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University
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An investigation of two universities' postgraduate students and their teachers' perceptions of policy and practice of English medium of instruction (EMI) in Pakistani universities

By

Humaira Irfan Khan

**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

**School of Education
College of Social Sciences
The University of Glasgow**

(2013)

Dedicated to my Dear Parents, Husband and Daughter

Abstract

In this thesis, I examine the perceptions of university staff and postgraduate students to explore the relation between policy and practice of English as the Medium of Instruction (EMI) in Pakistani universities. The theoretical framework of the study comprises literature on language in education policy, language in education goals, the status of English and World English. Findings from qualitative and quantitative data collected from students and staff in two public universities are compared to identify the perceptions of issues concerning EMI for postgraduate study. The findings indicate that although EMI is accepted as compulsory in Pakistani universities for postgraduate study, it is not fully implemented. The evidence supports the view that multilingualism, cultural diversity and ethnicity present challenges to the country's national integration and the formulation and implementation of an effective language policy. The perceptions support the view that in Pakistan, English is required for socio-economic development and higher education and symbolises liberal values. However, the views signifying pride in local culture and national language highlight a potential conflict between modernity and tradition. The findings show a number of practices that indicate a pragmatic approach to implementation of the English medium policy. It appears that not only do postgraduate students express their preference for using Urdu in classroom but highly qualified university teachers' views, under the plea of covering up their own deficiencies in English, show an inclination towards using Urdu in the classroom to accommodate students from diverse educational backgrounds. University faculty consult and provide reading material in English but postgraduate students find language and content of curriculum challenging because of their need for English language and lack of familiarity with foreign culture and philosophical ideology. Postgraduate students experience academic challenges arising from EMI which are demonstrated by their hesitation to speak English in classroom, difficulties of understanding teachers' lectures, confusion of interpreting reading texts and stress of academic writing. The university teachers claim that their postgraduate students use memorisation as a strategy to get through the examinations rather than working ardently towards the development of academic skills. The responses suggest that solutions may lie in the area of reducing the anxiety that postgraduate students experience as a consequence of their language learning difficulties. The participants express their preference for using Pakistani English (PakE) in the study context. Mo-

tivation might act as an effective strategy to assist students to overcome their language problems. These views suggest that universities can enhance the communication skills of postgraduate students through the inclusion of English language proficiency courses in their curricula to support language development and possibly avoid foreign language anxiety. The professional development programmes should train University staff with strategies for teaching postgraduate students using EMI. It would seem advisable that the University can encourage the use of PakE by giving it recognition as an acceptable variety of English in the University context.

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT.....	1
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	3
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	14
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	16
1.1 Linguistic profile of Pakistan.....	16
1.2 The context of the study.....	18
1.3 The framework of research.....	19
1.4 Research Questions: Aspects of investigation.....	21
1.5 Aims and objectives.....	22
1.6 Significance of the study.....	22
CHAPTER 2: LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICIES AFFECT- ING PAKISTAN.....	24
2.1 The policy of language in education.....	24
2.1.1 Language policy and implementation.....	28
2.2 Language policy and practice in Pakistan.....	29
2.2.1 Influences on language policy and practice in Pakistan: multilingualism, multiculturalism and ethnicity.....	30
2.3 Language policies favouring English as the medium of instruction.....	40
2.3.1 Higher education in language policies.....	46
2.4 Attitudes towards various languages in higher education in Pakistan.....	47
2.4.1 Attitudes towards English as the medium of instruction.....	50
CHAPTER 3: THE STATUS AND ROLE OF ENGLISH IN PAKISTAN AFFECTING STUDY IN ENGLISH AT HIGHER EDU- CATION LEVEL.....	54
3.1 External influences on the status and role of English.....	54
3.1.1 Globalization of English.....	54

3.1.2	Linguistic imperialism.....	57
3.1.3	English as a lingua franca.....	58
3.1.4	World Englishes.....	59
3.1.5	English in South Asia.....	64
3.2	Internal influences on the status and role of English.....	65
3.2.1	Emergence of Pakistani English (PakE).....	69
3.2.2	The indigenisation of English in Pakistan.....	71
3.2.3	Models of English.....	74

CHAPTER 4: ENGLISH IN EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN AFFECTING STUDY IN ENGLISH AT HIGHER EDUCATION LEVEL..... 77

4.1	English language teaching in Pakistani institutions.....	77
4.2	English language curriculum.....	78
4.2.1	Curriculum in Pakistan.....	81
4.3	Teaching methodology.....	82
4.3.1	Teaching methodology in Pakistan.....	83
4.4	English language assessment.....	85
4.4.1	Traditional tests versus performance based tests.....	85
4.4.2	English language assessment in Pakistan.....	86
4.4.3	Wash back effect of examinations.....	88
4.5	Teacher education in Pakistan.....	88
4.6	Language anxiety and achievement.....	92
4.6.1	Motivation and language acquisition.....	94
4.6.2	Model of motivation.....	96
4.6.3	Clement et al. (1977) concept of linguistic self confidence.....	97

CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY..... 100

5.1	Introduction: Questions.....	100
5.2	Research design.....	101
5.3	Quantitative research.....	102
5.3.1	Research instrument: questionnaires.....	103
5.3.2	Construction of the questionnaires.....	104

5.4	Clustering main themes.....	106
5.4.1	Themes related to the importance of English.....	106
5.4.2	Themes related to postgraduate students' perceptions about the uses of English.....	107
5.4.3	Themes emerging from university teachers' views about their uses of English.....	108
5.4.4	Emerging themes related to perceptions of language problems arising from English medium of instruction.....	108
5.4.5	Emerging themes in perceptions about Pakistani English (PakE)....	110
5.5	Qualitative research.....	110
5.5.1	Research instrument: Focus Group Interview.....	111
5.5.2	Construction of focus group interviews.....	111
5.6	Piloting.....	113
5.6.1	Administration of the questionnaire.....	114
5.6.2	Time for completion of the questionnaire.....	114
5.6.3	Identification of ambiguities and revision of questions.....	115
5.7	Validity and reliability of research instruments.....	115
5.8	Ethical considerations.....	116
5.9	Recruitment of population in the research.....	118
5.10	Profile of Pakistani universities used for field study.....	120
5.11	Procedure of field study.....	120
5.12	Analysis and interpretation of quantitative data.....	121
5.13	Analysis and interpretation of qualitative data.....	123
CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS.....		124
6.1	Characteristics of university teachers completing questionnaire and joining focus group interviews.....	124
6.2	Characteristics of M.A Education students completing questionnaire and joining focus group interviews.....	128
6.3	Perceptions of the place of English in Pakistan.....	129
6.3.1	As an official language of Pakistan.....	130
6.3.2	Views about policy of medium of instruction in universities.....	131

6.4	Perceptions about the benefits of English in Pakistan.....	132
6.4.1	A pre-requisite for higher education.....	132
6.4.2	English obligatory for satisfactory employment.....	134
6.4.3	As an indicator of adoption of liberal outlook.....	135
6.4.4	English fundamental for development of the country.....	136
6.5	Teachers' perceptions about the role of English language in universities.....	136
6.5.1	Use of English for classroom teaching.....	138
6.5.2	Causing difficulties/barriers to learning.....	140
6.5.3	Students' comprehension of concepts in books and journals.....	141
6.5.4	Assessment of subjects in English.....	142
6.5.5	Which language for classroom discussion?.....	142
6.5.6	Use of English for informal conversation in universities.....	144
6.6	Postgraduate students' perceptions about their uses of English in the university.....	145
6.6.1	Comprehension of lectures in English in classroom.....	145
6.6.2	Use of English for classroom discussion.....	147
6.6.3	Availability of resources in English.....	148
6.6.4	Examinations in English.....	149
6.6.5	Use of English for social interaction and co-curricular activities.....	150
6.7	Perceptions about language anxiety.....	152
6.7.1	Views on whether varieties of English contribute to language learning difficulties for students.....	157
6.7.2	Perceptions of student motivation.....	160
6.7.3	Areas of need in developing English language skills.....	160
6.8	English language teaching (ELT) methodology.....	161
6.9	Socio-linguistic and educational diversity.....	161
6.10	Perceptions of use of national language and regional languages in universities.....	163
6.10.1	Evidence of multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity.....	164
6.11	Views on the status and role of different varieties of English in Pakistani universities.....	166
6.12	Analysis of linguistic features of Pakistani English (PakE).....	167

6.12.1	Lexis.....	167
6.12.2	Grammar.....	168
6.13	Perceptions about Pakistani English (PakE) as a variety of English.	168
6.13.1	Views as to whether there is role for universities to develop Pakistani English.....	170
6.13.2	Addressing the issue of World Englishes in language policies.....	171
6.13.3	Challenges facing the development of Pakistani English (PakE).....	171
6.14	University teachers' views on teacher education in Pakistan.....	172
CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS.....		174
7.1	Importance of English for work and study in Pakistan.....	174
7.1.1	Language of administration.....	175
7.1.2	Requirement for higher education.....	175
7.1.3	Essential for employment and career development.....	175
7.1.4	Adoption of progressive outlook.....	176
7.1.5	Development of the country.....	176
7.2	Policy and practice of English medium of instruction.....	177
7.3	Formal and informal uses of English in universities.....	177
7.3.1	English for lecturing in classroom.....	177
7.3.2	Curriculum at university level.....	178
7.3.3	Classroom discussion.....	179
7.3.4	Assessment in English.....	179
7.3.5	Which language for social interaction and co-curricular activities?.	180
7.4	Barriers to language learning.....	180
7.4.1	Difficulty in comprehending teachers' lectures in English.....	181
7.4.2	Anxiety to talk in English.....	182
7.4.3	Confusion in understanding of reading texts.....	182
7.4.4	Stress of written examinations.....	182
7.4.5	Perceptions of World Englishes creating language problems for students.....	183
7.4.6	Developing English language skills.....	183
7.4.7	The role of motivation in second language acquisition.....	184
7.5	Influences: multilingualism, cultural diversity and ethnicity.....	184

7.5.1	The status of regional languages in Pakistan.....	186
7.6	English language teaching classroom in Pakistan.....	189
7.7	The role and status of Pakistani English (PakE).....	190
7.8	Teacher education in Pakistan.....	193

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS..... 194

8.1	Research Question 1.....	194
8.1.1	Research Question (i).....	196
8.1.2	Research Question (ii).....	198
8.1.3	Research Question (iii).....	198
8.1.4	Research Question (iv).....	199
8.2	Recommendations.....	200
8.2.1	Amendment in language policy and planning.....	201
8.2.2	Need of English language proficiency course.....	202
8.2.3	The role of ELT in teacher education.....	203
8.2.4	The role of motivation in reducing L2 anxiety.....	203
8.2.5	Culturally responsive teaching in universities.....	204
8.2.6	Multi-ethnic teaching in universities.....	205
8.2.7	Using Pakistani English (PakE).....	205
8.3	Limitations of research.....	206
8.4	Suggestions for future study.....	206

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	Languages in Pakistan.....	17
Table 1.2	Stages, decision-making roles and products.....	21
Table 2.1	Positive and negative attitudes to different languages in a population of public and private schools.....	50
Table 2.2	Students in favour of English medium of instruction in various stages of education.....	51
Table 2.3	Attitudes towards English medium of instruction.....	52
Table 3.1	The UNESCO Courier.....	56
Table 3.2	The spelling differences in American English (AmE) and British English (BrE).....	62

Table 3.3	Medium of instruction in South Asia.....	65
Table 3.4	Features of indigenisation of English in Pakistan.....	72
Table 3.5	Word Formation in Pakistani English.....	72
Table 4.1	Categories of teacher educators based on three key factors.....	90
Table 4.2	Teacher training programmes in Pakistan.....	91
Table 5.1	Sample size for questionnaires.....	114
Table 5.2	Sample size for focus group interviews.....	115
Table 6.1	Demographic features of university teachers from quantitative and qualitative data.....	127
Table 6.2	Demographic features of M.A Education students from qualitative and quantitative data.....	129
Table 6.3	QVU teachers' perceptions of the status of English.....	130
Table 6.4	BSU teachers' perceptions of the status of English in universities.....	131
Table 6.5	QVU teachers' perceptions of the policy of English medium of instruction at university level.....	132
Table 6.6	BSU teachers' perceptions of policy of English medium of instruction at university level.....	132
Table 6.7	QVU's postgraduate students' perceptions of the status of English.....	133
Table 6.8	BSU's postgraduate students' perceptions of the status of English.....	134
Table 6.9	QVU's teachers' perceptions of the uses of English in universities.....	137
Table 6.10	BSU's teachers' perceptions of the uses of English in universities.....	138
Table 6.11	QVU teachers' preference to use which language?.....	139
Table 6.12	BSU teachers' preference to use which language?.....	139
Table 6.13	QVU teachers' perceptions of which language in classroom?.....	143
Table 6.14	BSU teachers' perceptions of which language in classroom?...	144
Table 6.15	QVU teachers' perceptions of which language for informal conversation in universities?.....	144

Table 6.16	BSU teachers' perceptions of which language for informal conversation in universities?.....	145
Table 6.17	QVU's postgraduate students' views about which language for classroom teaching?.....	146
Table 6.18	BSU's postgraduate students' views about which language for classroom teaching?.....	146
Table 6.19	QVU's postgraduate students' views about using English for classroom discussion and examination.....	147
Table 6.20	BSU's postgraduate students' views about using English for classroom discussion and examination.....	148
Table 6.21	QVU's postgraduate students' views about availability of resources in English.....	148
Table 6.22	BSU's postgraduate students' views about availability of resources in English.....	149
Table 6.23	QVU's postgraduate students' views about using only English in universities.....	150
Table 6.24	BSU's postgraduate students' views about using only English in universities.....	150
Table 6.25	QVU's MAE1's students' views about which language for social interaction in universities?.....	151
Table 6.26	BSU's postgraduate students' views about which language for social interaction in universities?.....	151
Table 6.27	QVU's postgraduate students' views about which language for co-curricular activities in universities?.....	152
Table 6.28	BSU's postgraduate students' views about which language for co-curricular activities in universities?.....	152
Table 6.29	QVU's postgraduate students' perceptions of language learning difficulties.....	154
Table 6.30	BSU's postgraduate students' perceptions of language learning difficulties.....	154
Table 6.31	QVU's postgraduate students' views about language anxiety.....	156

Table 6.32	BSU 's postgraduate students' views about language anxiety.....	156
Table 6.33	QVU teachers' views about Pakistani English (PakE).....	158
Table 6.34	BSU teachers' views about Pakistani English (PakE).....	158
Table 6.35	QVU's postgraduate students' views about language problems arising from varieties.....	159
Table 6.36	BSU's postgraduate students' views about language problems arising from varieties of English.....	159
Table 6.37	QVU's postgraduate students' perceptions of varieties of English in universities.....	167
Table 6.38	BSU's postgraduate students' perceptions of varieties of English in universities.....	167
Table 6.39	QVU's postgraduate students' views about which English?.....	169
Table 6.40	BSU's postgraduate students' views about which English?.....	169

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	Atlas of Pakistan, Surveyor General of Pakistan 1985.....	16
Figure 1.2	Main influences on language attitudes in Pakistan.....	20
Figure 2.1	Educational streams based on medium of instruction in Pakistan.....	41
Figure 3.1	Kachru's concentric circles of English.....	61
Figure 3.2	Developmental cycles of new varieties of English.....	63
Figure 3.3	The identity-communication continuum.....	63
Figure 4.1	Aspects of English curriculum.....	78
Figure 4.2	Model of motivation.....	97
Figure 5.1	Methodology used in the research.....	100
Figure 5.2	Themes in participants' views about the status of English in Pakistan.....	107
Figure 5.3	Themes emerging from postgraduate students' perceptions about their uses of English.....	107
Figure 5.4	Themes emerging from the university teachers' perceptions of their uses of English.....	108
Figure 5.5	Language problem themes emerging from perceptions of	

English medium of instruction in universities.....	109
Figure 5.6 Perceived language problems related to varieties of English.....	109
Figure 5.7 Emerging themes in the perceptions of Pakistani English.....	110
Figure 5.8 Analysis of quantitative data by SPSS.....	122
REFERENCES.....	208
APPENDICES: RESEARCH TOOLS AND DATA.....	256
Appendix A Questionnaires.....	256
Appendix B Focus group interviews' questions.....	266
Appendix C Tabulated results of questionnaire for M.A Education students.....	270
Appendix D Tabulated results of questionnaire for university teachers.	276
Appendix E Transcriptions of university teachers' focus group interviews.....	280
Appendix F Transcriptions of postgraduate students' focus group interviews.....	296
Appendix G Plain language statement.....	305
Appendix H Consent form.....	308
Appendix I Ethical approval for piloting the questionnaires.....	309
Appendix J Ethical approval for the field study.....	310

Author's Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature_____

Humaira Irfan Khan

Acknowledgement

I express my deepest gratitude to Allah Almighty for enabling me to accomplish this mission within the allocated time span.

I count it as one of my blessings that my Ph.D dissertation was supervised by Professor Vivienne Baumfield and Dr. Esther Daborn. I acclaim their ability to keep me organised and focussed during these three years. I found them highly dedicated, capable, inspiring, supportive, perceptive, enlightened and dynamic models of pedagogy and research.

I am thankful to my mother Ameena for her prayers, advice, motivation and moral support that helped me throughout the time I was researching. I feel indebted to my late father Allah Rakha's encouragement and pride about my scholarship for Ph.D.

I fully acknowledge from the core of my heart that this enormous task could not be possibly achieved without my husband Irfan's sincere love, compromise and financial support.

I owe inmost gratitude to my little daughter Manaal for making sacrifices for her student mother.

I am truly appreciative of University of Education, Lahore for considering me for the Faculty Development Scholarship to pursue the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Glasgow.

Lastly, I would like to extend my gratitude to the participants of my research and a few colleagues in Pakistan and the faculty at University of Glasgow for their co-operation: Dr. Beth Dickson, Dr. Caroline Haig, Dr. Khaled Mahmood, Dr. Muir Houston, Professor Munawar Mirza, Dr. Muzaffar Abbas, Dr. Nasir Mahmood, Dr. Nicki Hedge, Dr. Saeed Akhtar and Dr. Shahid Siddiqui.

Abbreviations

AmE	American English
BrE	British English
BE	Bilingual education
BSU	Bulle Shah University
CS	Code switching
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ELT	English language teaching
EMI	English as the medium of instruction
ESL	English as the second language
FLA	Foreign language anxiety
GTM	Grammar translation method
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MAE1	M.A Education first year
MBE	Masters in Business Education
MEd	Masters in Education
MEML	Masters in Educational Management and Leadership
MT	Mother tongue
NL	National language
NS	Native speaker
NNS	Non-native speaker
PakE	Pakistani English
QVU	Queen Victoria University
SAsE	South Asian English
StBrE	Standard British English
UMI	Urdu medium of instruction
VMI	Vernacular medium of instruction
WEs	World Englishes

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Chapter 1 delineates the scene for the current research with concise description of linguistic profile of Pakistan, context, framework, research questions and significance of the study. My personal experience of observing and teaching postgraduate students at a Pakistani university induced me to reflect on their language learning difficulties which I presumed were outcomes of English as the medium of instruction (EMI). This reflection stimulated me to work on the perceptions of policy and practice of English medium of instruction which is intimately interwoven with the academic and the interactive uses of English along with the type of English being used in Pakistani universities.

1.1 Linguistic profile of Pakistan

My learning journey's first destination was an appraisal of linguistic, cultural and ethnic scenario of the country. The introduction of the study appears imperfect without a brief description of languages spoken in Pakistan. Figure 1.1 shows that Pakistan is a plural society; each region in Pakistan i.e. Punjab, Sindh, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (former North West Frontier Post) and Baluchistan has its own language, cultural heritage and ethnic diversity within the group (Akhtar, 1989, p.8).

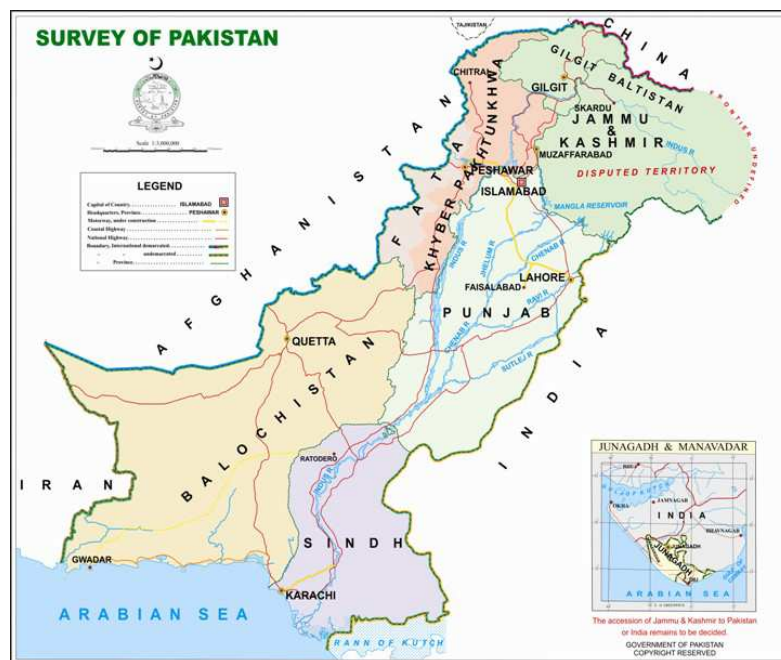


Figure 1.1 World Map, Survey of Pakistan, 2012

Punjab has Punjabi and Seraiki, Sindh has Sindhi in rural Sindh, Urdu in urban Sindh and Gujarati among influential minorities. In Khyber Pakhtunkawh, Pashto is the language of the majority of the population, though one district, Hazra, uses Hindko. Baluchistan has multiple languages, such as Balochi, Brahui, Pashto, Seraiki and Punjabi (Haque, 1983). Many educated Pakistanis speak at least three languages; mother tongue, Urdu and English (Rahman, 2006).

Table 1.1 Languages in Pakistan, Coleman Report, 2010, p.16

No	Language name	Speakers (millions)	Percentage of population
1	Punjabi, Western	60.6	38.3
2	Sindhi	18.5	11.7
3	Seraiki	13.8	8.7
4	Urdu	10.7	6.8
5	Pashto, Northern	9.6	6.1
6	Pashto, Central	7.9	5.0
7	Balochi, Southern	2.8	1.8
8	Brahui	2.0	1.3
9	Hindko, Northern	1.9	1.2
10	Balochi, Eastern	1.8	1.1
11	Pashto, Southern	1.4	0.9
12	Balochi, Western	1.1	0.7
13	Punjabi, Mirpur	1.0	0.6
	Sub-Total	133.1	84.8
	58 other languages	24.0	15.2
	Total	158.1	100

Table 1.1 shows that there are seven major languages (Punjabi, Sindhi, Pashto, Balochi, Brahui, Seraiki and Urdu) in Pakistan which are spoken by nearly 133 million people (85% of the population). The remaining 15% of the population speak 58 different languages (Coleman Report, 2010, p.16). This scenario portrays a complex situation for the formulation and implementation of language in education policy in the country.

1.2 The context of the study

The next move of my voyage was an exploration of literature that is relevant to the context of the study to investigate these perceived language learning difficulties which might be outcomes of English as the medium of instruction (EMI). Briefly, after independence in 1947, as in other post colonial countries, Pakistan was confronted with the issues of decolonisation, globalization and other economic and socio-political constraints within the country (Canagarajah, 2006). These issues contributed to establish English's foothold firmly in the new country (Mahboob, 2009). Moreover, unlike Urdu, English having no rivalry with any of the regional languages, served as an impartial language in the country. Urdu was in competition with the dominant regional languages but managed to surpass them because it was used as a symbol of Muslim unity for political and religious purposes (Tickoo, 2006). However, at the same time, the government intentionally prevented Urdu from becoming the only language of the country because the spread of English was indispensable for the progress of the country (Haque, 1983). This conflict between Urdu as the national language and English as an international language represents the tension between tradition and modernity. Urdu was needed to uphold cultural and traditional values whereas learning English was obligatory for enlightenment and economic prosperity.

Steering along the path, it became clear that religious parties endeavoured to reduce the status of English in the country but influential political, social and economic groups supported English for the development of the country. Also, it is inconceivable to eradicate English language from the scene because of its impenetrable historical roots in the country (Mahboob, 2009). Above all, English has rapidly gained prestige and popularity as its use has become a universal phenomenon in all superior domains of public life (Tickoo, 2006, p.173).

Continuing the venture into the deep waters, it is noted that diverse streams of education were categorised in accordance with English as the medium of instruction (EMI), Urdu medium of instruction (UMI) and the vernacular medium of instruction (VMI) because insufficient resources could not facilitate uniform English language teaching services to a huge population (Rahman, 2002a). Regarding the use of EMI at higher education level, it is noted that all language in education policies of Pakistan state that EMI is compulsory at university level but no policy has discussed an important issue

of helping the students to overcome their language learning difficulties at university level. The only worth mentioning recommendation presented in the 1979 education policy to deal with this problem was that after some years Urdu could be the medium of instruction at university level (Mansoor, 2004).

While diving through the different phases of history, I run into a significant opinion that English should not be merely looked upon as the tool of hegemony as it is a beneficial global language of modernisation and opportunity (Crystal, 2011). It is perceived that English has gradually resulted in uses and forms that diverge from a single standard because there are multiple Englishes within and across cultural discourse practices (Jenkins, 2007). Some scholars (Kachru, 1992a; Moag, 1992; Schneider, 2003) consider that a non-native variety passes through three stages. In the first phase, the very existence of the local variety is not recognised, in the second, it is considered sub-standard and in the third, it is slowly accepted as the norm. Some research on Pakistani English (PakE) shows that it is in the process of evolution (Baumgardner, 1993).

1.3 Framework of the research

After the narration of context, the journey makes a move towards establishing the framework of the study. Figure 1.2 illustrates that language policy and practice in Pakistan is shaped by various factors which are national ideology, multiple languages, cultural diversity and politics in policy making (Rahman, 1996).

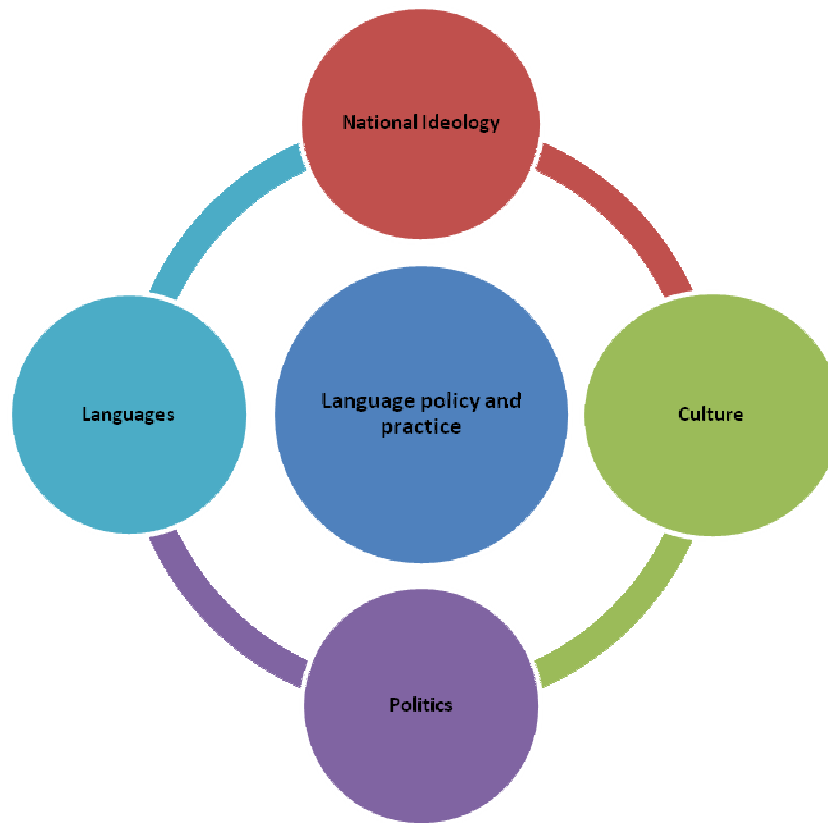


Figure 1.2 Main influences on language policy and practice in Pakistan

As stated above, EMI is made compulsory for higher education regarding the availability of reading material in English (Mansoor, 2002) but national education policies have not ensured its implementation because of linguistic, cultural and socio-political priorities (Howatt, 2004). Some writers claim that the government has never given importance to ELT theories for its practice in classroom through methodology, curricula and assessment (Mehrun Nisa, 2009; Siddiqui, 2007). Thus, based on language policies and educational infrastructure in this multilingual country, there are difficulties with students' learning at all levels and especially at the higher education level.

