group work and pair work and tried to move the girls but it was too noisy kind of out of control. The teacher in the next class went and complained to do all this in such a big class it’s really difficult. Discipline, noise as you saw (Int.2).</em></td>
<td>Perceptions Practicality of change &amp; Concerns Large classes</td>
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<td><em>You can’t move the chairs to make students move and to change partners etc.(Int.2)</em></td>
<td>Perceptions/ Concerns Practicality of change &amp; Readiness of systems</td>
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<th>Concerns</th>
<th>Lack of resources</th>
<th>Teacher centred teaching</th>
<th>Large classes (Practicality)</th>
<th>Beliefs about teachers and teaching</th>
<th>Perceptions</th>
<th>Concerns</th>
<th>Practicality</th>
<th>Concerns</th>
<th>Lack of teacher training</th>
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<td></td>
<td>we are trying to make the best of the worse situation. This is all that we can do’ (Razia, Int. 2).</td>
<td>Wouldn’t it be better if the students are introduced to the grammatical issues involved in the activities in the beginning and then give them activities…? I look at myself as a facilitator, helper and friend. At the same time I am a commander and a knowledge transmitter (int.1).</td>
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| Examination washback | speaking and listening...... But what’s the point of doing it. It will not come in the exams. Why to waste time? My students ask me ‘Miss will this come in the exam. We have so much to cover’. They want to study only what will come in the exams so why to spend time on speaking? (Int.2). |
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| Pair work (unclear instructions) (Training) | Concerns Lack of teacher training Perceptions Readiness of lecturers and students |
The last student was asked to work with the one sitting behind her. The students were given fifteen minutes to prepare their presentations. The students mostly spoke Urdu while working in pairs. The teacher kept giving instructions in English and Urdu. The teacher monitored only three pairs sitting in the front two rows.

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<td><strong>situation</strong> (Int.2).</td>
<td><strong>‘All skills are important no doubt, not all are evaluated then why will the students be interested to learn and the teachers interested to teach’</strong> (Int.2)</td>
<td></td>
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| Noise in class (Concerns) | To do communicative activities in such a big class? We try our best but it’s really difficult….there are many problems….lack of discipline….noise….the other classes are disturbed. (Int.2) |

| Beliefs | Role of target language in class Core & peripheral beliefs, |
| Concerns | Lack of teacher training |
| Perceptions | Readiness of lecturers and students |

| Concerns | Examinations |
| Perceptions | Practicality & Readiness of the systems |
| Concerns | Large classes |
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<tr>
<th>Level of the students (Concerns)</th>
<th>Immediate Correction</th>
<th>Perceptions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher controlled class</td>
<td></td>
<td>Readiness of the students</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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Beliefs about teachers and teaching
Core & peripheral beliefs,
Concerns Lack of teacher training
The first student presented for two minutes. The teacher stopped her twice to correct her mistakes.

………………..
Classroom Map.

Boys
Girls
Teachers
Rostrum

66 students.