The study hypothesises that the following model of research will enable me to present the various stages, decision-making roles and products for ensuring the implementation of EMI in universities. The policy makers determine the place of EMI in the policy document but in order to achieve this aim, the services of need analysts, methodologists and material writers are ideally required to ascertain the use of EMI in classroom, curricula and assessment. The teacher-training programme could also be supportive in the successful implementation of EMI through competent teaching and

learning acts in classroom (see Table 1.2). The purpose of this model is to act as a tool for investigation of the students and teachers' perceptions of the extent to which each of these establish the fact that the partial exercise of these crucial aspects is related to the stated policy of EMI in universities.

Table 1.2 Stages, decision-making roles and products in implementation of EMI

Developmental planning	Decision-making roles	Products
policy document	policy makers	EMI in universities
specification: ends means	need analyst methodologists material writers	curricula uses of English in classroom assessment
programme implementation	material writers teacher trainers	teaching materials teacher-training programme
classroom implementation	teacher learner	teaching acts learning acts

Hence, in accordance with the brief description of linguistic profile, context and framework, the study sets out to investigate the relation between the policy and practice of EMI in Pakistani universities.

1.4 Research Questions: Aspects of investigation

Keeping in view the above scenario, the following research questions have been constructed:

1. To what extent does the policy and practice of English medium of instruction (EMI) affect the perceptions of first year M.A Education students (MAE1) about their learning situation in Pakistani universities?

(i) What are the perceptions of university teachers and students about the importance of English language in Pakistan?

(ii) What are students' opinions about using English language in universities?

(iii) What are teachers' views about using English language for teaching and interactive purposes in Universities?

(iv) What are perceptions of the type of English being used in Pakistani universities?

1.5 Aims and objectives

The following aims and objectives have emerged from the research questions:

1. To discover students' perceptions of the reasons which inhibit them from expressing themselves confidently in English in and outside the classroom
2. To explore teachers and students' views about using English language for academic and co-curricular activities in universities

I decided to use the mixed method research which includes both quantitative and qualitative methods because an investigation cannot entirely rely on observation. Thus, I constructed questionnaires and focus group interviews for M.A Education students and the university staff. The minor amendments were carried out in both the questionnaires after the pilot study. Distinctly, the research is exploratory and encompasses two case studies as I gathered the data from two large scale public sector universities located in Lahore, Pakistan.

In a nutshell, I had a well defined mind map to embark on a journey to investigate issues, but from the beginning, I felt intensely that the voyage was endless in the sense that the issues I was exploring had bottomless roots to be explored. However, keeping in sight the short period of time, I restricted myself to concentrate specifically on the perceptions of the university teachers and the postgraduate students about English as the medium of instruction and the issues related to it so that the problem can be effectively negotiated in order to formulate some pragmatic recommendations for its resolution in the future. Aptly, it can be claimed, if I cannot change the direction of the wind at the moment, at least I can adjust my sails to arrive at my destination.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study can inform universities that English as the medium of instruction (EMI) is partially practised in universities. The analysis of the perceptions of the postgraduate students' English language worries can be of practical value for designing a remedial English language proficiency course. It can be reported to language policy makers to consider the academic needs of postgraduate students joining universities from diverse linguistic, cultural, ethnic, socio-economic and educational circumstances. The perceptions of pedagogical challenges can be supportive to organise workshops and teacher training courses, which will be specifically structured from the perspective of teaching using English as the medium of instruction in universities. The description of

the notion of World Englishes movement in language policies can be positively accommodating for the acceptability of Pakistani English (PakE) for academic and assessment purposes in universities.

CHAPTER 2. LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICIES AFFECTING PAKISTAN

Introduction

Chapter 1 introduced the research questions deduced from the context of the study and this chapter largely includes discussion on factors influencing language in education policies. It particularly concentrates on the issue of English as the medium of instruction (EMI) in language policies and attitudes towards various languages in higher education in Pakistan.

2.1 The policy of language in education

It is necessary to describe a few characteristics of policy before making the switch over to education policy and then to language-in-education policy. It is claimed that 'policy is a deliberative process of forming practical judgements and deliberative judgement emerges through collective and interactive discourse' (Hajer and Wagenaar, 2003, p.21). At the same time, it is believed that policy making in a modern, complex and plural society is often unwieldy, unscientific and irrational (Ball, 2006). Besides the complexity associated with the process of policy making, it is considered that policies are generally the 'operational statements of values' or more appropriately 'statements of prescriptive intent' (Kogan, 1975, p.55). In addition, it is suggested that policy is a matter of the 'authoritative allocation of values' and that notion of authority spontaneously draws our attention to the centrality of power and control in the concept of policy (Prunty, 1985, p.136). Above all, policies create circumstances in which options available in deciding what to do are narrowed or changed (Hamilton and Hillier, 2007).

The education policy and values interact with the moods and circumstances of their periods (Kogan, 1985). Education is a social artefact and is, therefore prone to change as social and economic circumstances change (Kogan, 1985, p.11). Education policy clearly has enormous implications for several of the 'basic myths' which comprise the legitimating function of the state and of the education system (Dale, 1989, p. 31; Reynolds and Hargreaves, 1989). The educational system may also contribute to the 'achievement of those aims, needs and purposes of capitalism', but this is done

through the medium of the solutions it constructs to deal with its internal control and order (Dale, 1989, p.13).

Language policy as a field of inquiry, rather than as a human activity, dates from the mid-point of the 20th century, when researchers began to study the effects of language planning, which had gone on long before scholars turned their attention to it (Schiffman, 2012). Language-in-education policy refers to laws and policies and also customs and traditions, many of which are unwritten (Kaplan, Baldauf and Kamwangamalu, 2011). Language policy may take the form of unconscious preferences or conscious implementation of judicial and political decisions (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997). It may be negative and reactive or positive and promotional, directed at government level or guided by private institutions. It may be sustained by constitutional clauses, parliamentary enactments and judicial interpretations (Powell, 1998).

More importantly, Kaplan (1990) points out that all language policy models that he is aware of insist that language-in-education policy is subsidiary to national education policy, and is rooted in the highest levels of government (Egginton and Wren, 1997; Hornberger, 2006; Kaplan, 2009). In other words, it can be reasonably stated that the language policy makers face the difficult task of planning goals and strategies that are ultimately linked to and are affected by larger issues of political, social and ideological frameworks. So, to implement effective language policy, unique socio-cultural, political, economic and historical aspects must be taken into account. This issue has been discussed in section 2.2 in the context of language policy and practice in Pakistan.

As far as the place of English in language-in-education policy is concerned, policy makers have encouraged the role of English in relation to the educational, social, economic benefits of globalization (see Chapter 3). Successful economies in the twenty first century are increasingly knowledge-based, and the bulk of the world's knowledge is in the English language (Rajagopalan, 2005). The language is no more a linguistic phenomenon but a socio-political reality, of which the economy is an integral part (Mahboob and Tilakaratna, 2012). English also plays a particularly hegemonic role in most postcolonial communities including Pakistan and endangers other languages through its link with globalization, it is especially important to bear these factors in mind when considering the socio-political influences that language policy and

practice have in maintaining, developing and promoting local languages including minority languages (Kaplan, Baldauf and Kamwangamalu, 2011).

Hence, the 'processes of language use create, reflect and challenge particular hierarchies and hegemonies' (Creese and Martin, 2008, p.i) as in the case of English, which has been hailed as a global lingua franca, it is increasingly important to identify and acknowledge the power imbalances that emerge as English acquires an advantaged and superior position. Regarding this aspect of language policy, Pennycook (1989, p.589) remarks, 'policy espouses a particular view of the world and can be articulated in the interests of unequal power relationships'. Mansoor (2005) views that explicitly or implicitly policies regarding the status of the official or standard language by their mere existence affect the stability or viability of other languages used in the community. It should also be noted that languages that serve important societal functions for their speakers survive, regardless of what the policies of the government may be. If a language's functions decrease, it may be related to urbanisation, increased economic mobility and powerful societal forces. In such cases, majority languages or languages of wider communication replace minority languages in important registers and no amount of education planning or intervention is likely to help them.

The policies are considered political in character because the powerful languages serve the interests of particular political parties (Ramanathan and Morgan, 2007; Ricento, 2000; Tollefson, 1991, 1995, 2002, 2006). Grin (2003, p.5) also reckons that language policy making is fundamentally a political process because non-market values, such as matters of identity and culture attach to languages individually and collectively, economics though are important can never be central, only complementary, as an instrument assisting decision-making. Tollefson (1991, p.87) expresses his view that language policies serve the interests of dominant groups in maintaining their power and prestige while marginalising, excluding, and even exploiting minority groups and speakers of other languages. Besides, there is a reciprocal relationship between political changes and changes in language policies. Daoust (1997, p.440) states:

'Language planning policies sometimes seem to develop as an afterthought following a period of socio-political turmoil such as when a country gains independence or when a political party is overthrown'.

Thus, it is debated above that language-in-education policy is a complex issue. The following paragraphs briefly discuss the steps involved in the formulation of language in education policy and practice. Ferguson (2006, p.16) suggests that it is preferable, not to overplay the discreteness of planning and policy as separate categories but instead regard them as so closely related that they can profitably be brought together for purposes of exposition and analysis. Language-in-education policy and planning involves six stages which are the preplanning stage, the survey (or data collection stage), the policy formation stage, the implementation stage and a recurring evaluation stage. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) believe that the education sector is involved with any sort of official language policy activity and has to take a number of language policy decisions:

- ✚ To determine which language(s) will be taught within the curriculum, at what stage the instruction will occur, what the duration of the instruction will be, as well as to determine what sort of proficiency would be necessary to meet the needs of society.
- ✚ To define the teacher supply, that is, who will teach the language(s) included in the curriculum as well as to take decisions regarding which group in the education sector they will be taken from. This would also involve the nature of the pre-service and in-service training required for the teachers to achieve and maintain the required language proficiency, as well as, incentives and rewards for language teachers on the basis of equity.
- ✚ To determine what segment of the student population will receive language (s) education and how they will be motivated to undertake language instruction, as well as, to devise strategies to get parental and community support to implement the plan in order to make it a success.
- ✚ To determine what methodologies will be employed in the system and what materials will be developed to support these methodologies. Also, how these materials will be prepared and used throughout the system.
- ✚ To define the assessment processes that will be used for selection and placement of students and formative and summative testing. It will also need to develop an evaluation system necessary to measure the performance of teachers and the system, so that language programmes are designed to meet learner and societal needs.

- ✚ Finally, it will need to determine what economic and physical resources will be required to support this language planning activity, where these will be drawn from and how the language system can be supported across the board.

2.1.1 Language policy and implementation

It is essential to translate policy into practice, but it may not be effectively implemented for a variety of reasons. For example, as discussed previously, during the legislative process, policy is transformed by political processes (Hornberger and Ricento, 1996; Ramanathan and Morgan, 2007). Policy is also rarely accessible to practitioners working in classrooms and communities, and the underlying ideological motivations of policies tend to be implicit (Tsui and Tollefson, 2006). Teachers themselves often believe that they have little power to affect policy and do not view themselves as implementers of macro-level policies (Kaplan, 2009). Policy is formulated at the level of government, but practitioners responsible for implementation often have access to the implications of policy only through the curriculum and textbooks (Mahboob and Tilakaratna, 2012).

Canagarajah (1999) and Martin (2005a) also express their view regarding the implementation of language policy in the classroom. They believe that effective teachers adjust practices that are handed down to them through policy and curriculum to serve the needs of their students. Other teachers who may not have appropriate expertise, training, time or resources, might reject and ignore the policies and materials altogether. Therefore, experts and policymakers often jump to the conclusion that the local teachers or their students are lazy or non-receptive, instead of reflecting on the nature of the material or the policymaking processes (Martin, 2005b). In creating the practice of English as the medium of instruction in universities, it is necessary for the government to clearly outline the purpose of the English language policy and then create materials that translate this policy into practice. If teachers are not aware of the policy goals, they will create their own goals within the classroom which are aimed at increasing student success in examinations (Mahboob and Tilakaratna, 2012).

Thus, the language policy making is not merely about taking down decisions but it needs to ensure how the policy is practised in the classroom. The sections given below will outline the historical background of language policy in Pakistan and challenges encountered in its formulation and implementation.

2.2 Language policy and practice in Pakistan

The British arrived in India to conquer and rule it in the 16th century (Mukherjee, 2007). Shortly afterwards, it was decided to introduce English language and traditions in India (Mahboob, 2002). English was considered to be of economic value to Britain (Rahman, 1996), therefore, the Anglicists wanted to promote English by teaching European ‘literature and science through the medium of the English language’ (Lord Bentick, 1835, cited in Spear 1965, p.127). Spring (1998, p.32, cited in Mahboob, 2002, p.18) has also pointed out the economic reasons behind the English language policies of the British government:

‘What better situation could there be than to make money and do good at the same time...to introduce the language of the conquerors, seems to be an obvious means of assimilating a conquered people to them...this is the noblest species of conquest, and wherever, we may venture to say, our principles and language are introduced, our commerce will follow’.

Hence, English was introduced in the Indo-Pak subcontinent and received official recognition with the presentation of Macaulay’s minutes of 1835 (Curtin, 1971; Kubchandani, 1981; Mukherjee, 2007). The initial plan of the British government to employ indigenous languages to correspond with Indians challenged Indian elites because they had realised that English language was the key to power and participation. They pleaded with their rulers to give them English (Mahboob, 2009). Spear (1965, p.124) writes that Macaulay the East India Company’s chief (Company Bahadur) in 1835 with typical English imperialist and self-complacent arrogance declared, ‘we have a great moral duty to perform in India’. The great objectives were to create a class of people ‘Indian in colour and blood but English in taste and character, in morals and in intellect’. Consequently:

‘The government started setting up schools and colleges to convert Indians, the South Asians of today, into brown Englishmen by imparting Western knowledge in the English language to them, a tradition their surrogates have followed to this day’ (Ali, 1993, p.7).

According to Rahman (1996), Macaulay’s words were made official and the British government initiated spending the government money on the development of English language and the establishment of English medium universities. The British administration recognised three types of education in India:

- ✚ English medium institutions in urban areas, for elites, from 1835 onwards;
- ✚ Two tier: vernacular for primary schooling, English for advanced education, in smaller towns;
- ✚ Vernacular medium, in rural areas for primary education.

Thus, English was adopted as one of the languages of education but it is important to note that the vernacular education being inferior was reserved for the poor people and the English medium education was meant for elites (Mahboob, 2002). After independence, Pakistan's Ministry of Education following the footsteps of British colonialism recognised the inequitable and undemocratic education system in the country (Rahman, 1996, p.34). Rahman discusses the fact that Macaulay's minute served two purposes, 'the policy of spending less money on producing subordinate staff and generating the political support of nationalists' (1996, p.55). Whatever the interests, undoubtedly in British India, the English language had become so entrenched in the socio-political fabric of the region, that after partition, it retained its status as an integral part of official, economic, educational and social life in both India and Pakistan (Mahboob, 2009; Mansoor, 2005).

2.2.1 Influences on language policy and practice in Pakistan: multilingualism, multiculturalism and ethnicity

There are many factors which have affected the language policy and practice in Pakistan, such as multilingualism, cultural diversity and ethnic identity. Regarding multilingualism, Schiffman (2012) believes that it is the most outstanding characteristic of language in education policy for South Asia. Crystal (2011) writes that multilingualism is the natural way of life for hundreds of millions of people all over the world. There are around 5000 languages co-existing in fewer than 200 countries; and the 'inevitable result of languages in contact is multilingualism which is most commonly found in an individual speaker as bilingualism' (Crystal, 2011, p.372). In many countries, English as the dominant language has resulted in multilingualism (Canagarajah, 2005, p.198; Kachru, 2008). Cummins (2006, p.64) conceptualises societal multilingualism in relation to two broad dimensions which are the proportion of citizens who are fluent in two or more languages and the degree to which languages other than the dominant language are used for the purposes of social interaction within a society.

It is noted that in Pakistan, the vernacular fulfilled the first role; Urdu, the second role; and English, the third role (Mansoor, 1993). Therefore, like many other multilingual countries, Pakistan has consequently evolved a language policy which has a three-language structure with a distinct communication role assigned to each language. Nadkarni (1983) and Nihalani et al. (1989) have identified the communication roles as:

- Communication with people of the in-group (the language of each cultural group)
- Communication with people of the out-group (common or national language)
- Communication involving specialised information (a world language such as English)

Another option for Pakistan was to adopt an approach of linguistic pluralism which can be a successful policy in a multilingual society. Cobarrubias (1983, p.65) explains linguistic pluralism as the 'co-existence of different linguistic groups and their right to maintain and cultivate their languages on an equitable basis'. However, such a pluralistic policy was considered unacceptable by Pakistani politicians because it was contrary to the ideal Pakistani image they wanted to create. English and Urdu act as neutral languages to prevent the provinces from disintegration and regional autonomy (Haque, 1983). This situation explicitly reflects the reality that the linguistic diversity is a hallmark of the Pakistani community and has been a constant problem of language in education policy in Pakistan (Mahboob, 2002).

It is observed that language is central to creating the meaning of human experience, thoughts, feelings, appearances and behaviour (Sengupta, 2009). Language is a defining feature of identity which as a consequence leads to nationalism because natural intimacy for mother tongues restricts people from enjoying equality of treatment (Blake, 2003, p.213; Patten, 2001, p.697). This unequal linguistic endowment can be the source of interpersonal injustice (Van, 2003, p.154). The various multilingualism models to counteract this situation propound that each of the various languages spoken in the community should be accorded the same recognition (Patten, 2001, p.695).

Therefore, in addition to linguistic diversity, another major feature of Pakistani community is cultural diversity as the country consists of four provinces with distinctive

groups. English and Urdu languages have played a positive role to facilitate the assimilation of provinces with cultural differences within a country. It is through Urdu and English languages that people of different communities of the country interact and learn about each other's cultures. Cultural diversity is considered valuable and has received attention from international bodies. The research conducted by UNESCO affirms the cultural diversity as a defining characteristic and a common heritage of humanity and that should be cherished and preserved for the benefit of all. Associated with this is intangible cultural heritage that consists of languages, social ethics, traditions, customs and practices and spiritual beliefs of a particular group of people (Hoffman, 2006). It creates a rich and varied world, which nurtures human capacities and values (Bernier, 2008, p.4-5).

Acknowledgement of multiculturalism is playing a significant role in globalized times as day to day lives of people become constituted by historical situations emergent not only within imagined communities but in shifting, changing and fragmenting worlds (Arber, 1999). About multiculturalism, it might be said, 'time and space contract as people, knowledge and images flow over faster across territorial boundaries in contradictory conditions of complex connectivity' (Tomlinson, 1999, p.2, cited in Arber, 1999). Therefore, multiculturalism is a perspective which recognises diversity and difference of groups on the basis of culture. It not only acknowledges the existence of diverse communities but gives positive value and equal respect to the collective identities of all ethnic communities (Carens, 2000; Parekh, 2000, p. 336; Sengupta, 2009, p.149).

Sengupta (2009, p.148) expresses his opinion that the proponents of the multicultural movement in the west argued the liberal principle of 'equality as uniform treatment' and have ignored discrimination based on cultural affiliations. But, in Pakistan and other South Asian countries, multiculturalists demand recognition, respect and rights, based not on equality but difference. The proponents of the multicultural movement in South Asia assert that individuals are not only atomistic citizens but are embedded in culture (Sandel, 1982). These movements are about 'identity' and 'identity politics' or the 'politics of recognition' (Fraser, 1995; Taylor, 1994). Kymlicka (2002, p.335), explains multiculturalism as an 'umbrella term' for claims of all heterogeneous ethno-cultural groups who go beyond the familiar set of common civil-political rights of in-

dividual citizenship and have adopted distinctive identities and needs of ethno-cultural groups.

Hence, multilingualism and multiculturalism naturally engender ethnic identity which is a complex phenomenon and can only be understood if it is viewed as a multifaceted, selective process rather than an 'undimensional and static characteristic' (Harris, 1980, p.9). These ideas can be used for political ends as the movements of cultural and linguistic assertion generally precede overtly political ethnic protests (Smith, 1981, p.23). Ethnicity in Pakistan is caused by new identities constructed on the basis of religion, language or culture having intense appeal for large groups (Rahman, 1996, p.18).

'The leaders of ethnic movements invariably select from traditional cultures only those aspects they will serve to unite the group and will be useful in promoting the interests of the group' (Brass 1991, p. 74, cited in Rahman, 1996, p.18).

They attempt to mobilise the public on the basis of a language which takes the shape of a symbol (Rahman, 1996). A language symbolises intangibles like a sense of community, a desire for solidarity, identity, power and security (Smith, 1981). Fishman (1989, p.6) also quite appropriately puts it 'at every stage ethnicity is linked to language, whether indexically, implementationally or symbolically'. It is important to discuss that during the British era, various nationalist and ethnic movements in South Asia adopted the language as a symbol for the creation of identity, specifically Hindu and Muslim identities and the linguistic issues gained political complexity (Mahboob, 2002). This phenomenon known as the Urdu-Hindi controversy occurred in British India and is what ultimately contributed 'to the partition of British India into Bharat and Pakistan' (Rahman, 1996, p.59). Moreover, ethnicity is accompanied with a 'feeling of being dominated, being threatened with the loss of one's culture, as well as being politically and economically disadvantaged' (Rahman, 1996, p.20). Among the languages of Pakistan, the two dominant languages were Urdu and Bengali. After Pakistan's creation, a language movement in East Pakistan (modern Bangladesh) led to the Urdu-Bengali controversy when a question was raised in the Constituent Assembly about the use of Bengali along with Urdu (Mahboob, 2002). Prime Minister, Liaquat Ali Khan's words were memorable:

‘Pakistan has been created because of the demand of a hundred million Muslims in this subcontinent and the language of a hundred million Muslims is Urdu’ (LAD-P 25 February, 1948, p.16).

Mohammad Ali Jinnah, the first Governor General of Pakistan, declared in an authoritative tone, ‘let me make it very clear to you that the state language of Pakistan is going to be Urdu and no other language (Jinnah, 1948, p.183). Moreover, Khawaja Nazimuddin infuriated the activists of the Bengali movement with his firm assertion that the people of his province desired Urdu, not Bengali. These leaders emphasised Urdu as a symbol of Pakistani nationhood (Rahman, 1996, p.90). The language policy after independence favoured Urdu over regional languages in order to strengthen the country (Ahmed, 2008; Bhatt and Mahboob, 2008). This idea appeared to rest in a deep-rooted apprehension of linguistic diversity in coalition with a strong faith in the magic powers of a single language of national unity (West, 1926). According to Tickoo (2006, p.168-169), in Pakistan, this belief in a single unifying language resulted in the adoption of Urdu as the country’s national language. Urdu was and is a minority language not only in the context of the country as a whole but even inside the state where it is spoken as a first language. Despite the fact that several languages including Bengali, Sindhi, Punjabi and Pashto had many times more speakers than Urdu and Urdu which was comparatively the mother tongue of only a small community of Muhajirs who had migrated from India’s Bihar and Uttar Pradesh states, received unique status and the accompanying role mainly because it was viewed as being close to Islam, the state religion, and assumed essential to raise an ideal national identity.

However, this policy did not produce the hoped for results. Bengalis considered this as the West Pakistani prejudice that Bengaliness was incompatible with both the Islamic and the Pakistani identity. The imposition of Urdu language over Bengali was a well thought-out plan to emphasise the Muslim identity of the Bengalis and to de-emphasise the Bengali one (Rahman, 1996). The policy of the government towards Bengali was symbolically treated as a sign of suppression of the Bengali culture that eventually led to the separation of East Pakistan to form Bangladesh in 1971 (Tickoo, 2006, p.169). This Urdu-Bengali controversy shows how complex the situation in Pakistan was after independence (Paulston, 1994; Rahman, 1996). Fishman (1968, p.7), analysing the issue of language planning from a language policy perspective,

described a tension between nationalism, the cultivation of a national identity to supersede 'ethnic-cultural particularisms', which pointed to the espousal of some indigenous language as the national language, the emblem of national identity, and operational efficiency in administration and economic management for the maintenance of political stability, which pointed in an opposite direction to the official use of a non-indigenous, therefore non-authentic, former colonial language (Ferguson, 2006, p.2).

Keeping in sight the above mentioned complexity embedded in the language situation, the state's declared policy after independence in 1948 had been to use English as a 'compromise language' and Urdu 'as the symbol of national identity and integration to avoid regional autonomy and separation' (Haque, 1987). Thus, English was anchored in Pakistan and was ready to play the crucial role in the structures of dominance and power in this new country. Haque (1983, p.14) notes:

'The use of English was inevitable for system maintenance; the ruling elite were trained to do their official work in English. English perforce continued to be the official language of Pakistan. It also had the compromise candidate, at least for the interim, since the adoption of one of the two languages of indigenous origin, Urdu and Bengali, as the national language could have meant the alienation of large sections of the populace, especially in an atmosphere charged with political activism generated by Bengali nationalism. And the switch to both would have meant confusion, not least for being premature'.

Thus, the English language was welcomed as a neutral link language capable of serving major instrumental roles locally, nationally and internationally (Mahboob, 2002). It was decided that English being the depository of scientific and technological knowledge will modernise and empower the state (Mansoor, 2005). Urdu represented Islamic culture while English became an emblem of urbane, cosmopolitan, and liberal culture in the community (Canagarajah, 2005). However, these two languages have relentlessly received resistance since independence. The claims of diverse social groups and ethnic communities within the nation-state have become more assertive (Brutt-Griffer, 2002; May, 2001). Like Bengali, the Sindhi ethno nationalists viewed their language as a central facet of Sindhi identity and a vital element of their cultural heritage (Syed, 1990, p.99). Sindhi nationalism initiated the endorsement of the use of Sindhi language in the domains of power and that provoked the ruling elite's opposi-

tion towards it (Sangat, p.7; Sath, 1990, p.2). The central government was dominated by Punjabis and Mohajirs who were anxiously interested to extend Urdu's use over all the multilingual federating units to prevent the rise of separatist ethnicity (Rahman, 1996, p.230).

The idea of cultivation of regional languages was criticised in the past under the plea that Pakistanis practise nepotism and tribalism and never go beyond their provincial identities. This theory of provincialism was used as the standard explanation for the Sindhis, Pashtun, Bengali and Baloch ethno-nationalism (Rahman, 2002). Thus, English and Urdu languages were privileged over indigenous languages to counteract ethnic nationalist tendencies but giving unjustified value to these two languages paradoxically threatened linguistic and cultural diversity in the country. In all provinces except Sindh, hardly any legislation has been made to promote the regional languages in the official spheres including education (Rahman, 1996, 2009). As a result, the language policies have intensified both ethnic and class conflict in the country (Abbas, 1993).

Therefore, regarding the preference of colonial languages such as Urdu and English over regional languages, Rasool (2000, p.386) expresses her view that in providing the medium through which the narrative of the nation could be constructed, told and retold in literature, myths, rituals and symbols, the language by which the nation defines itself has played a key role in the social construction of a national cultural identity. The adoption of a common language is seen, generally, as providing an important means by which discrete groups of people living within the confines of the nation-state can be integrated into a common cultural value system. She further believes:

‘Historically this ‘authentic’ version of the ‘nation’, in many instances, has positioned minority languages at the margins of society by demarcating those who speak its language, and those, whose languages lack ‘national authenticity’ (Rasool, 2000, p.386)

Considering the above discussion that Urdu and English were strengthened to develop cultural hegemony, Rasool (2000, p.388) deems that cultural hegemony was consolidated by the imposition of colonial mother tongues on societies having historically different cultural, linguistic and social bases. Language provides the primary means

through which 'social reality' is constructed in a variety of institutional, textual and social discourses (Rasool, 1998). She writes:

'The incorporation of colonial 'mother tongues' into the educational system, practices and processes provided an important vehicle for the development of selected forms of 'high status' literacies – over and against local culturally validated ways of knowing. Linguistic categories of description and representation in literature and school textbooks at the time played key roles in structuring common sense understandings of cultural inferiority and social 'Otherness' (Rasool, 2000, p.388).

On one hand, there is emphasis on cultural hegemony but on the other hand, it is debated that linguistic and cultural diversity build up identity which Crystal (2011, p.384) believes is the summation of the characteristics which make a community. He argues:

'If diversity is a prerequisite for successful humanity, then the preservation of linguistic diversity is essential, for language lies at the heart of what it means to be human. If the development of multiple cultures is so important, then the role of languages becomes critical, for cultures are chiefly transmitted through spoken and written languages. Accordingly, when language transmission breaks down, through language death, there is a serious loss of inherited knowledge' (Crystal, 2011, p.384).

The adverse impact of this spread of English is socio-economic marginalisation of regional languages and the perceived absence of opportunities for joining the mainstream (Crystal, 2000; Nettle and Romaine, 2000). Skutnabb-Kangas (2000a) also feels that in many situations, due to the lack of support for the mother tongue and the hegemony of a few powerful languages, there is an actual danger of linguistic genocide. She (2000, p.46) also points out how the policies towards languages can 'kill a language' or 'support it through partial or full support to its language functions by adopting it as an official language or national language'. Teaching any language as a foreign language also gives the language 'partial support' and the paradox in many countries is where these 'foreign' languages get more 'official support' than the country's own indigenous or minority languages.

Thus, it is important to acknowledge that multilingualism is necessary not just to maintain cultural identity but has educational values as well. It can be seen that many countries are teaching in their own languages because students are better equipped in this way. Particularly, their understanding and participation in the classroom can be

developed if they are taught in their mother tongues in earlier stages of education. In Pakistan, the various governments have not given importance to this crucial aspect of multilingualism.

Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) expresses his view that many developing countries are characterised by individual as well as societal multilingualism, yet continue to allow a single foreign language to dominate the education sector. Instruction through a language that learners do not speak has been called “submersion” because it is analogous to holding learners under water without teaching them how to swim. Compounded by chronic difficulties such as low levels of teacher education, poorly designed, inappropriate curricula and lack of adequate school facilities, submersion makes both learning and teaching extremely difficult, particularly when the language of instruction is also foreign to the teacher.

Benson (2004) explains that mother tongue-based bilingual programs use the learner’s first language, known as the L1, to teach beginning reading and writing skills along with academic content. The second or foreign language, known as the L2, should be taught systematically so that learners can gradually transfer skills from the familiar language to the unfamiliar one. Bilingual models and practices vary as do their results, but what they have in common is their use of the mother tongue at least in the early years so that students can acquire and develop literacy skills in addition to understanding and participating in the classroom.

Bilingual as opposed to monolingual schooling offers significant pedagogical advantages which have been reported consistently in the academic literature. These advantages are based on two assumptions: one that basic human needs are being met so that schooling can take place; and two, that mother tongue-based bilingual schooling can be properly implemented (Baker, 2001; Cenoz, 2009). Simply changing the language of instruction without resolving other pressing social and political issues is not likely to result in significant improvement in educational services. However, because language cross-cuts race, ethnicity, gender, and poverty, even minimally implemented bilingual programs have the potential to reach those who have traditionally been left behind by L2 submersion schooling (CAL 2001; Cummins 2000).

However, Ouane (2003, p.27) justifies the neglect of linguistic diversity with the description of various reasons which are applicable to Pakistan as well. Firstly, the use of several mother tongues in education is an obstacle to national unity. In other words, national unity calls for official monolingualism, and the use of several mother tongues accentuates inter-ethnic conflict. Secondly, universal and dominant use of the mother tongue carries with it the danger of isolation. This can be an obstacle to the promotion of international languages, leading to inadequate proficiency in them and to linguistic wastefulness since any time devoted to learning mother tongues is to the detriment of the ‘widely spoken’ languages. Thirdly, the psychological and linguistic advantages put forward in favour of learning in mother tongues are advanced by multicultural minority lobbies and do not really relate to any empirically observed facts. They can be countered as much from the social as from the cognitive point of view. The fourth argument is that mother tongues cannot modernise themselves or develop or be developed and are in any case inferior to the colonial languages. Local languages are therefore not equipped to serve as the medium of instruction at tertiary level. They must consequently not hinder the transfer and transition to the internationally used languages. Finally, it is argued that becoming irreversibly literate in these mother tongues is therefore a mistake from the economic point of view. The arguments put forward to support this were that an increase in the number of languages used in education leads to an almost exponential rise in costs; there is a chronic lack of books and teaching materials, with which are associated problems of creative work, translation, publication and circulation in these languages; there is a severe shortage of teachers proficient in the MTs; and, lastly, if there are a large number of languages, it is difficult to organise fair and comparable examinations.

Keeping in view the above discussion, there are two main notions -inequality and diversity – which are found in criticisms about the worldwide usage of English:

- English as a global lingua franca produces inequalities in communication between native and non-native speakers of English, leading to inequity (Ammon, 2000; Braine, 1999; Phillipson, 1992, 2000, 2003).
- English is a source of socio-economic inequalities within and between societies, leading to inequity (Pennycook, 1994, 1995; Phillipson, 2000; Ricento, 2000; Tollefson, 1991, 2002).

- The spread of English is a threat to global linguistic diversity (Muhlhausler, 1996; Phillipson, 1992; Skuttnab-Kangas, 2000b).
- English is implicated in processes of cultural homogenization (Pennycook, 1995; Phillipson and Skuttnab-Kangas, 1995, 1996, 1999).

In short, the background of the research examines how the language in education policy of Pakistan privileges certain languages and with what political, social, educational and economic consequences (Rahman, 2009). The language policy formulation involves the larger community and a wide social context (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000). It also involves ideological, economic and political parameters in relation to the dynamics of policy debate and formulation (Ball, 1990, p.8; Edwards, 1985; Kaplan, 2009; Ricento, 2000).

2.3 Language policies favouring English as the medium of instruction (EMI)

Pakistan, at the time of independence, like most other ex-colonial countries was faced with the problem of developing a language policy. The problems in designing and implementing such a policy were ‘complicated by languages and language groups competing to be recognised as national languages’ (Mahboob, 2002, p.20). Pakistan’s language in education policy has been weighed down with problems because Pakistan is a multilingual, multicultural and multiethnic society, the choice of a language(s) as a medium of instruction is difficult to decide (Mansoor, 2005, p.19).

As early as 1948, Urdu was declared the language in which instruction was to be given at the primary level. At the higher levels, English was maintained as the medium of instruction because contemporary scientific and academic knowledge was unavailable in Urdu. It was decided that Urdu would replace English within ten years (Mahboob, 2002; Rahman, 1996). In addition to the Urdu medium schools, English medium schools were maintained. There were two systems of education. The policy of the government to carry on the two mediums of instruction side by side reflected the British policy (Mahboob, 2002, p.21). It also served the same purpose of creating two classes of people, one was to be trained to govern and the other to produce subordinate staff. The elite sent their children to English medium schools and the rest sent their children to government Urdu medium schools (Khalique, 2006; Mansoor, 2005; Rahman, 2006). Therefore, the national system of education in Pakistan relies on more than one language (Tickoo, 2006).

Even today after many years, Pakistan has the same system of education which was established right after independence. According to Coleman (2010), Pakistan has mainly three categories of education based on different media of instruction:

- ✚ Private elite and non-elite English medium schools
- ✚ Government and dini madaras Urdu medium schools
- ✚ Vernacular medium schools, for example, in Sindh

Coleman (2010, p.10-12) explains that private elite English medium schools are extremely expensive and provide education to a small and powerful elite section of the population. Private non-elite schools are attended by the lower middle class. They are attractive because of their claims to offer ‘English medium’ education, even though in reality these claims may not be fulfilled. In government schools education is free and textbooks are provided. Their teachers are better qualified than those in the private non-elite schools but government schools produce poorer learning outcomes than the private non-elite institutions. Lastly, dini madaras offer an Islamic oriented education, usually free of charge. They are attractive to very poor families, especially in areas where government schools are difficult to access (see Figure 2.1).

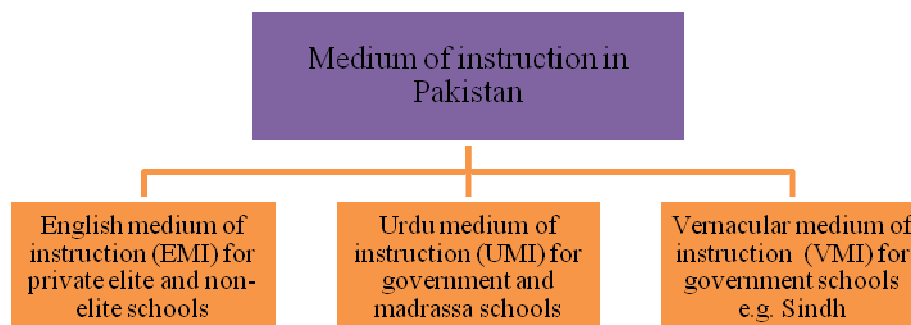


Figure 2.1 Educational streams based on medium of instruction in Pakistan

According to Rahman (2006), the Pakistani ruling elite created and maintained a class-based system of schooling (see Figure 2.1). It is the pluralist policy of Pakistani elites who would promote Urdu for the nation and utilise English language for their own benefit as it signifies pro-western secular identities, liberal values and power and

is a tool of social mobility while Urdu is seen as an Islamic and a national language. Urdu medium schools were produced to have an underclass of clerks and literate servants to serve the elite class and affluent middleclass emerging from English medium institutions (Khalique, 2006). The major outcome of this policy is that it has further widened the gap 'between 'have' and 'have nots' and increased poverty by concentrating the best paid jobs in the hands of English speaking elite of the peripheries' (Rahman, 2009, p.10).

Rahman (1996) also reflects that in 1959, the Sharif commission was established to explore language issues in the country. It is stated that Urdu and Bengali should be the mediums of instruction in secondary schools (Class 6 to Matriculation) in government schools. The commission predicted: 'in approximately 15 years Urdu would reach the point of development where it could become the medium of instruction at the university'. Sharif Commission Report (1959, p.289) made Urdu's position strong, 'national language is a powerful force for developing a sense of nationhood....welds people into homogenous units...and fosters national pride'. At the same time, the commission stated, 'English should continue as a second language since advanced knowledge was in English' (Sharif Commission, 1959, p.281). The demands for using vernaculars as the medium of instruction in higher education were brushed aside.

During the period between 1959-1971 government schools institutionalised Urdu as the language of instruction whereas English was taught as a compulsory subject. Elite institutions were allowed to flourish. It was basically the language issue which led to Bangladesh's annulment from Pakistan but still the language policy in West Pakistan did not replace English with Urdu. One political reason for this was that Zulfikar Ali Bhutto's enemies supported Urdu (Mahboob, 2002, p.23). Regarding this issue, Rahman (1996, p.14) asserts:

'Urdu was supported by Bhutto's political enemies. In Balouchistan and the NWFP—the NAP-JUI ruling parties opted for Urdu as the official language in 1972. In the Punjab, the Islamicists were more enthusiastic about Urdu than any other language. Thus, Bhutto found himself unable or unwilling to do away with English'.

Another reason was that Bhutto had seen the power of language in creating nationalists' sentiments in Bengal and witnessed the Sindhi nationalists' feelings towards

Urdu so did not want to take further risks over the language issue. In 1971-1972, Sindh witnessed riots over the language issue as they wanted Sindhi to be the medium of instruction in schools (Rahman, 1996). Ultimately, Sindhi became the medium of instruction at primary level in Sindh public schools. Bright (1998, p.223) writes, 'Urdu is the unquestionable national language yet has entered into new conflicts with local vernaculars'. Thus, it could be an unwise political decision at this critical time to do away with English because 'rivalry is between Sindhi or Pashto and Urdu and not one or another of these languages and English' (Tickoo, 2006, p.172). But Bhutto tried to appease the feelings of religious parties towards the Urdu language by giving Urdu official recognition in the newly framed constitution (Mahboob, 2002, p.24). Mansoor (2005) describes the article 251 of the 1973 constitution:

- ✚ Clause 1. The National Language of Pakistan is Urdu, and arrangements shall be made for its being used for official and other purposes within fifteen years from the commencing day.
- ✚ Clause 2. Subject to clause (1) the English language may be used for official purposes until arrangements are made for its replacement by Urdu.

The 1979 language policy introduced drastic changes towards English. General Zia – ul- Haq implemented islamisation and Urduzination policies.

'The inadequacy of the English speaking elite...in providing stability, responsible rule, and responsive leadership, and in accommodating growing feelings of national identity has strengthened the conviction among many that there is a need for the establishment of Urdu as the primary official language of Pakistan if the masses are to have a feel of the government' (Haque, 1983, p.15).

Mahboob (2002) discusses that the 1979 language-in-education policy advised the English medium institutions to shift either to Urdu or a recognised provincial language. The outcome of this policy was that people of minority languages like Seraiki and Hindko felt marginalised in Punjab where Punjabi is recognised as the only provincial language. Moreover, this education policy declared Arabic as a compulsory subject in schools. Arabic is not spoken natively in Pakistan. As it is a language of Islam, it is symbolically important for Islamic government. Thus, the education policy of 1979 imposed Urdu as the medium of instruction in all government schools from

class 1 and English was not introduced until class 6. It was thought that in the long run medium of instruction would also be Urdu in colleges and universities. Thus, the government imposed the Urdu language policy quite strictly in government schools; however, elite schools were not affected.

Rahman (1996, p.242) quotes Lady Viqarunnisa Noon, an elitist educationist who said, 'the General had assured her earlier that she could continue to use English as the medium of instruction in her school'. This dual policy of General Zia ul Haq was found disagreeable (Mansoor, 2005). It was quite late realised that the change of language policy had been hurriedly passed. In 1983, the General's government gave legal protection to the elite English medium schools and by 1987 some of the Urdu only policies were retracted. But the impact of this language policy can be seen on the present day education system in Pakistan (Khalique, 2006).

Further, Mahboob (2002) observes that the governments of Benazir Bhutto (who was the daughter of ex-Prime Minister Zulfikar Ali Bhutto) and Nawaz Sharif did not frame any real language policies because languages were a politically charged and controversial issue. The 1992 and 1998 education policies did not directly address the language in education issue. Similarly, ex-Prime Minister Nawaz Sharif's Pakistan 2010 Project also did not include a section on linguistic issues. Benazir Bhutto brought some changes regarding the teaching of English at Primary level. English was declared a compulsory subject at primary level all over the country. The provincial governments of Sindh and Punjab took up the central government's lead and introduced English as a compulsory subject in the primary schools. General Pervaiz Musharraf promoted the expansion of private institutions and the status of English was developed during his regime. In the words of Siddiqui (2012, p.16), language in education policy in Pakistan shows fluctuations as:

'In Ayub Khan's era (1958-1969) the whole emphasis was on economic development whereas social development was undermined. During Zia's regime (1977-1988) educational institutions were used to islamise society whereas Musharraf's (1999-2008) emphasis was on an imported brand of enlightenment'.

As English is important for the country's progress, President Zardari's government is making arrangements to develop English language skills (Mahboob, 2002, p.27). It is

appropriate to quote Education Policy (2009), ‘the curriculum from class 1 onward shall include English, Urdu and one regional language’. The government justified the reintroduction of English by stating that in this way government would provide the ‘poor’ with the same opportunities as were available to the ‘privileged classes’ (Coleman, 2010). The rationale for this policy as Coleman (2010, p.19) believes that 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’ and English language also works as one of the sources ‘for social stratification between elite and non-elite’. Coleman (2010, p.18) further comments:

‘Medium of instruction policy determines which social and linguistic groups have access to political and economic opportunities, and which groups are disenfranchised’.

The commendable democratising sentiment expressed in the desire to reduce social stratification might constitute an argument for improving the quality of teaching English as a subject throughout the education system but it does not necessarily imply that English should be used as a medium of instruction (Coleman, 2010). Moreover, there is another concern regarding this policy that there are insufficient numbers of trained English language teachers (Mansoor, 2005).

Considering the use of both English and Urdu as compulsory languages of education in Pakistan, Cummins (2006) states that it is seen that the language policies and planning in a country which favour bilingual education enforce struggles over power and authority, equity and marginalisation, symbolic domination and identities, social categorisation and social hierarchy. However, many pluralists are in favour of bilingual education (BE) to maintain minority languages and cultures (Kymlicka, 1995; May, 2001; Parekh, 2000, Raz, 1994; Schmidt, 2000; Taylor, 1994). Hornberger (1991, p.222) also believes, ‘bilingualism encourages the development of minority languages on the individual and collective levels’. However, Ferguson (2006, p. 64) writes that it should be realised that learning English leads to socio-economic development and that pluralist policies through ‘bilingual education (BE) only encourage segregation leaving minorities suspended between two worlds and in the long term actually contribute

to their subordination and marginalisation'. BE accepts that English is essential for social mobility but students' L1 is facilitative in acquiring the L2.

Ferguson (2009, p. 236-237) believes that the language policy regarding English medium of instruction seems unlikely to change for a variety of reasons. First, English language proficiency has become, as suggested above, such an evident source of linguistic capital, carrying such a potent promise of upward mobility, that demand for English-medium instruction from parents, pupils and the public will remain politically difficult to resist. Second, there are financial and resource constraints operating against any large-scale switch from English to indigenous languages as media of instruction, and third it is by no means clear that elites can muster the political will necessary to implement radical changes in media of instruction policies when these same policies are not unhelpful in sustaining their privileged position (Myers-Scotton 1990).

2.3.1 Higher education in language policies

It is seen that higher education has received attention in various educational policies and education committees' reports in the last six decades regarding the identification of issues ranging from a lack of dedication among staff and students to issues pertaining to language medium (Education Policy, 1959; Education Policy, 1979). It was discussed in various education policies that the quality of education should be raised through administrative reforms (Mansoor, 2005).

Mahboob (2002) believes that official policy with regards to languages in Pakistan since 1947 has been to maintain English as the medium of instruction in higher education as seen in all educational policies and reports of education commissions and committees (1957-2009). English is considered essential for higher education because of unavailability of reading material to be used at university level. With regard to the language issue, the recommendation made in the Sharif Report in 1959 to switch over to Urdu from English as a medium of education at university level over fifteen years, emphasises the point that a wide range of materials are required for the adoption of Urdu as a medium of instruction (UMI). Therefore, Zia ul Haq's regime forcibly imposed Urdu as a medium of instruction in schools that in the long run Urdu could ultimately become the medium of instruction at university level too but that idea of changeover has never been materialised.

Mansoor (2005, p.10) has also reviewed the above situation. She believes that the long-term language policy has been throughout to introduce Urdu as the official medium of instruction in higher education depending upon the development of the teaching materials in the national language. The period assigned to the transfer from English medium to Urdu medium in higher education has varied in various reports, that is, 15 years in the 1950s and again 15 years' lease was renewed in the 1970s (University Grants Commission, 1982). The later national policies have presumably avoided the discussion of the issue of language in education because it activates controversial debates, whenever, it is formulated or amended. Siddiqui (2012, p.47) aptly reflects that the decisions in language policies have emanated from the short-term political interests of the rulers.

Although policy makers in Pakistan have encouraged the role of English in universities, conflicting views regarding the position of English leads to embarrassing deviations from the avowed policy of using only English in the classroom (Annamalai, 2005; Brock-Utne, 2005; Bunyi, 2005; Luk, 2005; Martin, 2005a; Probyn, 2005; Rajagopalan, 2005; Wright, 2000). Thus, it must be clearly determined by Higher Education Commission and Ministry of Education that medium of instruction is an important variable in success of education and what should be a suitable language for Pakistani Education system (Malik, 1996). Language policy in Pakistan also needs to incorporate the issues of language revitalisation and preservation of linguistic diversity (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997; Spolsky, 2004; Wright, 2000).

2.4 Attitudes towards various languages in higher education in Pakistan

To develop a sound language policy, it is important to collect information about what languages are spoken in a society through a sociolinguistic survey (Mansoor, 2005). In addition, it is also necessary to find out what popular attitudes are in relation to different languages and whether these languages are stigmatised as belonging to lower socio-economic or educational levels (Cooper, 1989). Pakistan is a plural society, for that reason, it is useful to evaluate the language attitudes. According to Baker (2006), the value of a language in any society is dependent on attitudes.

The current study is also concerned with understanding postgraduate students' perceptions towards English as the medium of instruction (EMI) in Pakistan. Attitude refers to 'a hypothetical construct used to explain the persistence of human behaviour'

(Baker, 1992, p.10). Crystal (2011, p.1) defines that language attitudes are the feelings people have about their own language or the language of others. So, they represent internal thoughts, perceptions and tendencies in behaviour across a variety of contexts. Baker (1992) believes that language attitudes, such as accents and spellings, usually entail attitudes of speakers of the particular language or dialect and depend on history, social and political development and so many other factors and probably largely differ from country to country.

According to Curtin (1971), languages are functions of the culture and environment in which they have developed and cannot be treated in isolation. He claims that some language-attitudes studies are strictly limited to attitudes towards the language itself. However, most often the concept of language attitudes also includes attitudes towards speakers of a particular language. Fasold (2011) suggests that attitudes toward a language are often the reflection of attitudes towards members of various ethnic groups. It is also found out that one important impact on shift and maintenance of language is attitude (Holmes and Harlow, 1991). Baker (2006, p.112) reflects that language attitudes tend to be complex as positive and negative attitudes are attached to a language. He also believes that language attitudes are crucial in language growth or decay, restoration or destruction; the status and importance of a language in society and within an individual derives largely from adopted or learnt attitudes. Attitudes are learned predispositions, not inherited and are likely to be relatively stable; they have a tendency to persist (Baker, 2006; Spolsky, 1999).

Regarding the role and status of regional languages in Pakistan, it is needful to discuss language maintenance, language shift and language death. Crystal (2011, p.372) explains that the language maintenance means to hold onto one's language despite the influence of powerful languages; language shift corresponds to cases where a language has yielded to the influence of dominant languages and speakers have assimilated to the dominant culture and this can further be led to a language being completely eliminated (language death). Many languages in the world, including in Pakistan, are on the verge of extinction due to political, economic and cultural reasons (Crystal, 2011, p.382). Mansoor (2009) observes that conflicting attitudes ranging from ambivalent attitudes to negative attitudes are displayed by students to their regional language and mother tongue. The regional languages are accorded the low

status and are limited to community and home because education is offered in Urdu and English mediums of instruction. The mother tongues play no significant role in the official life of provinces and their educational role is limited to primary or secondary level. According to Stubbs (1985) in the long run the negative attitudes towards mother tongues can lead to language shift. An important factor in language spread or language shift is the relative economic, political and linguistic prestige of the language. The results of Mansoor's (2005) research reveal a language shift in the regional speakers who display low competency and use of their mother tongue/regional languages in formal and informal domains. She believes that the negative attitudes to devalourised language are so amplified by the majority group that members of the minority group downgrade themselves as well. In a country like Pakistan where sentiments of nationalism are very strong, bilinguals often reflect negative attitudes towards the minority language group. This subtractive form of bilingualism results because the dominant language group (Urdu) is putting pressure on, for example the minority language (Punjabi), to assimilate as quickly as possible. Mansoor (1993, 2004, 2005, 2009) perceives that students are experiencing negative ethnic identity in Punjab. The results of the study confirm the low ethnolinguistic vitality of Punjabi students, especially girls, in which Punjabi speakers hold their own language Punjabi, in low esteem (Siddiqui, 2012). The students display negative attitudes to their own language (Punjabi) which affords them only unfavourable intergroup comparisons with other language communities, Urdu-speaking and English-speaking communities that enjoy a high status (see Table 2.1). Rahman (2009, p.13) also expresses his view as:

‘In Punjab, unfortunately, there is widespread culture-shame about Punjabi. If anyone speaks Punjabi, he is called a ‘paendu’, meaning rustic and made fun of’.

Mansoor's (2004) study reinforces the views of Lambert (1980) on types of attitudes that exist within and between language groups where one language is dominant politically, economically and culturally, and the other is without power and prestige. The study also shows a language spread in English due to the highly positive attitudes to English as an international language and Urdu as the national language, displayed by students and teachers, and other factors such as mass media, information technology, commerce etc. The table presented below indicates both private and public institu-

tions' students' positive attitudes towards English as compared to Urdu, regional language and Arabic.

Table 2.1 Positive attitudes towards English in a population of public and private institutions, Mansoor, 2004, p.352

Recommended language	% of 1420 students of public institutions	% of 716 students of private institutions	Total % of both private and public institutions' responses
Regional language	11.7	11.3	11.3
Urdu	51.1	44.0	48.7
English	89.3	93.9	90.8
Arabic	6.1	4.3	5.5

2.4.1 Attitudes towards English as the medium of instruction (EMI)

A major incentive to learn a language is the income. In Brudner's terms (1972), jobs select language-learning strategies that are of use wherever there are jobs available; people will learn the languages required to access them. According to Mansoor (2004), in Pakistan, the most lucrative jobs require proficiency in English. The mother tongues are considered economically unimportant. The students also make use of English in both informal and formal domains despite their limited proficiency in the language (see Table 2.1). She believes that English is also seen as very useful for higher education as all materials are in English. The students show a strong desire to study English as a medium of instruction and as a compulsory subject (see Table 2.2). Table 2.2 shows private and public institutions students' results in favour of English as the medium of instruction in various stages of education.

Table 2.2 Students in favour of English medium of instruction in various stages of education, Mansoor, 2004, p.351

Stages of English language acquisition in Pakistan	Percentage of 1420 students of public institutions	Percentage of 716 students of private institutions
Primary	29.2	59.4
Middle	31.6	53.5
Secondary	35.6	55.0
Intermediate	52.2	61.5
Graduate	49.4	68.7

Mahboob (2002, p.30) observed that although admission policies in universities do not explicitly state that the students with English medium backgrounds have better chances of getting admission in various programmes in universities like University of Karachi, but it is significantly noted that most of the students in universities have English medium background. The figures in his research support the conclusion that informants consider English the most important language for their academic and professional careers. Urdu is considered important only for primary education and 73.5% students asserted that English should replace Urdu in universities. These attitudes reflect the low status assigned to Urdu as compared to English. English is a language of economic prosperity and progress while Urdu is a domestic language (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3 Attitudes to which medium of instruction, Mahboob, 2002, p.30

Questions	No of respondents	Yes	No
Is it important to study English?	255	98.8%	1.2 %
Should English be the medium of instruction for primary education?	250	76%	24%
Should English be the medium of instruction for high school education?	248	94.4%	5.6%
Should English be the medium of instruction for university education?	250	94.4%	5.6%
Is it important to study Urdu?	254	89.4%	10.6%
Should Urdu be the medium of instruction for primary education?	246	63.1%	34.6%
Should Urdu be the medium of instruction for high school education?	246	37%	63%
Should Urdu be the medium of instruction for university education?	245	26.5%	73.5
Is it important to study your first language other than Urdu?	50	44%	56%
Should your first language be the medium of instruction for primary education?	50	10%	90%
Should your first language be the medium of instruction for high school education?	50	4%	96%
Should your first language be the medium of instruction for university education?	50	0%	100%

Hence, to summarise briefly, the chapter starts off with the discussion about some essential beliefs of language in education policy and challenges involved in its formulation and implementation. Then the chapter proceeds to concise review of EMI's establishment in higher education in sub-continent with the presentation of Macaulay's minutes in 1835. The British government's language policy recognised three class based media of education which were EMI, UMI and VMI. After independence, Pakistani education system without any penetrating insight into the consequences of this language policy randomly decided to pursue the British footprints. It describes that language in education policy in Pakistan attained complexity on account of politics, ideology, cultural and linguistic diversity. In this situation, the policy makers have encouraged the development of English regarding its hegemonic role and socio-economic and educational opportunities.

The views in favour of cultural hegemony are contradicted by theories about the marginalisation of regional languages. It is found out that language policy is accessible to teachers in classroom only through curriculum; therefore, teachers are not exactly aware of policy goals. Finally, the chapter discusses that previous research on language attitudes shows Pakistani students' positive attitudes towards learning English mainly for instrumental reasons.

The literature described in this chapter has been helpful in the construction of questions to support already known evidence about EMI policy at university level and influences on language policies such as, multilingualism, multiculturalism and ethnicity hindering the formulation and implementation of an effective language policy in Pakistan. Thus, the research question based on this chapter is: 'to what extent does policy and practice of English medium of instruction (EMI) affect the perceptions of first year M.A Education students (MAE1) about their learning situation in Pakistani universities?' The chapter is also useful to raise questions about students and teachers' perceptions about different languages in universities.

CHAPTER 3. THE STATUS AND ROLE OF ENGLISH IN PAKISTAN AFFECTING STUDY IN ENGLISH AT HIGHER EDUCATION LEVEL

Introduction

Chapter 2 has examined at length the issue of language in education policy in Pakistan that has been puzzling commentators for more than six decades. Also, it has never ventured to identify and evaluate the needs of university teachers and postgraduate students in relation to the use of English as the medium of instruction in universities. The only solution for students' language problems can be thought of is English medium of instruction's (EMI) replacement with Urdu medium of instruction (UMI) in higher education. Chapter 3 describes how internal and external influences affect the role and status of English language in Pakistan. It also touches upon the issue of World Englishes because language policy appears deficient without mentioning the significant emerging debate about it. Finally, the chapter briefly looks at the patterns of development in Pakistani English (PakE).

3.1 External influences on the status and role of English in Pakistan

English has been referred to as the language of globalization with a strong emphasis on the fact that English is linked to technology and hence to notions of development and modernisation (Block and Cameron, 2002; Tsui and Tollefson, 2006; Weaver, 2003). These external pressures have determined the role of English in social, political, educational and economic domains which collectively facilitated to characterise English as a lingua franca. Also, it is noteworthy that the movement of World Englishes (WEs) is striving for the recognition and rights of non-native varieties of English. This movement postulates that there is not 'one English' but a plethora of World Englishes through which people can communicate (Canagarajah, 2006).

3.1.1 Globalization of English

The global spread of English has been thoroughly documented in a range of well known publications, for example, those by Ammon (2000), Cheshire (1991), Crystal (1988), Graddol (1997) and McArthur (1998). Therefore, the dominance of English as a global lingua franca, or 'hypecentral language' (De Swaan, 2001), is hardly disputed empirically, even by those most critical of this state of affairs, such as Phillipson

(1992, 2000, 2003), Phillipson and Skuttnab-Kangas (1995, 1996, 1999), Pennycook (1994, 1995, 2001) and Tollefson (1991, 2002).

According to Lakoff (2004), globalization refers to the expanding connectivity, integration and interdependence of economic, social, technological, cultural, political and ecological spheres across local activities. It arises through a confluence of mass mediated symbols, words, images, sounds, objects or activities. The globalization of English means innumerable users and uses across the world and the rapid spread of English as a second and a foreign language (Crystal, 1999). As estimated, the world's non-native speakers' ratio is 2:1 that is higher than the native speakers (Graddol, 1997). Crystal (2011, p.370) believes that English is a dominant language in all six continents. It is the main language of books, newspapers, airports, air traffic control, international business, academic references, science, technology, medicine, diplomacy, sports, international competitions, pop music and advertising. Jenkins (2003) emphasises that English is Churchill's ever conquering language and marches on with every shift in international politics, world economies, media development and technological revolution. Bamgbose (2001, p.357) asserts, 'there is overwhelming acceptance of the global dominance of English'. The global spread of English during the course of the last fifty years has been rapid and unprecedented (Crystal, 2003; McKenzie, 2008; Seidihofer, 2004). Spolsky's (2004, p.91) observation is worth noticing, 'English as a global language is now a factor that needs to be taken into account in its language policy by any nation state'. Therefore, the goal of English language educators is to equip students with the knowledge of global literacy and critical awareness of how globalization defines and positions the languages, symbols, identities, communities and futures (Kress, 2003; Peirce, 1998). The following UNESCO report (1999, p.20) describes the widely spoken languages. English has the largest number of speakers. It is also worth mentioning that among them Urdu and Punjabi which are spoken by majority of Pakistanis are among the top 10 languages of the world (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 UNESCO Courier, 1999, p.20

Rank	Language	Population
1	English, Chinese	1,000,000,000
2	Hindi (with Urdu)	900,000,000
3	Spanish	540,000,000
4	Russian	320,000,000
5	Arabic, Bengali	250,000,000
6	Portuguese	200,000,000
7	Malay and Indonesian	160,000,000
8	Japanese	130,000,000
9	French, German	125,000,000
10	Punjabi, Yue Chinese	85,000,000

Rahman (2009, p.10) believes that in Pakistan, globalization has increased the power of English because it has opened up more jobs for those who know it. These job opportunities are controlled by American multinationals, international bureaucracy, United Nations, World Bank, IMF, donor agencies etc. Tickoo (2006) believes that this has also increased the demand for English schooling at the cost of local languages.

International English is the concept of the English language as a global means of communication in numerous dialects and also the movement towards an international standard for the language. It is also referred to as Global English, World English, Common English, Continental English or General English (Crystal, 1988). Sometimes these terms simply refer to the array of varieties of English spoken throughout the world (Kachru, 1983, 1985, 1992a). English is used 'locally and internationally as a member of an international communicative network' (Burns, 2005, p.5). Since most of the information worldwide is transmitted via English, knowledge of English has become a necessity (Crystal, 2003). Pennycook (1994, p.4) rightly states, 'given the broader inequitable relationships in the world, people have little choice but to demand access to English'. The international character of English is a compulsory subject in the curricula of almost all educational systems worldwide (Tickoo, 2006). English education means not only teaching English language, but also adopting the medium,

modes of instruction and curriculum. No wonder that aims and objectives for teaching English in many countries highlight the role of English as means of opening a window, not only on the English speaking world, but on the rest of the world in general (Jenkins, 2003).

The critical applied linguists, such as Phillipson (1992) and Pennycook (1995, 2001) explain that hegemony in a Gramscian sense (Gramsci, 1971) leads to widespread adoption of English. Li (2002, p.55) believes that English should not be merely looked upon as a tool of hegemony but it is a resource through which, 'one can access more information and people-through higher education, on the job, in cyber space and international encounters'. However, Ferguson (2006, p.118) views, 'this is a process by which ruling elites maintain their dominance not through overt coercion but by winning the consent of the mass of the population to their own domination and exploitation.' Thus, English is willingly accepted by even those people who are visibly disadvantaged as a result of it because they are seduced by dominant discourses that portray English as a beneficial language of modernisation and opportunity (Pennycook, 1994).

3.1.2 Linguistic Imperialism

According to Pennycook (1998), the global spread of English is fundamentally an imperialistic process. It is argued that English language continues to be a language laden with colonial representations of the inferiority of the non-white people and the negative discourses about Muslim men and women (Fanon, 1967; Karim, 2003). Many linguists of colour, for example, Kachru (1982) and Nayar (1994) criticised the glorification of native speaker of English who speaks a variety of English associated with dominant countries like England and the USA, and the marginalisation of non-native speaker of English who learned English in an Eastern country, such as Pakistan, India, or China. Applied linguists like Burns and Coffin (2001, p.78) and Canagarajah (2005) discuss the movement from 'core' to 'periphery' where English is promoted as a second language and use these terms to show the power inequality between the two sets of countries.

Hedge and Whitney (1996) do not agree that English is imposed by force as it was during early colonial times but its spread is determined by the demand for it. This is the foundation upon which English is nowadays traded to the effect that it is a highly

profitable commodity throughout the world. It is certainly very useful to consider its social, historical, cultural and political relationships. The idea of forceful imposition of a language on other cultures can only be considered imperialist and damage national and ultimately global linguistic diversity.

Burns and Coffin (2001, p.78) believe that consequently language acquisition results in a certain level of cultural imperialism as knowledge from one culture is transferred to another. In addition, Phillipson (1992, p.47) views that legitimisation of English linguistic expansion has been based on two notions; ethnocentricity and educational policy, with 'ethnocentricity being the practice of judging other cultures by standards of its own'. Crystal (2011) also views English imperialism in terms of its close association with the expansion of free market practices. It has demonstrated its role outside the confines of the political and economic elite and flourished in such diverse areas as advertising, music, and the internet which are English language's democratic qualities.

3.1.3 English as a Lingua Franca

The global spread of English has resulted in the use of English as a lingua franca, being used for communication among speakers of different languages (Burns, 2005; Seidlhofer, 2009). English is used as a lingua franca without the involvement of native speakers of English. In a sense, English language is no longer an exclusive property of its native speakers.

'A lingua franca is a way of coping with linguistic and cultural differences, not a way of eliminating them. It is a tool for communication not a source of identity and community' (Huntington, 1996, p.61).

Most countries employ English extensively in a variety of official and unofficial roles not only for higher education, the legislature and judiciary, national commerce, administration, international communication but also for internal communication among educated people (Bamgbose, 1998; Bruthiaux, 2003). Seidlhofer (2009, p.238) states, English as a lingua franca, is the main means of communication 'for conducting transactions and interactions outside people's primary social spaces and speech communities'. Thus, English may serve as a useful link language between various ethnic and language groups. Interestingly, the interaction of English between NNS-NNS (non-native speaker) is more common than NNS-NS (native speaker) communication

(Jenkins, 2000). In fact in many countries, English is a lingua franca to the point that every literate person knows English (Phillipson, 2003). Jenkins (2005, p.154) believes, 'ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) has already gained recognition as a serious research area within World Englishes.' Interestingly, Jenkins (2000) has investigated communication between people from widely different backgrounds, such as Japanese and Swiss-Germans, and proposes a Lingua Franca Core (LFC) for intelligible pronunciation in international communication. Thus, the scholars with specialisms in a range of different research domains have also begun to engage with ELF and explore its implications for communication within their particular domain of interest. These include, in particular, business (e.g. Charles 2007; Ehrenreich, 2010; Pullin Stark, 2009), higher education (e.g. Björkman, 2011; Erling, 2007; Smit 2010), school settings (Sifakis and Fay, 2011) and tourism (e.g. Smit, 2003).

3.1.4 World Englishes (WEs)

The terms most often used to describe the varieties we are interested in are 'New Englishes' or 'World Englishes'. It has become customary to use the plural form 'Englishes' to stress the diversity to be found in the language today (Mesthrie and Bhatt, 2008, p.3). The language policy is incomplete without the notion of World Englishes, which has enabled varieties of English to be recognised as 'cross cultural and global contextualisations of the English language in multiple voices' (Kachru and Nelson, 2006, p.1). Kachru (1996, p.2) provided an influential model of the World Englishes (see Figure 3.1). Kachru's model continues to provide 'a useful shorthand for classifying contexts of English worldwide' (Bruthiaux, 2003, p.172). The model comprises three concentric circles of English usage: inner circle, outer circle and expanding circle (Bruthiaux, 2003). Each circle represents different types of spread, patterns of acquisition and functions of English in diverse cultural contexts (McKenzie, 2008). The varieties of inner circle have been described and codified whereas the outer and expanding circles' varieties are in the process of standardisation (Jenkins, 2003). The outer circle consists of those countries where English has official or historical importance. This means most of the Common wealth Nations (the former British Empire), including populous countries such as India, Pakistan, Nigeria and others under the American sphere of influence, such as the Philippines. The varieties of English spoken in the outer circle are often described as 'norm- developing as they are currently developing their own standards' (Jenkins, 2003, p.16). World Englishes are not inter-

languages but are the legitimate varieties of English with their own norms of use like 'standard' British and American English. The accents, not only have 'correctness' and 'pleasantness' variables, but also have now 'acceptability for international communication' (Jenkins, 2009, p.202). The World Englishes movement focuses on users, but the uses of English are determined by academic, educational and professional communities of practice, which still rely on Standard Englishes (Canagarajah, 1999; Mahboob and Szenes, 2010).

These varieties deviate from native British or American Englishes and have often been treated as heavily influenced by co-existing indigenous languages. Therefore, World Englishes may vary according to the culture or nation in which they are spoken and resultant convergences with that nation's native language (Mesthrie, 2006; Phillipson, 2008). World Englishes reflect the complex processes of borrowing, mixing and styling with other language varieties or discourses (Ricento and Hornberger, 2006, in Canagarajah, 2006). Hence, the global dominance of English is a product of the local hegemonies of English (Pennycook, 1994). Moreover, World Englishes have been conceptually interpreted as, 'growing or advancing or maturing in a progressive manner towards the correct, authentic or appropriate Englishes which in this case are the native' (Anchimbe, 2009, p.336).

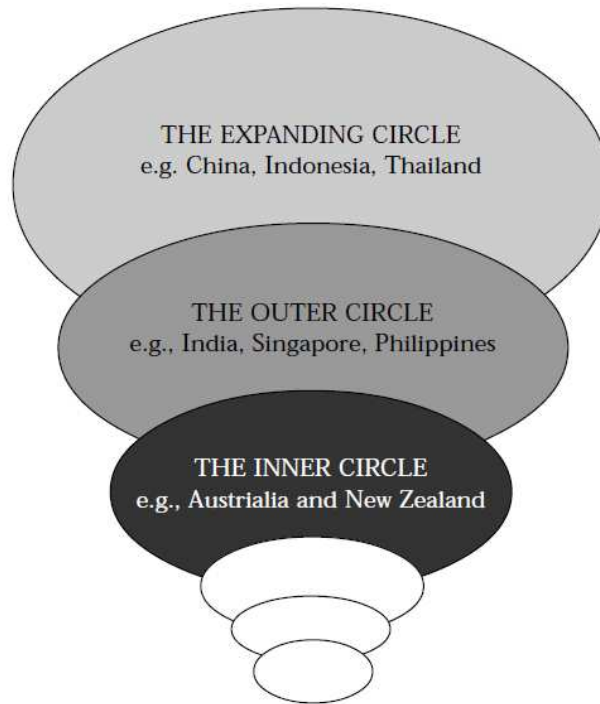


Figure 3.1 Kachru's concentric circles of English (adapted from 2011, p.14)

Thus, in a global context, the role of English language is being transformed. It results in uses and forms that diverge from a single standard (Jenkins, 2007). The communicators have multiple Englishes for rhetorical purposes within and across cultural discourse practices (Kachru, 1992a). Further, Baumgardner (1993. p.50) states:

‘World Englishes form a unique and variegated sociolinguistic mosaic, and each variety, whether already standard or in the process of standardizing, is an integral part of this unprecedented international phenomenon’.

Even the native varieties of English have been differentiated from each other. For example, American English is a variety of English distinct from British English, Australian English and other national varieties. As far as spellings are concerned, the differences between American and British usage became noticeable due to the first influential lexicographers (dictionary writers) on each side of the Atlantic. Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary of English Language* (1755) greatly favoured Norman-influenced spellings such as *centre* and *colour*; on the other hand, Noah Webster's *An American Dictionary of English Language* (1828) preferred spellings like *center* and the Latinate *color*. The difference in strategy and philosophy of Johnson and Webster are largely responsible for the main division in English spelling that exists today (Crystal, 1988). The Table 3.2 shows that pronunciation of the same words in BrE and AmE vary.

Table 3.2 The pronunciation differences in American English (AmE) and British English (BrE), Wells (2000)

Spelling	BrE	AmE
Barrage	bær.ɑ:ʒ	bərəʒ
Cadre	kæd.rə	kɑd.ri
Oblique	əblik	əblaɪk
premier	prɛmɪɛə	prɪmɪr
Respite	rɛspat	rɛspət
Vase	vɑ:z	veɪs

Crystal (1988, p.265) expresses his view about Standard English:

‘We all need to be in control of two standard Englishes—the one which gives us our national and local identity, and the other which puts us in touch with the rest of the human race. In effect, we may all need to become bilingual in our own language’.

American English began to diverge from British English during its colonial beginnings and acquired regional differences and ethnic flavour during the settlement of the continent. It differs from other national varieties in many respects, such as pronunciation, words spellings, and grammatical constructions (Algeo, 2001). Words or phrases of American origin and those used in America but not so much elsewhere are called Americanisms (Bailey, 2004; Read, 2002). Across the country, there are several recognisable variations in the spoken English both in pronunciation and in vernacular vocabulary but Standard American English (AmE) is free of noticeable regional differences (Trudgill and Hannah, 2002).

Regarding the non-native varieties, the scholars such as Kachru (1992), Moag (1992) and Schneider (2003, 2007) agreed in general terms that new varieties of English pass through a series of stages, starting with a reliance on exonormative varieties and a prejudice against the local variety through to the stage where the local variety receives local acceptance and becomes the classroom model (see Figure 3.2).

Scholars		Phases			
Kachru	non-recognition	co-existence of local and imported varieties		recognition	
Moag	transportation	indigenisation	expansion	institutionalisation	(decline)
Scheider	foundation	exonormative stabilisation	nativisation	endonormative stabilisation	differentiation

Figure 3.2 Developmental cycles of new varieties of English, Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.33

Kirkpatrick's (2007, p.172) the identity-communication continuum in Figure 3.3 illustrates two major functions of language: for communication; and to establish identity. It shows that when speakers wish to highlight their identity and membership of a speech community, they will choose to use a highly localised, informal variety of English. Or, if they wish to identify themselves as members of a specialist profession, they may use a highly specialised variety for this purpose. When used locally and to signal identity within a speech community, the variety of English will display a wide range of distinctive phonological, lexical, syntactic and cultural features. When used in order to communicate across speech communities, however, the variety will display fewer distinctive features.

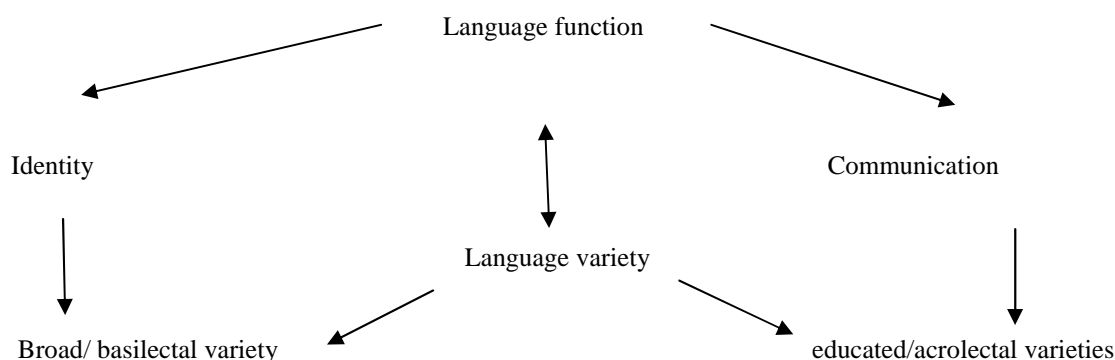


Figure 3.3 The identity-communication continuum, Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.173

In accordance with Figures 3.2 and 3.3, English in Pakistan has also undergone transformation. It is important to note that Pakistanis are using three varieties of English which are acrolect (spoken by elite class), mesolect (used by middle class) and basilect (market English used by uneducated class) (Mansoor, 2002). The sections

below discuss the processes which have led to gradual change in Pakistani English (PakE).

3.1.5 English in South Asia

It is discussed in Chapter 2 that the British introduced English in India to establish their foothold. Ali (1993, p.3) expresses his opinion that English and the languages of South Asia have developed in different directions:

‘The Germanic group under the influence of Roman Christianity being drawn to Latin and Greek; the Indo-Iranian, bearing affinities to Sasanian-Pahlavi and Sumerian on the one hand, and Persian and Arabic under Islamic influences on the other’.

Ali (1993, p.9) further reflects over the situation:

‘We studied English, science, and literature, read H.G.Wells, James Joyce, and D.H. Lawrence, Greek Drama, Restoration Comedy, Dr Johnson, the Romantics, and the Decadents. We were declared successful and were ready to recruit others to the cause of Britain’s ‘moral duty’ to India by teaching them to become good, bad or indifferent brown Englishmen’.

Mahboob (2004, p.1004) believes that English in British India spread because of the social and economic mobility associated with it. People learned English either by direct contact or through formal schooling. The input that learners received in South Asia was non-native and local because there were not enough native English speaking teachers to meet the demand and most English teachers were Indians. There was relatively little contact with native varieties of English in India, and after independence this contact was further reduced. These factors have contributed to institutionalisation and evolution of South Asian English (SAsE) as a native variety. The local need and uses of English, and the limited contact with native speakers of English has resulted in what has been called ‘nativisation’ of English in the Indian sub-continent.

The English language continued to flourish politically and socially in the British era and after independence in 1947 retained its official position because it had penetrated into the socio-political fabric of the country (Ali, 1993). Sidwa (1993, p.213) comments:

‘Although the Raj has since been banished, and the Empire repossessed, the status of English remains largely unaltered. It is a phenomenon, and

the single most important factor contributing to the phenomenon is the emergence of English as a World Language’.

She further expresses her view:

‘English, besides having its own genius, is useful by today’s standards in terms of commerce, communication, and technology. And this useful language, rich also in literature, is no longer the monopoly of the British. We, the excolonized, have subjugated the language, beaten it on its head and made it ours! Let the English chafe and fret and fume. The fact remains that in adapting English to our use, in hammering it sometimes on its head, and in sometimes twisting its tail, we have given it a new shape, substance, and dimension’ (Sidwa, 1993, p.213).

Reeves (1984) in his travelogue ‘*Passage to Peshawar*’ described Pakistan from a linguistic point of view as the ‘*Second English Empire*’ which means that English is very much alive in Pakistan. Pakistani English is a member of the linguistic sub-family of South Asian English which also includes Bangladeshi, Indian, Nepali and Sri Lankan English (Kachru, 1982). Powell (1998, p. 94-100) discusses that English has qualified official status in these former British colonies as it is used in educational, economic and political contexts (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Medium of Instruction in South Asia, Powell, 1998, p.100

Country	Status	Medium of Instruction
Bangladesh	Recognised in law and education	Common in higher education
India	One of the 16 languages recognised in constitution, but officially subordinate to Hindi	Common at higher levels, at secondary schools where Hindi is less widely spoken
Pakistan	Officially subordinate to Urdu, but main language of government	Common at higher level and usual in private secondary schools
Sri Lanka	Once official; continued use (10% of population) and widely in government	Common in higher education and in some secondary schools

3.2 Internal influences on the status and role of English

The issue of language plays a vital role in the life of a nation, especially in the field of education, as well as in the political situation and the socio-economic structure of the

country (Mansoor, 2005, p.26). In Pakistan, except Urdu and English, no language is commonly understood. English, the powerful code, has been the language of administration, education, law, commerce and polite social discourse for the English-educated (Canagarajah, 2005, p.422). Haynes (1987, p.157) considers the role of English as controversial and regional languages though rich in literature and traditions lack a unitary system of speech form. Moreover, none of the native languages are comparable in literature and intellectual content to English language. In addition to the political problems associated with an Urdu only policy, corpus planning acted as a handicap for having Urdu as the only official language. In order to avoid making Urdu the only language of state machinery and to run the government smoothly; English was maintained as the official language (Mahboob, 2002, p.21). To realise this situation, it is practically necessary to mention distinction between the status planning and corpus planning. Ferguson (2006, p.6) explains that status planning addresses the functions of languages in society and involves the allocation of languages to official roles in different domains, whereas corpus planning, in contrast addresses language form, the code itself, and results in standardisation and modernisation.

The religious parties demanded that Urdu's preference over English for all spheres of life as they viewed that 'the English have left behind their language that enslaves us. For them, the privileged status of English represents a new form of colonialism 'a linguistic colonization' (Mahboob, 2002, p.19). In spite of their adamant demand for Urdu only policy, Mahboob (2009, p.179) writes, English has not been displaced from its prestigious position for a variety of reasons, including the following:

- ✚ There is insufficient material produced in local languages to be used at all levels of education (dearth of corpus planning).
- ✚ There are no other politically neutral languages that can replace English.
- ✚ The religious parties do not have sufficient political power.
- ✚ The groups with economic, social, and political strength believe that English is essential for future development.

Therefore, it is realised that in Pakistan, there are debilitating conflicts in planning the relative status of indigenous languages and English in society and education (Canagarajah, 2005; Lin and Martin, 2005). There are subtle resistances—in favour of English (David and Govindasamy, 2005; Riazi, 2005). Canagarajah (2005, p. 419) reflects that

these dilemmas reflect to some extent the effects of the tensions in post colonial world: decolonisation and globalization. Decolonisation typically entails resisting English and other colonial languages in favour of building an autonomous nation-state; globalization has made the borders of the nation-state porous and reinserted the importance of English language for all communities through multinational production and marketing relationships, pop culture, cyber space, and digital technology. Haque's (1983, p.5) following statement indicates the role of English in Pakistan:

'It might not be possible to alter the position of English language in the national set-up radically, or to reduce its role across the board by fiat. It has permeated far too deeply and far too long for that. This position seems likely to continue in the foreseeable future. English is also the lingua franca of the international business community. In the years to come, even if English is de-emphasized for political reasons, it will in all probability continue to occupy pride of place in critical sectors of national life'.

The Coleman Report (2010, p.3) also states:

'In this report, the British Council demonstrates its recognition of the importance that the Government of Pakistan attaches to English, as a tool for individual and national development, and its wishes to support the government in its desire to address the significant challenges that the country faces in the area of English language teaching and learning'.

The papers of Abbas (1993), McArthur (1998), Rahman (2002a) and Talaat (2002) discuss important functions of English in Pakistan. First, it is used in the civil administration and the bureaucracy which includes both the federal and the four provincial governments, i.e., Punjab, Sindh, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Balochistan. Second, English is used in the legal system of the federal and provincial governments. Third, the defence forces (i.e., Army, Air Force and Navy) are using English as a language of communication for all office work. Fourth, English is a language of broadcast media, together with Urdu. The national news on radio and television are broadcast in both English and Urdu. The country has these major national newspapers in English: *The Dawn*, *The Nation*, *The News*, *The Pakistan Times* and *The Muslim* which are widely circulated. In addition, there is a large variety of English magazines, for example, *MAG*, *the Herald*, and *the Cricketeer*. Above all, CNN and BBC are available on the local channels.

It is believed that in spite of the shifts in official language policy ‘the creative writing in English has flourished’ (Hashmi, 1989, p.8, cited in Kachru, 2011, p.59). Pakistani literature has developed in various genres and several writers have acquired international and national recognition, for example, Ahmad Ali, Bapsi Sidwa, Zulfiqar Ghose etc. Hashmi (1989, p.8, cited in Kachru, 2011, p.59) adds that ‘Pakistani literature in English has been responsive, increasingly and almost inevitably as a national literature, to the society in which it is created, and to the sensitivities that the society engenders’. The Pakistan Academy of Letters also recognises works in literature. It is significantly noted that many Pakistani researchers, journalists and critics are producing valuable academic works in English language to reach a wider audience. Fifth, throughout the country, English is used as a medium of instruction in many institutions. In recent years, there has been a rapid growth of private, Euro-American style schools in Karachi, Lahore and Islamabad. The professional colleges, such as the universities, medical colleges, engineering colleges, dental schools and law schools use English. Last, English is used for trade and commerce. The multinational enterprises use English. This is also evident from the proliferation of experts to the country and the foreign funding agencies. The report of the University Grant Commission (1982, p.14) states:

‘English would continue to be used in the foreseeable future as the language of technology and of international communication. English is increasingly becoming the equivalent to a universal lingua franca and is essential for international intercourse. There is no escape for any country in the world from learning English well and thoroughly and it would be very unwise, in fact, almost suicidal for Pakistan to destroy by neglect all the advantages we already possess in respect of past knowledge of English’.

Thus, English in Pakistan has a privileged status. Besides the above uses of English in Pakistan, it is also used for interpersonal communication by educated people. It serves as a ‘link between speakers of various languages and dialects in linguistically and culturally pluralistic societies’ (Kachru, 1992a, p.58). The issue related debates in seminars and conferences are held in English. Interviews for public and private jobs are also taken in English. English is a language of court used by judges and lawyers (Khalique, 2006). It provides ‘a code which symbolises modernisation and elitism’ for educated Pakistanis (Kachru, 1992a, p.58). For most urban elites in Pakistan, English is used as a mark of class identity (Rahman, 1996).

English is learned for academic, interactive and communicative purposes (Mansoor, 2002). The students need English for reading advanced technical literature, coping with university classes and getting employment (Mansoor, 2005). Moreover, in Pakistan:

‘English is a passport to success and prosperity, in terms of improving their social and economic status and becoming modern and broadminded by accessing the latest ideas in the west’ (Mansoor, 2009, p.47).

In the private sector, the English medium schools have continued to flourish and this ‘elitist policy’ of the dual medium of instruction remains a source of concern for educationists and parents (Rahman, 1996, 2002b).

3.2.1 Emergence of Pakistani English (PakE)

Kirkpatrick (2007, p.172) suggests that new varieties of English have developed in contact with other languages and displayed a tendency towards syntactic simplification or regularisation of one sort or another. The debate in previous sections suggests that Pakistani English evolving is its own identity. It is important to discuss Pakistani English because the kind of English to teach is an important issue now that English has become global. The number of non-native speakers is substantially larger than its native speakers; therefore, students should be made aware of different varieties (Graddol, 1997). The work on South Asian Englishes suggests that there is a need to differentiate these varieties from each other. These sub-varieties are defined in terms of local languages. Thus, PakE and Indian English have unique features and differences based on the vernaculars in each country. PakE is heterogeneous because of the socio-economic, educational background, and first languages spoken by Pakistanis (Abbas, 1992; Baumgardner, 1993, 1995; Mahboob, 2004).

In contrast to American English and British English, Pakistani English is a non-native variety of English which uses all the words available in Standard British English in a relational pattern (Taalat, 2002, p.237). Pakistani English is one of the less well-researched varieties of English and has its roots laid deep in pre-partition British India (Mahboob and Ahmar, 2004). The largest body of research on PakE focuses on its historical and political status. Chiefly, existing studies of PakE on lexis, syntax, phonology and morphology focus on its features vis-à-vis Standard British English

(StBrE) or American English (AmE) rather than investigating the grammar of PakE (Mahboob, 2004).

Earlier works, such as Bell (1973); Jones (1971); Shah (1978); Smith-Pearse (1975) and Rafi (1987) treat the distinctive features of PakE as errors. Shah (1978, p.459) gives the following example, 'keep this on the table' (incorrect) and 'put this on the table' (correct). The grammar books advise against these errors but these are reinforced through electronic and printed media, local text books, study guides and dictionaries. Regarding this situation Bamgbose (1998, p.2) suggests:

'The main issue that arises is the need to decide when an observed feature of language use is indeed an innovation and when it is simply an error. An innovation is seen as an acceptable variant, while an error is simply a mistake or uneducated usage'.

Baumgardner (1993) have described this situation as 'pedagogic schizoglossia'. For example, the textbook of English for Class X (1992, p.26), used both in Balochistan and Punjab contains the following sentence: 'Everyday newspapers carry stories of fraud, theft, dacoity (armed robbery), child-lifting, abduction and murder'. According to Baumgardner (1993, p. xvi), the idea of Pakistani English as a distinct variety was first mooted in the early writings of Indian linguist Braj B. Kachru, and in later work Kachru (1982, p.362, 1983, p.153, 1983, p.332-7) cites examples of Pakistani English as part of his argument for a South Asian English. There is a literature on English in Pakistan as it is used in socio-cultural domains, including, research on (1) language pedagogy-Moss (1964), Dil (1966), Iqbal (1987), Raof (1988), Saleemi (1985), , Khattak (1991), Malik, 1993; 1996, Sarwar (1991); (2) language planning-Haque (1987), and (3) literary creativity-Rafat (1969), Hashmi (1986) and Rahman (1991). However, there has been little work on the linguistic aspect of English in Pakistan, and the topic has only recently begun to attract the attention of scholars.

Similarly, Baumgardner's (1987, 1988, 1993, 1995, 1998) discussion of PakE is based on a comparison of PakE with exonormative models of English. His discussion of the acceptability of various syntactic, lexical and morphological innovations in PakE is the only large-scale study of its kind. In Rahman's (2011) opinion, Pakistani English (Pak E) is a distinguished variety and would soon replace British Standard English. But the scope of his study did not extend to the investigation of sociolinguistic varia-

tion in PakE. Mahboob (2004) presents an overview of features of PakE, such as syntax, morphology, lexis and phonology.

3.2.2 The indigenisation of English in Pakistan

According to Baumgardner (1993, p.41), linguistic changes are taking place in the English language not only in Pakistan but also throughout South Asia. It is seen that since independence and partition of sub-continent, English has remained ‘a potent force in the multilingual and multicultural make up of present-day South Asia and continues to adapt itself to its new environment’. He states that Pakistani English has borrowed freely from the indigenous domains of food, clothing, government administration, politics, education, art and music. He believes that in order to comprehend PakE completely, one must be familiar with Urdu words (1993, p.42). He points out a passage from *The Pakistan Times* which is perfectly transparent to the culturally aware Pakistani readership while it would not be to an American reader:

‘The Secretary, Finance, Punjab, has issued a circular letter under which peons, *chowkidars*, *baildars*, watermen, *malis*, *behitis*, sweepers and other *work-charged* employees have been granted a special benefit. But it is very strange that the Secretary, Finance, has extended this gracious concession to three departments only. Why a *step-motherly* treatment is being *meted out* to the poor peons, *naib qasids*, *chowkidars* and *malis* of the Education Department?’ (Baumgardner, 1987, p.242)

The words like ‘chowkidars’, ‘baildars’, ‘malis’, ‘behitis’ and ‘naibqasids’ illustrate borrowings from Urdu and phrases such as ‘work charged’, ‘step motherly’ and ‘meted out’ show divergence from Standard English. In accordance with Kirkpatrick’s (2007, p.173) identity-communication continuum, this excerpt is truly representative of mesolectal variety spoken by Pakistani middle class (see Figure 3.4). It depicts their local identity. In Pakistan, English and Urdu are used ‘simultaneously or alternatively through code switching and code mixing which have become the norms’ (Taalat, 2002, p.14). English in Pakistan interacts with regional languages and Urdu and is localised in lexicon and syntax (Rahman, 2011).

In PakE some productive suffixes are ‘er’, ‘ee’, ‘ism’ etc. (see Table 3.4). English derivational suffixes also freely combine with Urdu bases. A few examples are, *Bradarism*, *shariatism*, *maundage*, *lathi-charged*, *rickshaw-wallahs* etc (Baumgardner, 1993, p.45). Baumgardner (1993, p.45) also describes that conversion, or the shift

of a word from one part of speech to another is also a major source of new words in Pakistani English e.g. move-over (verb- plus-particle -to-noun- conversion). Another pertinent characteristic of PakE is the use of vocabulary which no longer exists in British Standard English. A few examples can be cited, ‘*moot*’ (meeting), ‘*thrice*’ (three times), ‘*druggist*’ (a narcotics dealer) etc. (Baumgardner, 1993, p.47).

Table 3.4 Indigenisation in Pakistani English, Baumgardner, 1993, p.41-50

Borrowing	Grammar	Word-Formation	Conversion	Use of obsolete words
Baradari (clan)	Goondas	De-notify	To aircraft	Conveyance
Kabbadi (sport)	Jirgas (tribal council)	De-seat	To airline	Botheration
Kachchi abadi (shanty town)	Kachchi abadis	History-sheeter	Charge sheeted	Tantamount Patchwork
Mela(a fair)	Challan (urdu noun used as verb)	Affectees	Move-over	
Wadera (Sindhi landlord)		White-elephantism pointation		

According to Kennedy (1993, p.69), language can be emotive, informative or occupational depending on the context of the situation. The term which has been applied to a variety of language distinguished according to its use is ‘register’ (Halliday et al, 1964). The variety may be identified by its grammar, but is most explicitly ‘defined and recognised by topic and context-specific lexis’ (Coulthard, 1977, p.36). This lexical aspect of register drew Kennedy’s attention to examine newspapers’ articles which particularly dealt with crime. She (1993) describes a crime-reporting register, found in crime reports published in English language newspapers in Pakistan (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5 Word Formation in Pakistani English, Kennedy, 1993, p.70

I	II	III	IV
Accomplice	Bandit	Auto-rickshaw-lifter	Dacoit
Molester	Cheat	Looter	Badmash
Assassin	Co-accused	Gay girl	Goonda
Looter	Gun runner	Lady drug trafficker	Rassagir
Pickpocket	Hooligan	Kid smuggler	
Collaborator	vagabond	Flesh trader	

Culture is said to be intimately involved in norms of human behaviour (Murata and Jenkins, 2009, p.112). Kirkpatrick (2007, p.26) views that varieties reflect the cultures of their speakers which is another cause of difference between varieties. This is why the way people present information may differ and why they will use different schemas. Mahboob (2009, p.175) discusses that English reflects Islamic values and embodies South Asian sensitivities. He asserts that the relationship between PakE and Islamic and cultural values can be examined through the content and linguistic analyses of the topics on Prophet Mohammed (PBUH), Islam and Hajj in textbooks printed in English. Some common examples of lexical and semantic features of PakE include greetings, e.g. ‘*Assalam-o-Alaikum*’, and words of praise and appreciation, e.g. ‘*Maasha-Allah*’ and ‘*Alhumd-o-Lillah*’ (Mahboob, 2009, p.182). Baumgardner et al. (1993) sub-categorise Islamic borrowings into 44 groups, e.g. administrative posts (*amir, nazim*, etc.), concepts (*hadith, zina*, etc.), education (*iqra, maqtab*, etc.) and marriage (*halala, nikah*, etc.). In addition to lexical and semantic shifts, the pragmatics of PakE reflects Muslim cultural practices. For example, *Insha-Allah* (God willing) is sometimes used as means of polite refusal or a ‘*non-committing promise*’ (Mahboob, 2009, p. 183). Finally, Islamisation of English is identifiable in the discourse structures of writings, for example, the prefaces of textbooks begin with ‘*bismi-llāhi r-rahmāni r-rahīm*’ in Arabic (Mahboob, 2009, p.184). Kachru and Smith (2008) believe that Inner Circle English speakers need as much cultural information and as much exposure to different varieties of English as do Other Circle speakers if they are to increase their levels of intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability of World Englishes. Sidwa (1993, p.214) explains that she uses PakE carefully because:

‘The Pakistanized turn of phrase or choice of native word that might add originality and freshness to the writing for someone who is acquainted with this part of the world can give headache to someone who is not’.

She (1988, p.123) expresses her view that certain Pakistani words have a tonal quality that communicates their meaning even in English. Words like ‘*badmash*’, ‘*hulla-goolla*’, ‘*goonda*’ if used in the proper context convey their meaning without recourse to translation, e.g. ‘*We exposed ourselves so that only they could see us...But what a hulla-goolla! The woman screamed and cursed*’. She writes:

‘The door snaps shut and Imam Din stands on the kitchen steps looking bomb-bellied and magnificently ‘*goondaish*’-the grandfather of all the ‘*goondas*’ milling about us –with his shaven head, hennaed beard and grimy lungi’ (Sidwa, 1988, p.180).

The discussion explicitly shows that English in Pakistan has its own uniqueness. This distinctiveness is projected and perpetuated by the powerful English-using elite in Pakistan as well as through the pervasive English mass media. It is also reinforced through books and newspapers, because Urdu borrowings as well as indigenous lexical and grammatical usages have found their way into locally-produced English reading texts.

3.3 Models of English

Keeping in view emerging World Englishes, the debate about the models of English that should be employed in teaching English language is a long standing one and still continues (Ferguson, 2006, p.161). Quirk in his papers (1985, 1988, 1990) argues that non-native varieties are uncodified and non-institutionalised, therefore maintains that ‘a single monochrome standard form’, exemplified in the production of the BBC World Service, All India Radio, the Straits Times etc. can be the most appropriate model (Quirk, 1985, p.6). The implication for ‘non- native teachers is to be in constant touch with the native language’ (Seidlhofer, 2004, p.13-14). Taking the divergent stance, Kachru (1985, 1988, 1991, 1992a, 1992b) argues that English is recognised as an international language, so the native speakers need to accept that they ‘have lost the exclusive prerogative to control its standardisation’ (Kachru, 1985, p.30; Widdowson, 1994). Hence, Kachru believes that World Englishes should have greater recognition in the teaching of English in outer circle contexts (Ferguson, 2006, p.162).

It is noted that various linguists have identified the recurring issues of intelligibility, identity, practicality, acceptability and standardisation which are interwoven with the debate on World Englishes whether they should be adopted as teaching models. Regarding intelligibility Jenkins (2000, p.79) puts it:

‘Intelligibility is dynamically negotiable between speaker and listener, rather than statically inherent in a speaker’s linguistic forms, even though participants (i.e. second language learners) find the process of negotiation more problematic than do fluent speakers’.

Jenkins (2000, p.11) believes that it is no longer appropriate in every circumstance to seek ‘to instil L1 pronunciation norms into learners who are rarely likely to communicate with a L1 speaker of English’. The identity is not only embedded in L1 but also L2, as Joseph (2004, p.161) points out, ‘identity is expressed in the language’. English develops a sense of ownership and this is not possible if the features in the local educated variety continue to be regarded as ‘errors’. However, it is widely accepted that there is no standard pronunciation but the concept of standard has greatest clarity when applied to the written language, and specifically to print English (Ferguson, 2006, p.168). Therefore, codification is essential to standardisation of indigenised varieties of English because in its absence teachers will be unclear as to what is correct and what not. As Bamgbose (1998, p.12) puts in:

‘Crucial to the entrenchment of innovations and non-native norms is codification. Without it users will continue to be uncertain about what is and what is not correct and, by default, such doubts are bound to be resolved on the basis of existing codified norms, which are derived from an ex-normative standard’.

Bamgbose (1998, p.4) further remarks, ‘the acceptability factor is the ultimate test of admission of an innovation’. The codification leads to acceptability of an indigenised variety of English which is, in turn, linked to attitudes and status because recognition of a new standardising variety is dependent on linguistic difference and acceptance of that difference as valid (Joseph, 2004, p.139). According to Timmis (2002, p.243), these new varieties of English are displeasing to many ELT teachers because they are duty-bound to equip students with the skills and knowledge needed to prosper in the world, and they also remain wedded to the notion that native-like competence is the ultimate benchmark of learning achievement. Finally, to agree with Kachru (1992a) and Jenkins (2000), WEs are systematic in their own right, and are institutionalised in

communities that have reshaped the language with the ownership of it, incorporating English-using into their identities.

Thus, this chapter raises questions about the importance of English, socio-economic development of the country and the need of teaching and learning English in universities for accessibility to satisfactory employment, travelling abroad and endorsing progressive approach towards life. Furthermore, the discussion about World Englishes (WEs) is useful in the construction of questions about participants' perceptions of Pakistani English (PakE) as a variety of English. It is found that Pakistani English is at a nativisation stage and previous research concentrates mainly on PakE as a basilectal variety which is representative of Pakistanis' identity but there is absolutely no research on acrolectal variety which is used for communication by educated class of Pakistan and might be adopted as the model of English at a later stage. The research is also planned to analyse a few features of verbal communication of participants. The research questions constructed on the material of this chapter are: 'what are the perceptions of university teachers and students about the importance of English language in Pakistan?' and 'what are perceptions of the type of English being used in Pakistani universities?'

CHAPTER 4. ENGLISH IN EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN AFFECTING STUDY IN ENGLISH AT HIGHER EDUCATION LEVEL

Introduction

This chapter discusses ELT in Pakistan which leads to a debate about English language methodology, curriculum and assessment. It also sheds some light on language anxiety and motivation.

4.1 English language teaching (ELT) in Pakistani institutions

Crystal's (2011, p.352) analysis affirms the importance of English language teaching for any country in which English is a global language but sometimes present a barrier to communication. Whether the activity is tourism, research, government, policing, business, or data dissemination, a lack of knowledge of the English language can severely affect progress and can even halt it altogether. Figure 2.1 presented in Chapter 2 shows that diverse streams of education based on media of instruction were established because scarce resources could not provide equal English language teaching facilities to a large population (Rahman, 1996). Siddiqui (2007, p.161) mentions some noteworthy constraints of the ELT scenario which are 'large-size classes, lack of resources, untrained teachers, fixed syllabus, forty minutes duration for English and external examination bodies'. Beside these causes, Warwick and Reimers (1995) view that unmotivated faculty and curriculum divorced from real problems faced in teaching also prevent students from being expressive in English in higher education. Murray (2005) also notes that NNS (non-native speakers) teachers admit that they use L1 as the medium of instruction and have examination preparation as the leading aim of teaching. Moreover, Kamhi-Stein and Mahboob (2005) observe that many English teachers speak very little English in the classroom. It is suggested that not only students undergo language problems but the teaching faculty also do not use English competently. Coleman (2010, p.17) also reports that:

'Pakistani English teachers have a tendency to teach the language through the medium of Urdu or a local language because probably their own competence in English is poor or because they have so little confidence in their own competence'.

The effect of such English language teaching can be seen in universities. The post-graduate students find it hard to express themselves in oral and written skills. Those

students who have studied at good colleges ‘do have effective communication skills but those who have come from the mainstream are disadvantaged’ (Siddiqui, 2007, p. 168). Further, he believes that:

‘The majority of these students are interested in getting certificates and degrees and instead of attempting to learn the language skills, they consume their time in rote learning’ (Siddiqui, 2007, p.150).

The main goal for postgraduate students is to obtain a degree, therefore, as Siddiqui claims, the easiest solution for the language problems is to have reliance on their potential to cram reading texts to get through the examinations without improving English language skills.

4.2 English language curriculum

The curriculum is a fundamental component of education at all levels. Rodgers (1989, p.26) explains that curriculum includes not only what pupils learn, but how they learn it, how teachers help them learn, using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and in what kind of facilities. The following model describes four essential aspects of curriculum (see Figure 4.1).

Aims and objectives → **Content** → **Organisation** → **Review**

Figure 4.1 Aspects of English curriculum, Richards, 2011, p. 39

In order to develop a useful curriculum, the curriculum development process refers to needs analysis, situational analysis, planning learning outcomes, course organisation, selecting and preparing teaching materials, providing for effective teaching and evaluation (Johnson, 1989, p.3; Lawton, 1973). Learners are the key participants in curriculum development projects and it is essential to collect information about their backgrounds, expectations, beliefs and preferred learning styles (Richards, 2011, p. 101). Therefore, a basic assumption of curriculum development is that a sound educational program should be based on an analysis of learners’ needs (Berwick, 1989; Pratt, 1980). Planning English as the second language (ESL) curriculum not only identifies students’ language needs, but seeks to enable them to critically examine the existing order and become active in shaping their own roles in it (Auerbach, 1995,

p.15; Brindley, 1984). Richards (2011, p.52), identifies the purposes of needs analysis for curriculum development in English language teaching:

- ✚ to find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as university student
- ✚ to help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students
- ✚ to determine which students from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills
- ✚ to identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important
- ✚ to identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do
- ✚ to collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing

Nunan (1992, p.176) comments:

‘The effectiveness of a language program will be dictated as much by the attitudes and expectations of the learners as by the specifications of the official curriculum...learners have their own agendas in the language lessons they attend. These agendas, as much as the teacher’s objectives, determine what learners take from any given teaching/learning encounter’.

Thus, the goal of needs analysis is to collect information that can be used to develop a profile of the language needs of learners in order to make decisions about the goals and content of a language course (Markee, 1997). However, language programs are carried out in particular contexts or situations (Pratt, 1980). Clark (1987, xii) comments:

‘A language curriculum is a function of the interrelationships that hold between subject-specific concerns and other broader factors embracing socio-political and philosophical matters, educational value systems, theory and practice in curriculum design, teacher experiential wisdom and learner motivation. In order to understand the foreign language curriculum in any particular context it is therefore necessary to attempt to understand how all the various influences interrelate to give a particular shape to the planning and execution of the teaching/learning process’.

This is the focus of situation analysis which is an analysis of factors in the context of a planned curriculum project that is made in order to assess their potential impact on the project. These factors may be political, social, economic or institutional (Richards, 2011, p. 91). The foremost goal of curriculum is academic rationalism that stresses the intrinsic value of the subject matter and its role in developing the learner's intellect, humanistic values and rationality (Clark, 1987, p.5). Secondly, socioeconomic ideology emphasises the economic needs of the society as a justification for the teaching of English. Thirdly, the aim of English language curriculum is to develop awareness, self-reflection, critical thinking and learner strategies (Richards, 2011, p. 117). Many other publications, for example, (Baumfield, 1995; Baumfield and Higgins, 1998; Baumfield and Oberski, 1998; Baumfield and Devlin, 2005) maintain focus on this important aspect of language curriculum. 'Thinking skills' and related terms are used to indicate a desire to teach processes of thinking and learning that can be applied in a wide range of real life contexts (Wegerif, 2002, p.2). Baumfield and Devlin (2005, p.38) suggest that if thinking skills are emphasised in the curriculum, they can develop students' higher order thinking, depth of knowledge, connectedness to the world and substantive conversation. Constructivists emphasise that learning involves active construction and testing of one's own representation of the world and accommodation of it to one's personal conceptual framework (Roberts, 1998, p.23). Fourthly, another goal of curriculum is cultural pluralism. It should prepare students to participate in several different cultures and not merely the culture of the dominant social and economic group (Banks, 1988; Burnett, 1998; Collingham, 1988). The notion of cultural sensitivity is brought forward in relation to how content in books extends and promotes particular cultural values and norms and ideological content. Hornberger (1991, p. 222) views that it is important to develop, 'cultural pluralism at school and in the community, and an integrated national society based on the autonomy of cultural groups'. Finally, social reconstructionism in the curriculum emphasises the roles schools and learners can play in addressing social injustices and inequality (Freire, 1972; Apple, 1986). Morris, 1995, p.20 observes:

'The curriculum derived from this perspective focuses on developing knowledge, skills and attitudes which would create a world where people care about each other, the environment, and the distribution of wealth. Tolerance, the acceptance of diversity and peace would be encouraged'.

Hence, this perspective suggests that curriculum should have goals and learning outcomes which are erected on an understanding of the present and long-term needs of learners and the beliefs and ideologies of society. It is also important to incorporate these aspects of curriculum into the language policy.

While discussing curriculum, it is also important to touch upon the development of language materials because students particularly in ESL or EFL settings undergo language problems. The development of language learning materials refers to all the processes made use of by practitioners who produce and use materials for language learning, including materials evaluation, their adaptation, design, production, exploitation and research (Tomlinson, 2012, p.144). A number of recent publications have stimulated universities and teacher-training institutions to give more time to how materials can be developed and exploited to facilitate language acquisition, for example, Harwood, 2010; Mishan and Chambers, 2010; Mukundan, 2009; Tomlinson, 2010, 2011. Tomlinson (2008, p.4) proposed the following principles of language learning materials:

- ✚ the language experience needs to be contextualised and comprehensible
- ✚ the learner needs to be motivated, relaxed, positive and engaged
- ✚ the language and discourse features available for potential acquisition need to be salient, meaningful and frequently encountered
- ✚ the learner needs to achieve deep and multi-dimensional processing of the language

4.2.1 Curriculum in Pakistan

It is discussed in the foregoing section that it is important that an effective English language curriculum should especially be concerned about needs analysis, situational analysis and intended learning outcomes of the students. It should be designed and implemented in such a way that it develops students' ability for academic rationalism, critical thinking and cultural pluralism. However, the views of various writers suggest that above mentioned aspects are not kept in sight for the curriculum development in higher education in Pakistan.

It has been discussed in Chapter 2 that language policy goals are transmitted through curriculum and textbooks. As teachers are not involved in the process of policy mak-

ing, so in order to accommodate deficiencies in the curriculum, they create their own goals in the classroom. Siddiqui (2007, p.50) observes that ‘the majority of the teachers believe that the curriculum is handed down to them so that they cannot bring any change’. Moreover, the language of the curriculum is increasingly complex and specialised that it transcends pupils’ comprehension and does not necessarily prepare them for classroom conversation (Cummins, 2006).

Mansoor (2002) also points out that in the Pakistani education system the textbooks tend to occupy the central place and the teacher is bound to teach the textbooks because the questions in the examinations are set from those textbooks. Therefore, although the trained teachers would like to be creative, they have ‘little room for innovation in the presence of existing curriculum and syllabus’ (Siddiqui, 2007, p.51). Regarding the content of curriculum in Pakistan, Mahboob (2009) discusses that curriculum in Pakistan endeavours to promote national culture that may sometimes be strongly linked with religious and ideological content which promotes one ideology above others and often cultural content is limited to the culture of dominant groups within the country, with little focus on the minorities and other competing global cultures. As discussed previously, the curriculum’s goal should be the development of cultural pluralism regarding prevailing cultural diversity in the country. Hence, the language planners and curriculum developers do not take into account learners’ needs for designing curricula and what teachers have to teach to achieve intended learning outcomes (Mohammad and Kumari, 2007).

4.3 Teaching methodology

The preceding section has described the principles of English language curriculum and the following section will suggest that a suitable ELT methodology is required for an effective implementation of curriculum goals. In addition, to reiterate the previous statement, students experience language learning problems because methodology needs adaptation in accordance with the specific classroom situations.

Mackey (1965, p.151) comments that although there has been a preference for particular methods at different times, methods often continue in some form long after they have fallen out of favour; this observation is still true with grammar translation method that is still alive in Pakistan and many other parts of the world. Nunan (2006) offers the following principles as a basis for ELT methodology in higher education:

- ✚ a needs-based approach to content selection
- ✚ an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
- ✚ the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
- ✚ the provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
- ✚ an enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
- ✚ the linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom.

Warsi (1994) views that ELT methodology in Pakistan is not based on a needs based approach in the classroom as it does not utilise authentic materials to develop students' reflective and communicative skills. It is noted that teachers in Pakistani universities deliver lectures using bilingual instructional methods. Communication between teachers and students occurs in Urdu or in their regional language, Sindhi, Punjabi, etc. In bilingual education, the students learn through two languages in the classroom (Cummins, 2006). Hornberger (2003, cited in Canagarajah, 2005) argues that bilingual education through the bilingual textbooks, expressive writing from students in mixed codes, and oral code switching between teachers and students in the classroom, can develop important communicative and thinking skills. Ferguson (2009, p. 231) also explains the utility of code switching (CS) as a communicative and pedagogic resource in bilingual contexts, especially where 'pupils struggle to understand difficult subject matter whilst simultaneously learning a foreign language, one that is nominally the official medium of instruction'. It is postulated that CS in a classroom where English medium of instruction is used can be helpful for construction and transmission of knowledge, classroom management and development of interpersonal relations to humanise the classroom climate (Ferguson, 2003). Although, for utilising CS in bilingual instructional medium, it is essential to consider the methodological question of whether language instruction in language subject lessons best proceeds monolingually or interlingually (Macaro, 2001).

4.3.1 Teaching methodology in Pakistan

Nunan (2006) believes that the dominant approach to language teaching in Asia has been, and remains, a synthetic one which is unnatural as it does not take into account the fact that L2 should be taught naturally like L1 acquisition. Teachers, who have learned their own languages through a synthetic approach, see this as the normal and logical way of learning language. It is observed that ‘teachers tend to revert to methods they know to be effective in rendering the situation manageable’ (Doyle, 1977, cited in Baumfield and Oberski, 1998, p.48). They teach, as Siddiqui (2007, p.164) reflects:

‘The way they were taught by their own teachers and...the teacher in Pakistan is not convinced about the strategies or methods s/he is exposed to but uses them because the experts say so’.

In a typical Pakistani English classroom, we see that:

‘The translation method (GTM) is used to teach English language. It is ineffective in that communicative and creative skills are ignored and a great deal of stress is laid on rules and exceptions of English language. The practice of GTM in classroom has the stultifying effect on learners as it is not honed towards the linguistic needs of learners’ (Warsi, 2004, p.4).

Regarding academic writing, for example, it is observed that ‘English is taught as a second language and writing is a compulsory skill, during the whole period of education, students face great difficulty to express themselves’ (Khan, 2011, p.101). The teachers in Pakistan do not think that critical thinking and synthesis are important aspects of academic writing. Similarly, critical reading is not encouraged in a Pakistani English classroom. It is argued, critical reading should be incorporated fully in the language curriculum as a vital component of a second language learning (Green, 2005).

The Pakistani teachers confront tensions generated by the competing demands of learners’ requirements, contextual constraints, syllabus specifications and their own theories of best practice (Banegas, 2011; Wettle, 2011). The foregoing discussion suggests that what is required in a Pakistani context is a communicative, action-based, learner-centred view of language learning, based as far as practical, on needs analysis, learner autonomy and self-assessment (Heyworth, 2006). Bourke’s (2006) view is that

the underlying rationale of a second language methodology should reflect the world of the pupil and facilitate the bringing of acquisition into the classroom. Quite realistically, Howatt (2004, p.313) refutes ELT theories:

‘... there is a world of difference between a language teaching method which derives ultimately from a theory of language learning and a national education policy which reflects a particular array of cultural and socio-political priorities’.

This quote fits appropriately into Pakistani educational context. In Pakistan, many above mentioned constraints (see 4.1) such as inadequate resources, overcrowded classes and unenthusiastic teachers restrict the adoption of teaching methodology derived from language learning theories. Moreover, language policy is hinged on by religious, cultural, social and political circumstances (see Chapter 2). Thus, as the backdrop of these challenges, the national education policy decides curriculum, methodology and assessment.

4.4 English language assessment

Generally, assessment is an essential component of an education system. It has a strong impact on teachers and pupils (Hughes, 2003). The purpose of testing is to provide information about the achievement of learners without which rational educational decisions could not be made (Schellekens, 2007). Therefore, Williams (1998) believes English teachers should be trained to construct and mark students’ papers because assessing student papers is one of the most important things the teachers do, as their decisions about grades can affect students’ lives.

There are various types of English language tests. According to Hughes (2003), an achievement test is conducted at the end of the year. A proficiency test is designed to measure people’s ability in a language regardless of any training they may have had in that language. A placement test is used to place pupils at different levels of education. Finally, a diagnostic test is employed to know the weaknesses and strengths of the learners in a language. In Pakistan, all Board and University examinations are achievement tests which are not very helpful to understand the strengths and weaknesses of students. There are some proficiency tests such as IELTS, TOEFL which Pakistani students need to qualify for admission in higher education in English speaking countries.

4.4.1 Traditional tests versus performance based tests

Puppin (2007) argues that traditional tests like Board examinations are one-shot tests, based on textbooks, that give inauthentic and de-contextualised testing tasks, have subjective grading and correction and lead to negative wash back. On the other hand, performance based testing is continuous assessment, has contextualised test tasks and standardised scoring criteria (Davies, 1990). McNamara (1996) also believes that traditional tests do not contribute to students' learning in a positive way. Bailey (1998) suggests that in contrast to traditional tests, performance tests are designed with a special care to present real life tasks which test learners' sociolinguistic ability and competence to ensure their progress in language. Linguists Alderson and North (1991) are in favour of communicative language testing because its goal is to assess an individual's originality and creative abilities. These tests employ authentic texts and are based on the learners' needs and language use in context for the purposes relevant to the learner (Heaton, 1990; Brown, 1994). Brown, Race and Smith (1996) also emphasise the use of creativity, reflection, observation and personal experiences in learners' writing tests.

There are different qualities which can maximise the overall usefulness of an English language test (Bachman and Palmer (1996). A good test should have construct validity, reliability, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality to foster creativity and independent learning (Brown and Pickford, 2006). Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.19-26) define construct validity as 'meaningfulness and interpretation of the scores to be achieved', reliability is 'the consistency of scores', authenticity is 'the degree of correspondence between a given test task and the target language use', interactiveness is 'the involvement of test taker's characteristics', impact means 'the effect of the test on society, educational systems and upon the individual within those systems' and practicality means 'available resources'.

4.4.2 English language assessment in Pakistan

In Pakistan, the public examinations are often perceived as a source of dissatisfaction that do not reflect students' actual potential or measure language proficiency (Khan, 2011, 2012). Siddiqui (2007, p.189) believes 'in Pakistan assessment system excludes creativity and critical thinking out of its legitimate boundaries' because Eng-

lish examinations test knowledge of literature and knowledge of language, rather than use of language. Siddiqui (2007, p.164) rightly says:

‘The students memorise the readymade answers of short stories, essays, plays, poems etc because assessment system encourages rote learning and the examination requires the students to reproduce what they have learnt by heart’.

Further, all examinations held in English in Pakistan have subjectivity in setting and marking and they cover only reading and writing skills and measure pupils’ knowledge of the language rather than their performance (Warsi, 2004). Thus, to quote, ‘we are caught in a vicious circle; the cycle begins at a badly constructed syllabi and ends at a rag bag system called examination’ (National Education Policy (1992, p.69). National Education Policy (2009, p.38) states, ‘the public examinations in Pakistan are invalid and unreliable as they encourage cramming’. In Pakistan, it is seen that, assessment has a direct relationship with teaching in the classroom. Siddiqui (2007, p.187) asserts:

‘In Pakistan the impact of assessment is conspicuous. It is the assessment system that has emerged as an omnipotent force that is calling the shots in the educational scenario of Pakistan. Each new government claims to realize its significance but hardly takes any practical, meaningful, holistic, and sustainable steps towards streamlining the system’.

Text books and assessment are interrelated concepts in the Pakistani education system. Mostly ‘teachers use only textbook questions to assess students’ learning and for assigning homework’ (Mehrun Nisa, 2009, p.26). These questions normally require reproduction of memorised material from the textbooks or guide books. Siddiqui (2007, p.152) comments, ‘the students prepare for the examination with the help of ‘Get through guides’ that provides them with a short cut to pass the examination’. The English language question papers are not devised in terms of specific purposes and intended learning outcomes. Since 1959, it is keenly felt that in Board and University examinations ‘success can be achieved through mere memorisation and practically no effort is made to test the pupils’ intelligence’ (Commission on National Education, 1959, p.125). It is also justly argued:

‘Twenty provincial boards in Pakistan encourage poor learning and teaching methods where rote learnt answers from prescribed textbooks or

guidebooks are rewarded and creative and independent thinking penalized' (Mansoor, 2005, p.32).

The teachers' attention is focussed on stereotyped questions set in the examination; therefore do not sufficiently practice reflective, critical and interactive faculties in classroom. Although it is realised that English language testing does not measure students' ability to use the language, creativity and critical thinking, no significant efforts appear to be made to improve it.

4.4.3 Wash back effect of examinations

Hughes (2003) describes washback as an effect of testing on teaching and learning. Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.27) define washback to be 'an aspect of impact on processes of learning and instruction.' According to Hughes (2003) a test could have either beneficial or harmful washback. A test has beneficial washback if it is based on the language needs of the learners but if the test content and techniques are at variance with the objectives of the course, it is unreliable and likely to have harmful washback. The public examinations have negative washback effect in Pakistan.

'The negative washback effect on teaching is of two kinds: explicit and implicit. In the Pakistani context, explicit effect is shown in the apparent tactics the teacher uses to help students get good grades. The implicit washback effect is the teacher's own view of teaching which gets contaminated by the hanging sword of memory-gearred tests' (Siddiqui, 2007, p.189).

Jenkins (2007, p.42) asserts, 'learners and teachers are reluctant to embrace changes in curriculum as the focus is on targets set in the test'. Such type of testing undermines the quality of instruction in the classroom (Hill, 2004). A significant reality of such examination is that, it does not take into account the needs of the learners 'which are the development of basic skills in English so that they can apply for higher education and get a good job' (Siddiqui, 2007, p.163).

4.5 Teacher education in Pakistan

Teacher education is believed to be one of the most powerful strategies for bringing about the magnitude of changes needed to address the most pressing challenges confronting public education (Baptiste, 1999; Edwards, 1997; Watson and Taylor, 1998). Teacher education is not a one-shot, one-size-fits-all event, but rather an evolving

process of professional self-disclosure, reflection, growth that yields the best results when sustained over time in communities of practice and when focused on job-embedded responsibilities (Bredson 2002; Sandholtz et al., 1997). It is the process of developing staff skills and competencies needed to produce outstanding educational results for the students (Hassel, 1999; Nicholls, 2001). The teachers ultimately hold the key to implementing and sustaining change within the classroom and provide the bridge between the plans and the benefits learners gain from them (Hussain, 2009, p. 106). Ideally, teachers should have continuous access to opportunities to learn and be seriously engaged in the expanding intellectual world (Boyer, 1987, p.10).

According to Hussain (2009, p.110), there is no institutionalised arrangement for providing regular training to teachers in Pakistan. Sporadic training opportunities, if any, lack in quality. All Pakistan education policies have given teacher education its due importance, but it has not been possible for the teacher education programmes to be adequately responsive to the demands of the fast paced requirements of the teachers. The report of the Commission on National Education (1959) concedes that ‘no system of education is better than the teachers who serve it’. At the same time, these statements are contradicted in the Education Policy of 1998-2010 that ‘to provide increased opportunity of in-service training to the working teachers preferably at least ‘once in five years’. Notably, article 7.1.6 of the National Education Policy 1998-2010 (Government of Pakistan, 1998) identifies the required qualifications of teacher trainers:

‘The staff of the teacher training institutions belong to the education service. There is no special cadre of teacher educators. Any serving teacher or lecturer with a Master’s degree, with or without professional qualifications, can be appointed as a teacher educator, although preference will be given to those who hold a Master’s degree in Education’.

As Mahboob and Talaat (2008) point out, this policy explicitly shows that teacher educators in Pakistan can be hired without having any academic or professional credentials in education. This clearly has implications for their ability to train teachers. It can be asserted that this lack of training and understanding of educational theories and practices impacts their ability to train teachers. In the case of English, it is possible that an individual with a degree in English literature with little or without any school teaching experience can become a teacher trainer. In addition, there is no convincing

evidence that individuals with higher language proficiency are effective teacher educators (Mahboob and Talaat, 2008). The teacher educators in Pakistan are broadly categorised into seven groups (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Categories of teacher educators based on three key factors, Mahboob and Talaat, 2008

	Teaching experience	Academic credentials in education	Academic credentials in subject matter
Group 1	Yes	Yes	Yes
Group 2	Yes	Yes	No
Group 3	Yes	No	No
Group 4	Yes	No	Yes
Group 5	No	No	Yes
Group 6	No	Yes	Yes
Group 7	No	Yes	No

The national education policy (1998-2010) reports that there are 123 teacher training institutions in Pakistan that provide six types of certification: primary teaching certification (PTC), certificate in teaching (CT), bachelor of science in education (BSEd), bachelor of education (BEd), master of education (MEd) and master of arts in education (MA Edu). Table 4.2 shows the qualifications required for enrolling in these programmes, their duration, and the grades that can be taught after being certified.

Table 4.2 Teacher Training Programmes in Pakistan, Mahboob and Talaat, 2008

Training Program	Qualification for Admission	Duration of training	Grade Levels permitted to teach
Primary Teaching Certification (PTC)	Matriculation (Equivalent to American grade 9)	1	1-5
Certificate in Teaching (CT)	Intermediate (Equivalent to American high school)	1	1-7
Bachelor of Science in Education (BSEd)	Intermediate	3	6-10
Bachelor of Education (BEd)	BA/BSc (A bachelor's degree)	1	6-10
Master of Education (MEd)	BEd	1	6-12 and student teachers of PTC, CT and BEd
Master of Arts in Education (M.A Edu)	BA/BSc	2	6-12 and student teachers of PTC, CT and BEd

One of the most striking items shown in Table 4.2 is that average age for a person to receive a matriculation certificate is 16, so after the completion of PTC, a person at age 17 can be hired as a teacher in a government school (Mahboob and Talaat, 2008).

It is important to mention that no research or scholarship is available on Pakistani tertiary teachers' experiences and perceptions about their professional development, nor have any efforts been made in this regard (Chaudary, 2011, p.633). A tertiary educator's role is to ensure continuing professional development to keep faculty vital, productive and working together as a community of learners (Devlin, 2007). Professional development for tertiary teachers refers to the opportunities for teacher training which embodies workshops, meetings and mentoring (Nicholls, 2000). Professional development is characterised as ongoing and long-term, collaborative and context and practice-related (King, 2004).

Referring to Chapter 2, it has been discussed that language policy stated EMI essential for university education but argument built up in this chapter explains that ELT methodology, curriculum, assessment and teacher education are underprovided to prepare

the students for satisfactory postgraduate study. Therefore, as a consequence of such type of previous English language education, students at postgraduate level might experience language problems which can hamper their achievements. Hence, it is important to include a brief discussion about language anxiety and motivation.

4.6 Language anxiety and achievement

It is noted that language anxiety in L2 acquisition has attracted the attention of the language teachers, language learners and researchers. They are interested in the possibility that anxiety inhibits language learning. Spielberger (1983, p.1) defines anxiety as the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. He believes that anxiety negatively influences language learning, it is logical because anxiety has been found to interfere with many types of learning and has been one of the most highly examined variables in all of psychology and education. According to psychologists, there are several categories of anxiety which can be distinguished. Typically, anxiety as a personality trait is differentiated from a transient anxiety state. In other words, trait anxiety is conceptualised as a relatively stable personality characteristic while state anxiety is seen as a response to a particular anxiety-provoking stimulus, such as an important test (Spielberger, 1983). More recently the term situation-specific anxiety has been used to emphasise the persistent and multi-faceted nature of some anxieties (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a).

Scovel (1978) argues that since the various studies used different anxiety measures such as test-anxiety, facilitating-debilitating anxiety, etc., they logically found different types of relationships between anxiety and language achievement. Horwitz (1986, p.128), proposes that a situation-specific anxiety construct which they called Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) was responsible for students' negative emotional reactions to language learning. Because complex and non-spontaneous mental operations are required in order to communicate at all, any performance in L2 is likely to challenge an individual's self-concept as a competent communicator and lead to reticence, self-consciousness, fear or even panic.

Several studies have also noted a negative relationship between language anxiety and outcome measures other than final grades. Trylong (1987) finds a negative relationship between anxiety and teacher ratings of achievement; MacIntyre, Noels and Clé-

ment (1997) observe a negative relationship between anxiety and students' self-ratings of their language proficiency. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) present perhaps the most extensive set of findings with respect to language anxiety. Using measures of both classroom anxiety and language use anxiety, they find significant negative correlations with several language production measures including a cloze test and a composition task. FL (foreign language) learning is based primarily on one's native language learning ability (i.e., language aptitude), students' anxiety about FL learning is likely to be a consequence of their FL learning difficulties, and students' language learning ability is a confounding variable when studying the impact of affective differences (e.g., anxiety, motivation, attitude) on FL learning (Sparks, Ganschow, and Javorsky, 2000, p.251).

Therefore, many researchers have endeavoured to explore various strategies to reduce foreign language anxiety. Koch and Terrell (1991) discuss that Natural Approach classes should be arranged for foreign language learners. Natural Approach is a specifically designed language teaching method to reduce learners' anxiety, as learners were more comfortable participating in some activities, such as pair-work and personalised discussions than others. It is important to keep cultural differences in mind when considering the issue of language anxiety and classroom practice because even within Natural Approach classes, learners can experience anxiety. Fortunately, one study indicates that classroom atmosphere rather than specific instructional activities may decrease student anxiety levels. Palacios (1998) examines the impact of classroom climate on students' levels of foreign language anxiety and found that several components of classroom climate are associated with higher (and lower) levels of anxiety. Teacher support can be defined as the help and friendship the teacher shows towards students; how much the teacher talks openly with students, trusts them and is interested in their ideas (Trickett and Moos, 1995).

Moreover, Kim (1998) explains that the focus of instruction may also impact language anxiety. He finds that students in a conversation class experience higher anxiety levels than students in a reading class. In addition, he also finds that the students tend to experience lower levels of reading anxiety than general foreign language classroom anxiety. Thus, in addition to contributing to our understanding of second language achievement, language anxiety is fundamental to our understanding of how

learners approach language learning, their expectations for success or failure and ultimately why they continue or discontinue study.

4.6.1 Motivation and language acquisition

Dornyei (1998, p.117) considers that motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second/foreign language (L2) learning (Gardner, 1985). Even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals without sufficient motivation, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement (Dornyei, 1998, p.118; Spolsky, 1999). Gardner and Lambert originated this work in 1972 when they suggested that high motivation can compensate for substantial deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions. Dornyei (1996a) points out that the motivation theories in general are used to explain the fundamental question of why humans behave as they do. Furthermore, motivation to learn L2 presents a complex and unique situation even within motivational psychology, due to the multifaceted nature and roles of language itself. He (1998, p.118) believes, language is at the same time a communication coding system, an integral part of the individual's identity involved in almost all mental activities; and also the most important channel of social organisation embedded in the culture of the community where it is used. Therefore, the motivational basis of language attainment also involves the development of some sort of L2 identity and the incorporation of elements from the L2 culture (Gardner, 1985).

Another group of studies are less concerned with motivation *per se* but rather are descriptive in nature, examining the learners' motivational patterns in a given sociocultural or educational environment (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994a; Fotos, 1994; Oxford and Shearin, 1994, 1996; Schmidt, Boraie and Kassabgy, 1996; Skehan, 1989, 1991; Williams and Burden, 1993, 1997). Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p.v) believe that explanations of behaviour have moved away from stimuli and reinforcement contingencies and instead emphasise learners' constructive interpretations of events and the role that their beliefs, cognitions, affects and values play in achievement situations. Therefore, motivation plays a significant role in L2 achievement and involves various mental processes that lead to the initiation and maintenance of action; as they define it, 'motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is in-

stigated and sustained' (1996, p.4). In relation to action control theory an attempt has been to define motivation as, 'a process whereby a certain amount of instigation force arises, initiates action and persists as long as no other force comes into play to weaken it and thereby terminate action, or until the planned outcome has been reached' (Dornyei, 1998, p.118; Heckhausen, 1991; Kuhl, 1987, 1992; Vallerand, 1997).

Gardner's theory (Gardner, 1985, p.6) describes that 'students' attitudes towards the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language'. This means that a foreign language is not a socially neutral field unlike several other school subjects. Williams' words reinforce this proposition:

'Language, after all, belongs to a person's whole social being: it is part of one's identity, and is used to convey this identity to other people. The learning of a foreign language involves far more than simply learning skills, or a system of rules, or a grammar; it involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner' (Williams, 1994, p.77).

Interestingly, Gardner (1985, p.10) defines L2 motivation as 'the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity'. More specifically, motivation is conceptualised to subsume three components, motivational intensity, desire to learn the language and an attitude towards the act of learning the language. Thus, according to Gardner's theory, 'motivation' refers to a kind of central mental 'engine' or 'energy-centre' that subsumes effort, want/will (cognition) and task-enjoyment (affect). Gardner contends, 'my feeling is that such a mixture is necessary to adequately capture what is meant by motivation' (Gardner, 1995, p.100), and 'it is the total configuration that will eventuate in second language achievement' (Gardner, 1985, p.169). In addition, social psychologists assume a directive influence of attitudes on behaviour. Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) argue, the more direct the correspondence between the attitudinal and behavioural targets, the higher the correlation between attitude and action. In other words, attitudes correlate most strongly with behaviour 'when they are assessed at the same level of generality and specificity as the behavioural criterion' (Ajzen, 1996, p.385). Gardner's (1985, p.100) attitude component focuses on the very 'act of learning the language', thus ensuring high predictive capacity. Further, motivation in Gardner's

theory contains integrative or instrumental dichotomy at the orientation (i.e. goal) level, and as such, is not part of the core motivation component. When studying language attitudes, the concept of motives is important. Two basic motives are called instrumental and integrative motives. If L2 acquisition is considered as instrumental, the knowledge in a language is considered as a passport to prestige and success (Ellis, 1991). The speaker/learner considers the speaking/learning of English as functional (Ellis, 1991, p.117). On the other hand, if a learner wishes to identify with the target community; to learn the language and the culture of the speakers of that language in order to perhaps be able to become a member of the group, the motivation is called integrative. Generally, research has proved the integrative motivation to have been more beneficial for the learning of another language (Loveday 1982, p.17-18). On the other hand, Gardner and Lambert (1972), for instance, have found out that where the L2 functions as a second language (i.e. it is used widely in the society), instrumental motivation seems to be more effective. Moreover, motivation derived from a sense of academic or communicative success is more likely to motivate one to speak a foreign/second language (Ellis 1991, p. 118). In fact, the two orientations function merely as motivational antecedents that help to arouse motivation and direct it towards a set of goals, either with a strong interpersonal quality (integrative) or a strong practical quality (instrumental) Dornyei (1994a, 1994b), Gardner (1996), Gardner and MacIntyre (1991), and Gardner and Tremblay (1994a, 1994b).

4.6.2 Model of motivation

Gardner (2007) proposed an effective motivation model that he believed should be considered from the point of view of both the educational context and the cultural context (see Figure 4.2). Regarding cultural context, it is meant that the individual is a member of a particular culture and many features of the individual are influenced by that culture. In the individual, this cultural context is expressed in terms of one's attitudes, beliefs, personality characteristics, ideals, expectations, etc. The educational context refers generally to the educational system in which the student is registered, and specifically to the immediate classroom situation. When considering the educational context, the focus is on the expectations of the system, the quality of the program, the interest, enthusiasm, and skills of the teacher, the adequacy of the materials, the curriculum, the class atmosphere, etc. All of these can influence the student's level of motivation. As shown in Figure 4.2, integrativeness and attitudes toward the learn-

ing situation are expected to have an influence on the individual's level of motivation. The motivation is a multifaceted construct (Gardener, 2007). The motivated individual is goal directed, expends effort, is persistent, is attentive, has desires (wants), exhibits positive affect, is aroused, has expectancies, demonstrates self-confidence (self-efficacy) and has reasons (motives) (Kraemer, 1993; Yashima, 2002).

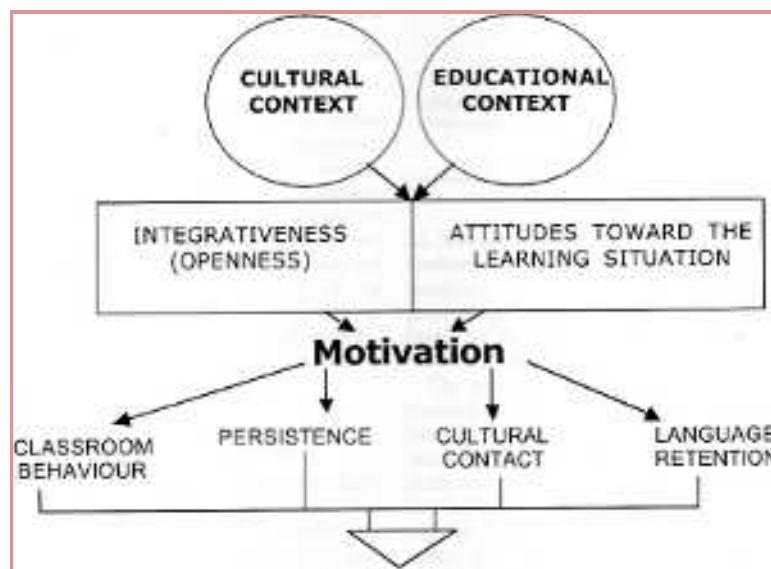


Figure 4.2 Model of motivation, Gardner, 2007, p.14

It is debated previously that second language learners experience language anxiety, therefore, the above presented model of motivation can be helpful to make students confident learners.

In addition, the students can be encouraged to have linguistic self-confidence which can assist them to acquire L2 effectively.

4.6.3 Clement et al.'s (1977) concept of linguistic self-confidence

Over the last two decades, Richard Clement and his colleagues have conducted a series of empirical studies examining the interrelationship between social contextual variables (including ethno linguistic vitality), attitudinal/motivational factors, self-confidence and L2 acquisition/acclturation processes (Clement, 1980; Clement, Dornyei and Noels, 1994; Clement and Kruidenier, 1985; Labrie and Clement, 1986; Noels and Clement, 1996). Self-confidence in general refers to the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals or perform tasks competently. It

appears to be akin to self-efficacy, but is used in a more general sense (i.e. self-efficacy is always task-specific). Linguistic self-confidence was first introduced in the L2 literature by Clement et al. (1977), and can be described as 'self-perceptions of communicative competence and concomitant low levels of anxiety in using the second language' (Noels et al. 1996, p.248). The concept was originally used to describe a powerful mediating process in multi-ethnic settings that affects a person's motivation to learn and use the language of the other speech community. Thus, linguistic self-confidence in Clement's view is primarily a socially defined construct. In short, it is argued that anxiety inhibits second language learning, so understanding of language anxiety contributes to L2 achievement.

Thus, Chapter 4 discusses the current state of English language teaching in Pakistan. It also explores English language curriculum, teaching methodology and assessment used in western educational context and Pakistan. It is viewed that English language curriculum is inadequate in needs analysis, situational analysis and intended learning outcomes of the students. Moreover, the curriculum is designed and implemented in such a way that it does not develop students' ability for academic rationalism, critical thinking and cultural pluralism. It is believed that bilingual education (BE) with code switching (CS) is preferably used. The most popular method used for teaching is translation method (GTM) which does not effectively develop communicative and creative skills.

The students rather than working on their English language skills consume their time in rote learning to pass the examinations. The information about the achievement of learners is obtained through the stereotyped questions set in the examination, therefore, it is realised that testing does not adequately assess reflective and critical faculties. The language acquisition theories propound that foreign language anxiety (FLA) acts as a hindrance in students' achievements and anxious language learners feel uncomfortable with their abilities even if their objective abilities are good. It is considered that motivation can speed up second/foreign language (L2) learning.

It is observed that many English teachers required pedagogical skills to teach English proficiently and professionally. English language teacher education programmes are not adequately receptive to the demands of teachers and learners. Hence, the debate in this chapter has been used to raise questions about the use of EMI in a university

classroom. How is it being used in curriculum, methodology and assessment? The research questions which are constructed using the literature in this chapter are: ‘what are students’ opinions about using English language in universities?’ and ‘what are teachers’ views about using English language for teaching and interactive purposes in universities?’ The literature is also accommodating to erect questions about post-graduate students’ language learning difficulties and anxiety arising from EMI in universities.

CHAPTER 5. METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction: Questions

The study has been carefully tailored to investigate the research questions (see Chapter 1, p.20). The research questions have been constructed to discover the perceptions of the policy and practice of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in Pakistani universities. Based on the identification of issues related to the linguistic profile of Pakistan, the spread and status of English, the education policies of the government of Pakistan regarding medium of instruction, and the English language teaching practices at University level, the research examines their views.

In order to explore these research issues, appropriate methods and methodology were thoughtfully selected to allow for a variety of data for analysis. Figure 5.1 illustrates that this study encompasses a mixed-method approach which comprises qualitative and quantitative methods in order to have ample data. Chapter 5 describes the research design and the steps involved in the construction of the research tools, the structure of the questionnaire and the focus group interview, study sample, selection of academic programmes, generation and collection of the data, process and analysis of the numerical data, the choice of the data exemplars, the clustering of main themes and the ethics procedures.

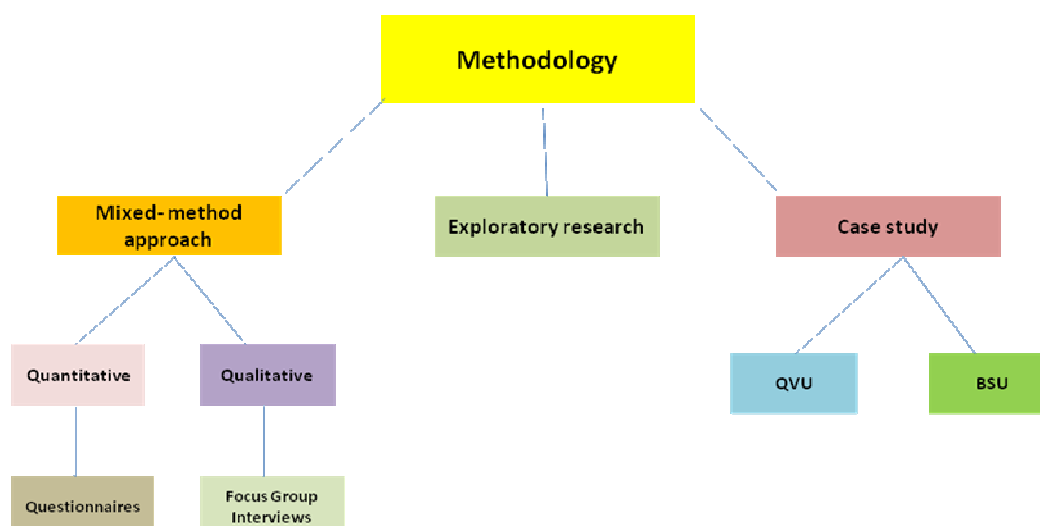


Figure 5.1 Methodology used in the research

5.2 Research Design

As said previously, the research undertakes a mixed-method approach to collect data which means that quantitative and qualitative methods are triangulated to explore the perceptions of the postgraduate students and their teachers about the policy and practice of English medium of instruction in universities. Morrison (2007, p.31) notes that there are strengths in the mixed methods approach because different methods can reinforce each other to create a complete research picture, generalisability for qualitative research is facilitated, better links between micro and macro levels of analysis can be achieved, and a suitable emphasis for different stages of the research can be supported. Creswell (1994, cited by Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003, p.443) describes the three categories of mixed methods approach:

- ❖ Triangulation design when quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously to validate the findings.
- ❖ Explanatory design when quantitative data is first collected and analysed and then followed up and refined by qualitative data
- ❖ Exploratory design when qualitative data is collected in the first phase and its findings used to give direction to quantitative data which is used to extend the qualitative analysis.

Building upon the above discussion, it is established that this research is also exploratory because quantitative data extends qualitative data which is found to be more helpful to discover perceptions about the policy and practice of EMI (see Figure 5.1). Johnson and Christensen (2004, p.30) state, 'a research is often exploratory and is used when a little is known about a certain topic'. In addition, another significant feature of this research design is that it is a case study as it compares the quantitative and qualitative findings of two public universities and analyses the similarities and differences of opinions and perceptions of participants (see Figure 5.1). Johnson and Christensen (2004, p.376) define the case study as the 'research that provides a detailed account and analysis of one or more cases'. Despite the fact that a case study has a few limitations, for instance, it can be influenced by the researcher's bias and the results cannot be generalised (Cohen et al., 2007, p.255; Drew et al., 2008, p.43; Gray, 2004), it is used in this research for some strong reasons which are as follows:

- ❖ It provides examples of people working in real life situations, and it is easy to interpret ideas easily from their views rather than presenting them in relation to theories (McDonough and McDonough, 1997, p.217). The participants in this research are from two public universities located in Lahore (see 5.8).
- ❖ Its focus is on individuals, therefore, ‘it sees the situation through the eyes of the participants’ (Cohen et al., 2007, p.253).
- ❖ It provides a detailed account of the problem and suggests solutions or practical implications (Freebody, 2003, p.83).
- ❖ It helps to understand important aspects of the research so that they can be conceptualised for further study (Punch, 2009, p.123).

Thus, the research consists of triangulation so uses questionnaires and focus group interviews as research instruments to investigate the research themes. Besides the motive of perceiving the views, another worth mentioning explanation, for not relying on one method is that perceptions cannot be considered with any degree of absolute certainty using questionnaires, therefore, focus group interviews were also audio-recorded to examine the views, opinions and beliefs about EMI in Pakistani universities. The questionnaires present adequate empirical evidence about research issues and the information collected from focus groups is used to reflect profoundly on those themes. It is certainly useful to discuss briefly a few salient features of both methods in order to provide the necessary justification for using these methods in this study. The areas to investigate are the need of English for higher education, satisfactory employment, acquiring liberal values, improving social status and travelling abroad. It explores participants’ attitudes towards using English for reading, assessment, classroom discussion and social interaction. Simultaneously, it looks at the participants’ opinions about employing the national language and regional languages for explaining lectures, reading, communication and co-curricular activities in universities. The study is also concerned to probe into the language problems the postgraduate students undergo as outcomes of varieties of English.

Concerning generalisability of data, it is necessary to mention that the data of this research pertains to particular universities in a particular area of Pakistan and may, therefore, not be generalisable.

5.3 Quantitative Research

I wanted to collect quantitative data because Vogt (1999, p.152) explains that quantitative research design is a process of controlling variables with a view to testing in an objective manner some theory or set of hypotheses about a process or relationship in ways that are deemed to be externally and internally valid. Accordingly, Muijs (2004, p.121) believes that five concepts are especially important with respect to quantitative research approaches, which are variable, objectivity, testing of theory and hypotheses, statistics and statistical significance and validity of the study. All these concepts are used in this study. The term 'variable' is used to describe those things that can change or vary within the context or scope of the research (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004, p.64; May, 1997, p.101; Pallant, 2007). In addition, the researcher during field study and analysis tried to maintain objectivity which has to do with suspending values and assumptions about possible causes and outcomes, and eliminating passions, feelings and wishes that might render research findings invalid (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004, p.65).

5.3.1 Research instrument: Questionnaires

The researcher chose questionnaires as an instrument as it is a tool for the 'collection of data and its function is measurement' (Oppenheim, 1992, p.100). A well designed questionnaire can provide keen insights into how participants think and perceive the situation (Bernard, 2000; Reid, 2003) – in this case the concepts of participants of universities BSU and QVU. No wonder that the questionnaire has become one of the most popular research instruments applied in the social sciences (Dornyei, 2010, p.1). It is a very useful data gathering instrument to survey opinions and attitudes (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000). It reflects the participants' level of agreement in a positive or negative direction (Procter, 1992). This is feasible in terms of the researcher's time and effort because s/he can collect data in a relatively short time (Gillham, 2008; Robson, 1994).

The questionnaires of the current study have been designed to include three categories of questions. According to Dornyei (2010, p.5), the three types of data about the respondents obtainable from questionnaires are: factual, behavioural and attitudinal. The factual questions I asked were about the demographic characteristics, for example age, gender, mother tongue and level of education that provided the background in-

formation relevant to interpreting the findings of the survey. The behavioural questions I asked were used to find out what the respondents are doing or have done in the past. They typically ask about people's actions, lifestyles, habits and personal history (Dornyei, 2010). The attitudinal questions I asked were meant to explore people's thoughts. This is a broad category that concerns attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests and values (Aiken, 1996). The questionnaires of the current study have been designed to include the above mentioned three categories of questions.

Although a questionnaire can have closed or open questions, this study has used only closed questions and a likert scale. A closed questionnaire is one in which the respondents are offered a choice of alternative options (Oppenheim, 1992, p.112). Moore (2000, p.109) asserts, 'the closed questions are easy to complete and analyse. They can be used to obtain uncomplicated information'. Dornyei (2010, p.26) also believes that 'coding and tabulation of close-ended questions is straightforward and leaves no room for rater subjectivity'. However, the closed questionnaire restricts the freedom of respondents by giving them no choice to develop their answers. Questionnaires have some serious limitations as Gillham (2008, p.1) points out, in research 'no single method has been so much abused' as questionnaires. Some disadvantages are simplicity and superficiality of answers, unreliable and unmotivated respondents, literacy problems, no opportunity to correct the respondents' mistakes, social desirability bias and self-deception (Dornyei, 2010, p.7-9). It is also an established fact that careful and creative questionnaire can result in an instrument that motivates people to give relatively truthful and thoughtful answers (Aiken, 1997, p.58).

5.3.2 Construction of the questionnaires

In this study, two questionnaires were constructed for M.A Education students and the university teachers and the researcher attempted to follow the rules about writing items (see Appendix A). Both questionnaires were prepared in English and are of reasonable length. My questionnaires took 30 minutes to be completed. Dornyei (2010, p.13) points out that only in exceptional cases a questionnaire should be more than four pages long and take more than 30 minutes to complete. The construction of a questionnaire involves a few general features which are length, lay out, writing effective items/ questions and drawing up an item pool, selecting and sequencing the items, writing appropriate instructions and examples, translating the questionnaire into a tar-

get language, anonymity and piloting the questionnaire and conducting item analysis (Clement et al., 1994; Kearney et al., 1984; Oppenheim, 1992, p.104-105). The main parts of a questionnaire are the title, instructions, specific instructions and questionnaire items (Aldridge and Levine, 2001; Dornyei, 2010, p. 40-44).

I have aimed for short and simple items, used simple and natural language, avoided ambiguous or loaded words and sentences and avoided items that are likely to be answered the same way by everybody. Moreover, both questionnaires have used Likert scale which means that each response option can be assigned a number for scoring purposes (e.g., strongly disagree = 1, strongly agree = 5). According to Dornyei, (2010, p.27), Likert scale is the most commonly used scaling technique which has been named after its inventor, Rensis Likert. Likert scales consist of a series of statements which are related to a particular target; respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with these items by marking (e.g., circling) one of the responses ranging from 'strongly agree to strongly disagree'. Likert scales are multi-item scales, following a summative model. These scales also use response options representing the degree of agreement (Aiken, 1996). For example, this standard set of responses (i.e., strongly agree–strongly disagree) can be easily replaced by other descriptive terms that are relevant to the target (i.e., always–never) (Tseng et al., 2006).

Questionnaire 1 was designed for M.A Education students. It consisted of 53 closed questions. The first 6 questions cover demographic and behavioural information about the participants. These questions are about their gender, age, mother tongue, qualifications, medium of instruction and Education as an elective subject at the Bachelor level. The questionnaire includes are two types of Likert scales. First Likert scale starts with 'strongly agree' and ends with 'strongly disagree'. It consists of 42 questions. On the other hand, second scale initiates with 'always' and ends on 'never'. This scale is used for 5 questions. The questions have been constructed to measure postgraduate students' perceptions of English as a medium of instruction, importance of English, uses of English, impact of English as the medium of instruction (EMI) and Pakistani English (PakE).

Questionnaire 2 was constructed for university teachers who are engaged to teach chosen M.A Education programmes in the two public sector universities which I had selected for survey. It consisted of 33 closed questions. The first 7 questions require demographic and behavioural information about teachers such as gender, age, mother tongue, language used for teaching M.A Education students, qualifications, designation and teaching experience. Likewise, Questionnaire 2 also uses two types of Likert scale. Likert scale initiating with ‘strongly disagree’ and ending with ‘strongly agree’ has 19 questions. The other above mentioned scale comprises 7 questions. In the same way, Questionnaire 2 also deals with university teachers’ perceptions of above stated research themes.

In addition, the question items in part 2 of both questionnaires were arranged randomly. The purpose was to enable the participants to fill in the questionnaires thoughtfully. The diagrammatic representation of research themes is included in section 5.4 (see Figures 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6 and 5.7).

5.4 Clustering main themes

The main themes of research relate to the question clusters asking the M.A Education students and the university staff’s about their perceptions of the policy and practice of EMI, importance of English for work and study, the various uses of English and the type of English being used in Pakistani universities.

5.4.1 Themes related to the importance of English

Figure 5.2 illustrates themes related to the importance of English, suggesting that English is integrated with the economic, social and educational panorama in Pakistan. More importantly, it supports a link between the needs of people for acquiring English and the status of English in Pakistan. Pakistanis require English for higher education, broadened outlook, jobs and travelling abroad. Therefore, the study supports the idea that English is an obligation for the future development of the nation.

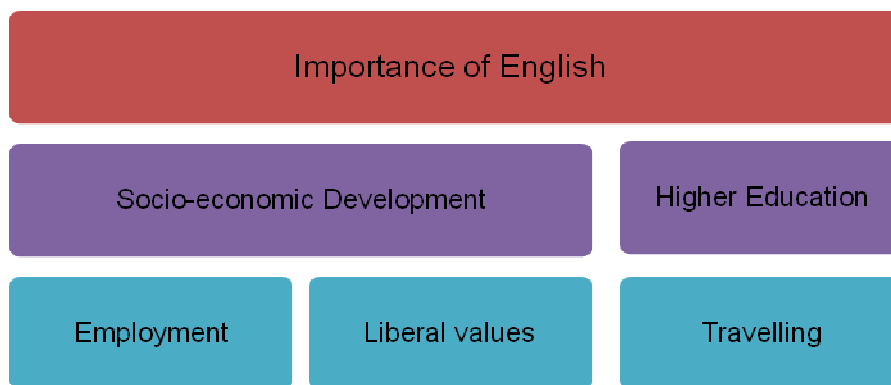


Figure 5.2 Themes in participants' views about the status of English in Pakistan

5.4.2 Themes related to postgraduate students' perceptions about the uses of English

Figure 5.3 shows the themes emerging from the postgraduate students' perceptions about the formal and informal uses of English in universities. They make the most of English for resources, such as reading and information technology, classroom discussion, assessment, co-curricular activities and social interaction.

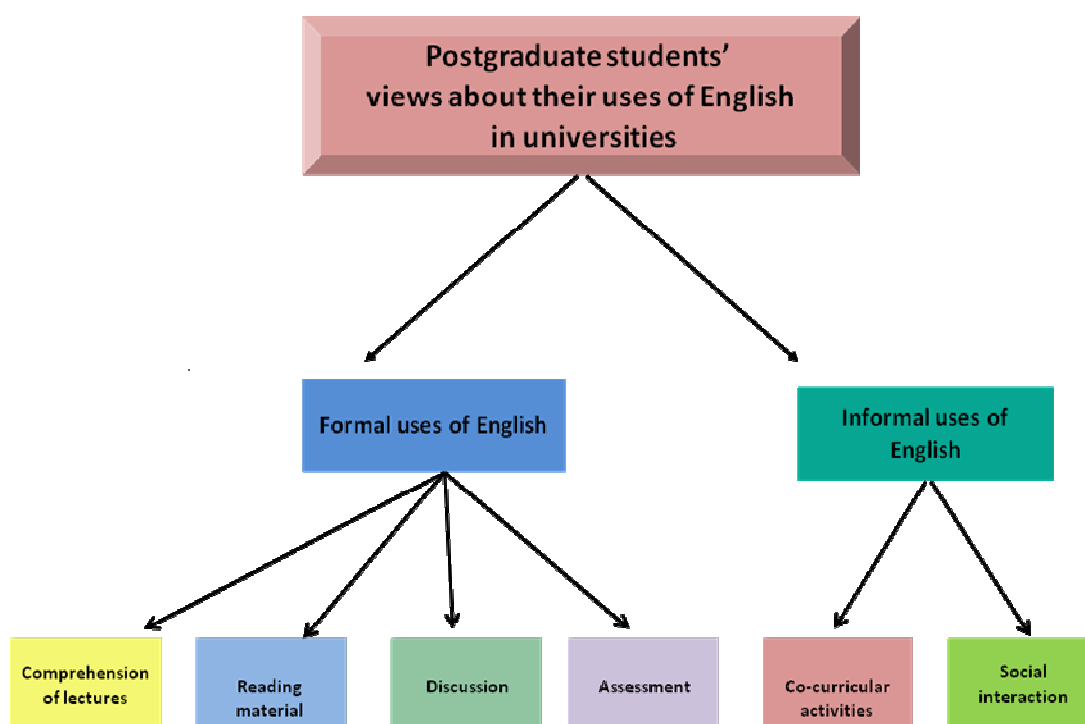


Figure 5.3 Themes emerging from postgraduate students' perceptions about their uses of English

5.4.3 Themes emerging from university teachers' views about their uses of English

The questions explored to what extent university teachers use English language for delivering lectures, reading books and journals, discussion, examinations and informal conversation in university. Figure 5.4 presents the themes emerging from teachers' opinions about their uses of English in universities.

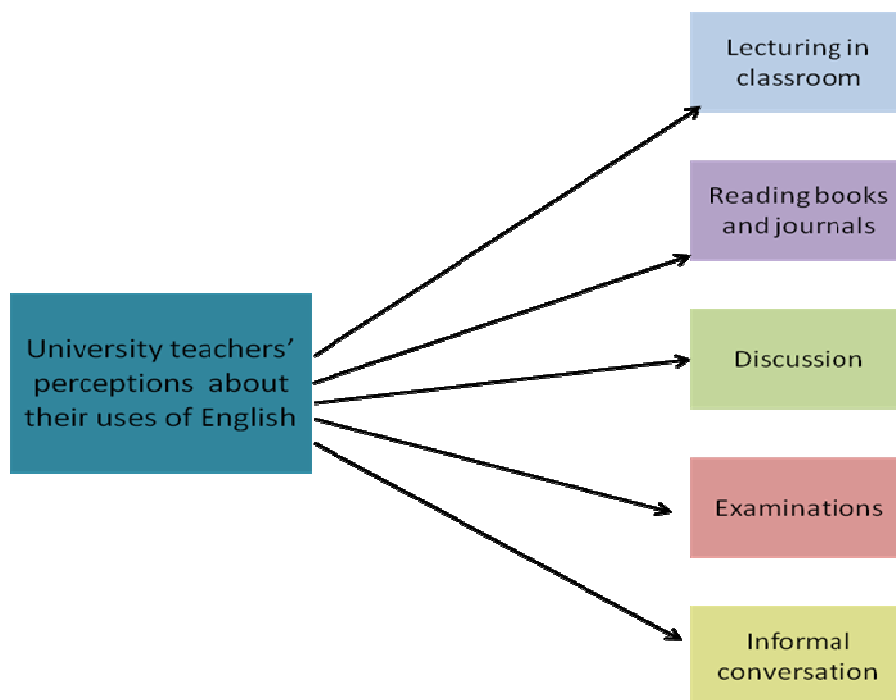


Figure 5.4 Themes emerging from the university teachers' perceptions of their uses of English

5.4.4 Emerging themes related to perceptions of language problems arising from English medium of instruction

Figure 5.5 illustrates the perceived language problems associated with EMI. The arrows point to the four skills, linking anxiety with speaking, examination stress with writing and comprehension difficulties with listening and reading.



Figure 5.5 Language problems' themes emerging from perceptions of English medium of instruction in universities



Figure 5.6 Perceived language problems related to varieties of English

Figure 5.6 indicates the perceived issues related to varieties of World English, pronunciation and spellings etc.

5.4.5 Emerging themes in perceptions about Pakistani English (PakE)

The questionnaire included questions investigating university teachers and students' views about Pakistani English (PakE). Figure 5.7 shows emerging themes from perceptions towards Pakistani English and its development in Pakistan.

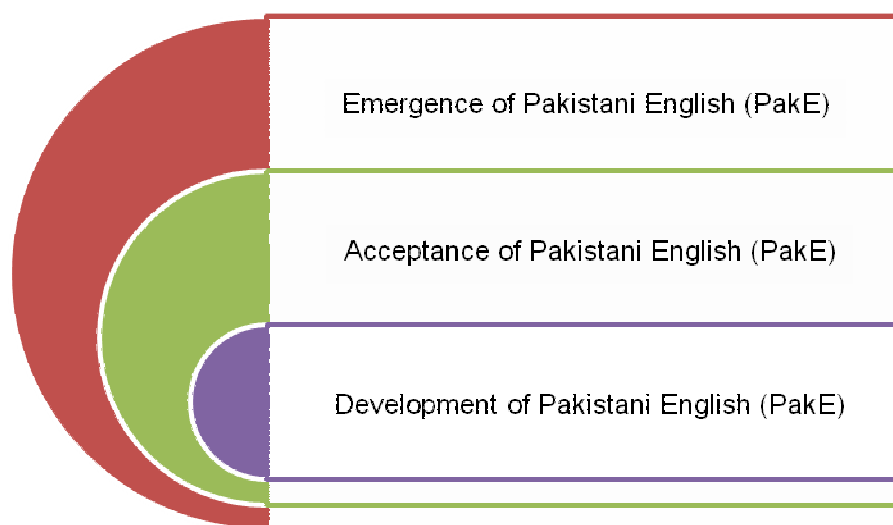


Figure 5.7 Emerging themes in the perceptions of Pakistani English (PakE)

5.5 Qualitative Research

The preceding argument shows that the quantitative tool is exploratory (see 5.3). Muijs (2004) asserts quantitative methods are rather shallow for the exploration of the problem in depth. I complemented this approach with qualitative research which is equated with those methods or data gathering techniques which generate narrative as opposed to numerical data (Knafl and Howard, 1984, p.17). It refers to the complex array of perspectives and techniques that have grown out of the diverse theories and disciplines (Mason, 1996, p.3; Schwandt, 1998; Walford, 2001). The qualitative research involves obtaining a holistic picture of what goes on in a particular situation or setting and involves exploratory description and analysis (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000, p.23). Chenail (1995, p.7) believes that qualitative research is the practice of asking simple questions and getting complex answers. The art of managing both the simplic-

ity and the complexity is the real secret to being successful at conducting qualitative inquiries (Bloomer and Wray, 2006).

5.5.1 Research instrument: Focus Group Interview

The exploratory research issues can be more effectively and carefully delved into by focus group discussions, therefore, along with empirical evidence the study attempts to interpret the causes of observed behaviour by taking information from focus group interviews which are particularly more valuable for examining people's attitudes, thoughts, feelings, perceptions, opinions and beliefs in depth and are able to give insights into the reasons behind their perceived behaviour. The purpose of the focus group interview is to supplement and reinforce the data collected through a questionnaire (Cresswell, 2005). Watts and Ebbutt (1987) argue that a focus group interview is useful for people who work together for some time or have a common purpose. In the focus group interviews, I carried out face-to-face discussions with M.A Education students and university teachers. A focus group interview 'forces people to consider how they feel about research issues in the light of other people's feelings' (Moore, 2000, p.124). It is an economical way to gather a relatively large amount of qualitative data (Dornyei, 2010). The essence is 'interaction between different members of the group, seeing how people moderate their views, react to different perspectives and manage their interactions' (Moore, 2000, p.126). Whatever the type of interview, researcher needs to think carefully about what makes a good interview question before beginning interview data collection. Good quality interview questions are 'unambiguous, one-question questions, non-leading and culturally sensitive and ethically informed' (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004, p.202). In comparison with the questionnaire, a focus group interview is time consuming regarding any analysis of data. However, an interview provides rich information and thus can be used beneficially in conjunction with a questionnaire (Gay et al., 2010).

5.5.2 Construction of focus group interviews

The researcher constructed questions for two focus group interviews; one for the M.A Education students and the other for university teachers (see Appendix B). As discussed above, the questionnaires were structured in relation to uses of English in universities, status of English and the consequences of EMI in universities and Pakistani English (PakE). The focus group interview questions reflect deeply on those issues.

The focus group discussion questions have been divided into two parts. Part A questions sought to obtain demographic and behavioural information about the participants, such as, gender, age, mother tongue, Education as an elective subject and medium of instruction for M.A Education students and demographic and behavioural questions for university teachers were related to their age, gender, mother tongue, qualifications, designation, teaching experience and medium of instruction used for teaching.

Part B allowed exhaustive investigation of the research issues. The first question in both M.A Education students and university teachers' focus group interviews was about language problems regarding EMI and the use of Urdu in classroom. The following remaining same questions are as:

- ❖ How do you think that multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity influence implementation of an effective language policy in Pakistan?
 - (a) What is the role of regional languages in Pakistan?
 - (b) Why do you think that English is essential for future development of Pakistan?
- ❖ Do you believe that varieties of English in Pakistan confuse you?
 - (a) Do you think that Pakistani English is an acceptable variety to be used for instruction and assessment purposes in universities?
 - (b) What problems might be encountered if we come up with Pakistani English?

I conducted 2 focus group discussions of university teachers teaching selected Masters in Education programmes and 2 of M.A Education first year students in two public universities (QVU and BSU). In QVU, Faculty of Research and Assessment participated in the discussion whereas in the other university Faculty of Masters of Arts in Education took part in the focus group interviews. As MAE1 students expressed their unwillingness to participate in focus group interviews, I requested their teachers in this regard. Their teachers selected students from Masters in Business Education (MBE) in QVU and from Masters in Educational Management and Leadership (MEML) in BSU. The students of these programmes were academically better than the other programmes. The university teachers' discussions comprised 5 or 6 partici-

pants and MAE1's focus group interviews had 6 participants in each group. Each focus group interview was recorded for an hour.

The procedure was that when a trusting relationship was established with the participants, they were willing to provide necessary information about the research subject. Moreover, the researcher explicitly explained the purpose of the research and answered the interviewees' queries. The ratio of MAE1 students in both recordings was 3:3; on the other hand the ratio of university teachers in QVU and BSU was 3:2 and 4:2 respectively. It is worth mentioning that highly qualified university staff participated in the focus group interviews.

Besides many similar questionnaires' themes (see 5.4), some other interesting themes of the focus group interviews further enriched the discussion. These themes are as follows:

- ❖ Discussion about the influences on language policies in Pakistan, such as, multilingualism, multiculturalism and ethnicity.
- ❖ The role and status of regional languages in Pakistan
- ❖ Pedagogical dilemmas
- ❖ Language anxiety and motivation
- ❖ Teacher education
- ❖ Characteristics of Pakistani English (PakE)

5.6 Piloting

It is very important to pre-test a questionnaire on a small number of people in what is called a pilot study (Walliman, 2005; Wisker, 2001). It is best to test it on people for whom the sample is intended so as to anticipate any problems of comprehension or other sources of confusion (Leedy, 1989; Hague, 1993). It is important to pilot the questionnaire because a pilot has several functions, mainly to increase the reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaire (Oppenheim, 1992). Sudman and Bradburn (1983, p.283) assert, 'if you do not have the resources to pilot-test your questionnaire, don't do the study'. Cohen et al. (2007, p.341) asserts, there are some vital aspects which should be carefully checked through piloting the questionnaire before proceeding to main data collection stage, such as clarity of the questionnaire

items, feedback on the validity of the questionnaire items, elimination of ambiguities or difficulties in wording, checking the readability levels for the target audience and identification of omissions, redundancy and irrelevant items (Brown, 2001; Dornyei, 2010, p.53; Morrison, 1993). The pilot is required to receive feedback on the type of question, on leading questions, on the attractiveness and appearance of the questions, on the layout, sectionalising, numbering and itemisation of the questionnaire (Youngman, 1984, p.172). In addition, through piloting, time for completion of the questionnaire can be recorded (Dornyei, 2007). It is also useful to assess the difficulty level of the questionnaire and identification of commonly misunderstood or non-completed items (Kgaile and Morrison, 2006; Verma and Mallick, 1999, p.120). Further, piloting can also indicate problems or potential pitfalls concerning the administration of the questionnaire and the scoring and processing of the answers. Oppenheim (1992, p.48) remarks:

‘The questionnaires do not emerge fully-fledged; they have to be created or adapted, fashioned and developed to maturity after many abortive test flights. In fact, every aspect of a survey has to be tried out beforehand to make sure that it works as intended’.

Thus, valuable feedback can also be gained about the overall appearance of the questionnaire, the clarity of the instructions, the appropriateness of the cover letter, and the length of time necessary to complete the instrument (Dornyei, 2010, p.54). In the current study, the researcher obtained the ethical approval for the pilot study and conducted it prior to the main study. The questionnaires were sent to a public university located in Lahore in July, 2010.

5.6.1 Administration of questionnaires

The questionnaires were administered to participants in exactly the same way as it were administered in the main study. For the pilot phase, the questionnaires were distributed and collected by a third party-the same person did this in each location to ensure consistency. The proxy was known to the administration at both universities but had no dependent relationship to the people being invited to participate.

5.6.2 Time for the completion of questionnaire

Time for the completion of questionnaire was recorded and decided whether it is reasonable for the main study. For pilot stage, 45 minutes were given to participants to

fill the questionnaires but it was noted that participants were able to complete them within 30 minutes. Therefore, time was reduced from 45 minutes to 30 minutes for both university teachers and students' questionnaires.

5.6.3 Identification of ambiguities and revision of questions

The responses were checked to eliminate any ambiguity discovered in the questions to ensure validity and reliability of the data. The participants were asked to identify ambiguities and difficult questions by appropriate feedback. It was discovered in the pilot stage that they were unable to distinguish one question i.e. Q.28 from other i.e. Q.29. These are given below:

- ❖ English languages courses must be included in M.A Education to improve students' communicative ability in English language. (Q.28)
- ❖ English language teaching courses must be included in M.A Education syllabus. (Q.29)

As a result of confusion which arose because participants could not distinguish question 28 from question 29, it was decided to omit question 29 to avoid confusion in the main study. Therefore, some questions were thoroughly revised. Those questions which were not answered as expected were rephrased or rescaled. It was checked that all questions were answered. It was established that replies could be interpreted in terms of required information. It was assessed whether the questionnaire gave an adequate range of responses. Finally, the responses of questions were checked and percentages were calculated. It is significantly noted that responses of all questions except one question (Q.29 in students' questionnaire) were in accordance with the required information of the main study.

5.7 Validity and reliability of research instruments

The research strives to ensure validation and reliability of research instruments and data outcomes. Simply, validity means that it is important to know when any measurement is made that it measures what it is intended to measure. In recent years, validity has been defined as referring to the 'appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the specific inferences researchers make based on the data they collect' (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000, p.131). Validation is the process of collecting evidence to support such conclusions (Brown, 2001; Walliman, 2005). The inferences which

are drawn from instruments are validated and not the instruments. There are two types of validity: internal and external. Internal validity refers to the extent to which the study and its findings are 'accurate' and 'truthful' (Creswell, 2005; Kahn and Best, 2010). External validity involves judging the extent to which findings can be extended to other similar populations, conditions and settings (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004, p.67).

Thus, it is important for the researcher to ensure the validity of research instruments, because the inferences s/he draws are based on the data collected from these instruments (Cohen et al., 2007, p.133). The issue of validity about the questionnaire is not easily determined. It is important that the questionnaire must be freed of ambiguity and must accurately reflect the issues being explored. Ideally, pre-testing is useful with a follow-up focus group interview to see whether the outcomes of the questionnaire are matched by the outcomes from the interview (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000, p.176). The study has attempted to follow these beliefs.

Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.19) believe that the other pertinent aspect of measurement is reliability, which is very important in education. In order to measure the reliability of a questionnaire, it is designed carefully, is of reasonable length and given to a large sample under normal circumstances, which encourages participants to be honest and sensible in their responses about research issues (Creswell, 2005). The current study endeavours to adhere to these principles.

5.8 Ethical considerations

Cavan (1977, p.810) defines ethics as, 'a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others. Being ethical limits the choices we can make in the pursuit of truth. Ethics say that while truth is good, respect for human dignity is better'. Bell (1991) provided a checklist for ethics which proposed as soon as the researcher has an agreed project outline, s/he should carry out the investigation through clear official channels by formally requesting permission. It is necessary to speak to the people, who will be asked to co-operate; to submit the project outline to the head; to decide what is meant by anonymity and confidentiality; to inform participants what is to be done with the information they provide; to prepare an outline of intentions and conditions under which the study will be carried out to hand to the participants; to be honest about the purpose

of the study and about the conditions of the research. Thus negotiating access is an important stage in investigation.

Thus, the purpose of ethics in research is to recognise the responsibilities of the researcher. There are so many ethical considerations which are to be carefully observed, so s/he has to be mindful of the ethical issues arising before, during and after the completion of the research. In United Kingdom, 'The Data Protection Act' regulates the need to ensure consent for collecting data (Dornyei, 2007). The proposed research was supervised by the School of Education, University of Glasgow. Two ethics applications were submitted to obtain permission from the ethics committee. The first application was required to obtain an ethical approval letter for piloting the questionnaires and the second application sought out permission from the ethics committee to conduct the main study. The letters for piloting and the main field study were received on 14th July, 2010 and 1st September, 2010 in that order (see Appendices I & J).

It is important to work through the *informed consent* of the participants to avoid risk to research participants (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992). Informed consent has been defined by Diener and Crandall (1978) as the procedures in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions. Further, Bell (1996, p.42) advises, 'permission to carry out an investigation must always be sought at an early stage. It is advisable to make a formal, written approach to the individuals and organization concerned, outlining plans.' This definition involves four elements: competence, voluntarism, full information and comprehension (Cohen et al., 2000, p.51). The researcher obtained permission letters in May, 2010 from the administration of two Pakistani universities where the field study was carried out. The researcher also received *consent forms* from the participants before they filled in the questionnaires (see Appendix H).

The purpose of the study has been explained in the plain language statement of the ethical form (see Appendix G) and was explained to the subjects at the outset. It is stated that the research and its ethical consequences will be seen from the participants' and institution's point of view. The plain language statement ascertains that research benefits the participants and will not harm the participants and possible con-

controversial findings will be handled with great sensitivity. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) describe the conflict between the right to research and acquire knowledge and the right of individual research participants to self-determination, privacy and dignity. The participants were informed that their dignity and privacy will be respected and they were also entitled to exercise their rights to withdraw at any stage of the research. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) believe that the obligation to protect the *anonymity* of research participants and to keep research data confidential is all-inclusive. Thus, it was ensured in the current study for complete and total anonymity in the study for respondents while filling questionnaire should not write names, addresses, occupational details or coding system.

Cohen et al. (2000, p.61) assert, a participant or subject is considered anonymous when the researcher or another person cannot identify the participant or subject from the information provided. The anonymity of the participants had been ensured for the questionnaire as well as for interviews. They further believe ‘the essence of anonymity is that information provided by participants should in no way reveal their identity’ (Cohen et al., 2000, p.61). In addition, the researcher endeavoured to ensure the anonymity of universities as well (see 5.9). Thus, another way of protecting a participant’s right to privacy is through the promise of *confidentiality*. This means that although researchers know who has provided the information, they will not reveal connection publically (Kimmel, 1988; Gay et al., 2010). The researcher maintained confidentiality regarding the information collected from the participants. More importantly, the collected data was locked away after findings were established and a secure password was used to access it on computer. It was assured in the ethics application that on the completion of the research, the data will be destroyed. In short, the researcher obtained informed consent, avoided deception, minimised intrusion, ensured confidentiality, minimised risk of harm, demonstrated respect and avoided coercion or manipulation (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004, p.103).

5.9 Recruitment of population in the research

The study involved the participation of M.A Education (MAE1) first year students and university teachers who were engaged to teach M.A Education programmes at Queen Victoria University (QVU) and Bulle Shah University (BSU). The participants had diverse socio-economic, linguistic, educational and ethnic backgrounds. Queen

Victoria University's (QVU) School of Education offers nine Masters' programmes in Education but the researcher required the voluntary participation of M.A Education students' from seven programmes which are Masters in Elementary Education, Early Childhood Education, Secondary Education, Science Education and Educational Research and Assessment, Masters in Business Education and Masters in Technology Education. The researcher did not invite participants from other two programmes such as Masters in Islamic Education as it exclusively uses Urdu as the medium of instruction for many courses and similarly M.A English Language Teaching (ELT) uses only English as the medium of instruction (EMI). She invited the whole cohort of students on selected programmes for voluntary participation in her research. Their number was 226. These programmes had been selected because they are using both Urdu and English language for instruction and assessment.

On the other hand, Bulle Shah University (BSU) offers only three Masters programmes in Education which are, MEd (Master of Education), Master of Leadership and Management in Education and Masters of Arts in Education, thus she invited all students (Morning and Evening Groups) for voluntary participation in research. The total number of students was 225. These programmes are using both Urdu and English mediums of instruction for classroom teaching.

As far as, the faculty is concerned, the researcher invited all those teachers who were teaching M.A Education in Queen Victoria University (selected programmes) and Bulle Shah University for voluntary participation. The 17 teachers of QVU and 18 teachers of BSU participated in quantitative research. Thus, 451 M.A Education students filled in the questionnaire specifically designed for them and 35 teachers who were engaged to teach M.A Education programmes in both universities also filled in the questionnaire constructed for them. The breakdown of the sample size for questionnaires is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Sample size for questionnaires

Research Sites	M.A Education students	University Teachers
QVU	226	17
BSU	225	18
Total	451	35

After M.A Education students and teachers from both universities filled in the questionnaires, they were invited to participate in focus group interviews. The 6 participants from each university for each focus interview had been selected randomly from those who volunteered to take part in questionnaires. The researcher audio recorded two focus group interviews of 11 university teachers (6 from BSU and 5 from QVU) and two focus group interviews of 6 students from each university (12 M.A Education students) (see Table 5.2). Thus, there were 6 informants in each recording except QV teachers' recording consisted of 5 participants.

Table 5.2 Sample size for focus group interviews

Research Sites	M.A Education students	University Teachers
QVU	6	5
BSU	6	6
Total	12	11

5.9 Profile of Pakistani universities used for field study

The research data was collected from two public sector universities located in Lahore. The imaginary names are Queen Victoria University and Bulle Shah University. The universities have been identified by acronyms QVU and BSU respectively to ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of participants and institutes (see 5.7).

5.10 Procedure for field study

After attainment of ethical approval for the field study from the Ethics Committee, University of Glasgow (see Appendix I), the researcher travelled to Pakistan to collect the data and the fieldwork was carried out from 18th September to 15th December,

2010. During the field study, she invited the whole cohort of M.A Education first year (MAE1) students from chosen programmes. The plain language statement was attached with the questionnaires explaining the purpose of the study (see Appendix F). It also contained the required information for the participants. The participants of QUV and BSU read the plain language statement and signed the consent forms before filling in the questionnaires (see Appendices G & H). They were allowed 30 minutes to fill in the questionnaires. Six participants from each university also took part in focus group discussions. The focus group interviews were audio recorded and maximum time for each focus group interview was an hour.

5.11 Analysis and interpretation of quantitative data

As discussed previously, the questionnaires were administered to gather information about the opinions and perceptions of participants about the policy of English medium of instruction (EMI). Questions covered using English for learning, teaching and interaction, importance of English and Pakistani English (PakE). Data were tabulated to introduce some order to the data and make them more interpretable (Borich and Kubiszyn, 2007, p.267). For data analysis, the researcher uses SPSS Version 19. SPSS is the most widely used statistical software package in the social sciences (Muijs, 2004, p.90). SPSS has two windows i.e., data editor and variable view. The variables are entered into variable view and data is fed into data editor. In addition, the study has used two levels of measurement i.e. nominal and ordinal. According to Muijs (2004, p.97-98), the nominal variables are measured at the lowest level. These are variables like gender, mother tongue and medium of instruction, where numbers are assigned to values, e.g. 1 for men and 2 for women, only serve to replace a name. Nominal variables just have categories which cannot be ordered in any way. Ordinal variables do possess a natural ordering of categories, for example, likert scale is used where values range from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. It can be illustrated as: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree.

Thus, the data sets were based on the survey study of postgraduate students and university teachers. Pallant (2007, p.81) states, 'once the data has been entered and checked for accuracy, the next step involves manipulating the raw data into a form that can be used to conduct analyses and to test hypotheses'. She further states, 'one

of the most difficult parts of the research process is choosing the correct statistical technique to analyse the data' (Pallant, 2007, p.100). The research uses descriptive statistics which are numbers used to describe or summarise a larger body of numbers. The simple frequency distributions and measures of central tendency are components of descriptive statistics (see Figure 5.8).



Figure 5.8 Analysis of quantitative data by SPSS

In research, usually frequency distribution is used to know how many people have answered in a certain way or how many responses belong to different groups (Salkind, 2007). This could be done through frequency distribution. The frequency distribution is a list of all the values that a variable has acquired in the sample. This could be done in SPSS (Everitt, 2002; Muijs, 2004, p. 94-97). The current study obtained frequency distributions and percentages of all variables for both universities separately to compare results. Then the tables were merged to show total results of both universities (see Appendices C & D). According to Muijs (2004, p. 100-107), the mean is simply the sum of the values of all the cases divided by the total number of cases. The median is essentially the middle category of a distribution. It can be done by arranging the values from low to high and then finding the middle one. The mode is simply the most common value. Finally, a measure that uses all the information by taking into account all values is the standard deviation. The standard deviation is a measure of the extent to which values in a distribution cluster around the mean. In short, it can be summarised that the study used SPSS version 19 to analyse quantitative data obtained from two cases BSU and QVU. The researcher has presented tables to demonstrate results in Chapter 6.

5.12 Analysis and interpretation of qualitative data

I collected the slips of the demographic features of the participants prior to recording of the focus group discussions. I transcribed the focus group interviews (see Appendices E & F). The procedure for writing transcription is followed in accordance with the focus group questions. Baumfield et al. (2008, p.112) state that if interviews are read and re-read or if the researcher listens and re-listens to audio recordings, s/he becomes aware of frequencies and trends in his data and is 'able to build up themes, gathering together quotes and sections'. In addition, the analysis of interviews depends on the researcher's judgement, so it is important to weave together the data from interviews with data from other sources, such as questionnaires and observations (Atkinson et al., 1991). I juxtaposed the data with descriptions, explanations and analysis and structured it to accomplish a recognisable pattern or rhythm (see Chapter 7).

The findings have been displayed by the section heading; presenting the distinction or finding; introducing the data exemplar of this distinction; commenting on the first data exemplar of this distinction and then making transition to second data exemplar of this distinction and so on (Hopper, 1988). In this way, cross-section comparisons can be made more readily by the readers which will make the research process more coherent (Chenail, 1995).

Also, it is important to mention that the study has also analysed the transcriptions of the university faculty to suggest a few novel linguistic features of educated Pakistani English (p.167-168).

Thus, this chapter has described the construction of research tools, field study, analysis of data and clustering of main themes emerging from data.

CHAPTER 6. FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Introduction

Chapter 6 describes the findings which investigate the perceptions of policy and practice of English as the medium of instruction (EMI) through quantitative and interpretative analysis of questionnaire and interview responses of M.A Education first year students (MAE1) and university teachers in areas associated with the importance of English, the use of English, the limitations associated with the use of English and the use and value of Pakistani English (PakE).

6.1 Characteristics of university teachers from the questionnaire and the focus group interviews

The characteristics of teachers of Queen Victoria University (QVU) and Bulle Shah University (BSU) are presented in Table 6.1. 7 female and 10 male QV teachers and 11 female and 7 male BS teachers voluntarily participated in the current study. It is noted that the age group of 10 teachers is 46-50 years and 6 teachers' age category is above 50. 13 QV teachers' mother tongue is Punjabi, 2 speak Urdu as mother tongue and 2 speak other regional languages, namely, Pashto and Seraiki, whereas, 11 BS teachers' mother tongue is Punjabi, 4 teachers speak Urdu as first language and 3 of them speak other regional languages.

The findings show that 7 BS teachers have PhD degrees and 6 of them are MPhil in Education, while QVU's 8 PhD and 4 MPhil faculty members participated in the research. Among them 16 teachers are lecturers, 10 teachers are assistant professors, 6 of them are associate professors and 3 teachers are professors. The evidence depicts that QVU's 14 teachers and BSU's 8 teachers are using both languages for teaching and 9 of them claim to use only English in classroom, whereas, QVU's only 3 teachers use only English for teaching M.A Education students (see Table 6.1). This clearly shows that many teachers have preference for the use of both Urdu and English languages in the classroom. It was anticipated that more qualified teachers can make the greater use of English. Lastly, the teaching experience of QVU's 8 teachers and BSU's 11 teachers ranges between 15-20 years.

The demographic features of the faculty of QUV joining the focus group interview are detailed below:

- ✚ The gender ratio of QUV is 3:2 (male=3 and female=2). The respondent QVT1's age is between 41-45 and the respondents QVT2 and QVT4's ages range between 46-50 and the age group of respondents QVT3 and QVT5 is 30-35.
- ✚ The respondents QVT1, QVT2, QVT4 and QVT5 have PhD degrees and the respondent QVT3 has MPhil degree. The two respondents are foreign qualified as the respondent QVT1 obtained his PhD degree from Japan and the respondent QVT4 attained his PhD degree from the United States. The remaining respondents have taken their degrees of PhD and MPhil from the University of Punjab.
- ✚ The respondents QVT3, QVT4 and QVT5 are Lecturers in Education, the respondent QVT2 is an Assistant Professor in Education and the respondent QVT1 is an Associate Professor in Education.
- ✚ The teaching experience of respondents QVT3 and QVT5 is between 5-10 years, and respondents QVT1, QVT2 and QVT4's teaching experience is between 15-20 years.
- ✚ The findings reveal that 4 respondents' (QVT1, QVT2, QVT4 and QVT5) mother tongue is Punjabi and respondent QVT3's mother tongue is Pashto.
- ✚ Finally, respondents QVT1, QVT2, QVT4 and QVT5 report that they use both Urdu and English languages for teaching M.A Education and only respondent QVT3 claims to teach using English in the classroom.

Following are characteristics of the faculty of BSU:

- ✚ The gender ratio of BSU is 4:2 (male=4 & female=2).
- ✚ The age group of respondents' BST4 and BST5 is 30-35, the ages of respondents BST1, BST2, and BST3 range between 45-50 and the respondent BST6's age is above 50.
- ✚ The respondents BST1, BST2, BST3 and BST6 have PhD degrees. The respondents BST1 and BST3 achieved their PhD degrees from United Kingdom, respondents BST2 and BST6 attained their PhD degrees from the University of Punjab. The respondents BST4 and BST5 are PhD students at the University of Education.

- ✚ The respondents BST4 and BST5 are Lecturers in Education, respondents BST1, BST2 and BST3 are Assistant Professors in Education and the respondent BST6 is a Professor in Education.
- ✚ The teaching experience of respondents BST4 and BST5 is between 1-5 years, and respondents BST1 and BST3 have been teaching for 15-20 years and lastly the teaching experience of the respondent BST6 is between 30-35 years.
- ✚ The respondents BST1, BST2, BST3 and BST6 report Punjabi as their first language, the respondent BST4 speaks Seraiki and the mother tongue of respondent BST5 is Urdu.
- ✚ Finally, it is noted that only respondent BST1 uses English language exclusively for teaching in classroom, the other 5 respondents report that they mutually use Urdu and English languages for teaching M.A Education.

Table 6.1 Characteristics of university teachers from qualitative and quantitative data

Items	Parts	BSU's features from questionnaire	QVU's features from questionnaire	BSU's features from focus group interview	QVU's features from focus group interview
Gender	Male	7	10	4	3
	Female	11	7	2	2
Age	24-29	4	-		
	30-35	1	4	BST4 & BST5	QVT3 & QVT5
	36-40	1	2		
	41-45	1	4	BST1, BST2 & BST3	QVT1
	46-49	6	4		QVT2 & QVT5
	Above 50	5	3	BST6	
Mother Tongue	Urdu	4	2	BST5	
	Punjabi	11	13	BST1, BST2, BST3 & BST6	QVT1, QVT2, QVT4 & QVT5
	Other	3	2	BST4 (Seraiki)	QVT3 (Pashto)
Qualifications	Masters in Education	4	5		
	MPhil in Education	6	4	BST4 & BST5	QVT3
	PhD Education	7	8	BST1, BST2, BST3 & BST6	QVT1, QVT2, QVT4 & QVT5
	English teaching qualifications	1	-		
Designation	Lecturer	7	9	BST4 & BST5	QVT3, QVT4 & QVT5
	Assistant Professor	7	3	BST1, BST2 & BST3	QVT2
	Associate Professor	3	3		QVT1
	Professor	1	2	BST6	
Medium of instruction for teaching in universities	English	9	3	BST1	QVT3
	Urdu	-	-		
	Both	8	14	BST2, BST3, BST4, BST5 & BST6	QVT1, QVT2, QVT4 & QVT5
Teaching Experience	1-5 years	4	-	BST4 & BST5	
	5-10 years	1	6		QVT3 & QVT5
	10-15 years	1	2		
	15-20 years	10	8	BST1, BST2 & BST3	QVT1, QVT4 & QVT2
	20-25 years	1	1		
	Above 30 years	1	-	BST6	

6.2 Characteristics of MAE1 students from the questionnaire and the focus group interviews

The total sample size of MAE1 students of QVU and BSU is n=451 (see Chapter 5). The findings relate that BSU's 82.2% female and 17.8% male students and QVU's 77% female and 23.3% male students participated voluntarily in the research. It is seen that 91.4% students' age ranges between 20-24 years and QVU's 51.8 % students' mother tongue is Punjabi, 42.9 % speak Urdu, whereas, BSU's 37.3% students' mother tongue is Punjabi, and 56.4% students' L1 is Urdu and only 2% students of both universities speak other regional languages, such as Seraiki, Pashto, etc. The results show that 86% have Bachelor's degrees and 80% students' medium of instruction at school was Urdu and QVU's 69.8% students and BSU's 72.4% studied Education in Urdu in their Bachelors programme (see Table 6.2).

Regarding focus group interviews, the gender ratio of MAE1 students of QVU is 3:3 (male=3 & female=3). The researcher audio recorded focus group interview of Master of Business Education (MBE). All students belong to 20-24 age group. It is noted that respondents QVS1, QVS2 and QVS3 speak Punjabi as mother tongue, whereas, respondents QVS4 and QVS5 speak Urdu as first language, finally, one respondent QVS6's mother tongue is Seraiki. The participants in both groups report that they had studied Education in Urdu at Bachelor's level. Finally, all respondents report that their teachers use both Urdu and English mediums of instruction for teaching in classroom (see Table 6.2).

The gender ratio of BS is 3:3 (male=3 & female=3). The researcher audio recorded the focus group interview of Master of Educational Leadership and Management. The age category of all respondents is 20-24. It is seen that respondents BSS1, BSS2 and BSS4 speak Punjabi as mother tongue, the respondents BSS3 and BSS6 speak Urdu as first language, whereas one respondent BSS5's mother tongue is Balti. The respondent BSS2 studied Education in English and the remaining respondents studied Education in Urdu. Finally, 5 respondents (BSS1, BSS2, BSS3, BSS4 and BSS6) report that their teachers use both Urdu and English mediums of instruction for teaching in classroom (see Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Characteristics of MAE1 students from quantitative and qualitative data

Items	Parts	% of BSU's features from questionnaire	% of QVU's features from questionnaire	BSU's features from focus group interview	QVU's features from focus group interview
Gender	Male	17.8	23.0	3	3
	Female	82.2	77.0	3	3
Age	20-24	87.1	95.6	All	All
	25-29	8.4	3.1		
	30-34	3.6	0.9		
	35-39	0.9	0.4		
Mother Tongue	English	3.1	1.8		
	Urdu	56.4	42.9	BSS3 & BSS6	QVS4 & QVS5
	Punjabi	37.3	51.8	BSS1, BSS2 & BSS4	QVS1, QVS2 & QVS3
	Other	3.1	3.5	BSS5 (Balti)	QVS6 (Seraiki)
Qualifications	Bachelors	80.0	92.5		
	Masters	20.0	7.5		
Medium of instruction at school	EMI	19.1	20.4		
	UMI	80.9	79.2		
Education as an elective subject	English	10.2	17.3	BSS2	
	Urdu	72.4	69.8	BSS1, BSS3, BSS4, BSS5 & BSS6	All studied Education in Urdu.
	Both	3.1	7.1		

As explained in Chapter 5, the researcher planned to include those programmes into the focus group discussions which were using both Urdu and English mediums of instruction. She involved students of Masters in Business Education (MBE) at QVU and Masters in Educational Management and Leadership (MEML) at BSU in focus group interviews because it was anticipated that these students could respond confidently in English as compared to other groups. Moreover, it was assumed that these groups were academically better than other groups.

6.3 Perceptions of the importance of English in Pakistan

The subsequent paragraphs present participants' opinions about the significance of English in the country. It is certainly useful to discuss the importance of English in Pakistan before switching over to the section about the perceptions of policy of EMI and the uses of English which are intertwined with EMI.

6.3.1 An official language of Pakistan

The numerical evidence denotes that most of the teachers reveal highly positive attitudes towards the status of English in Pakistan. 16 QV teachers and 13 BS teachers report that English is integrated with the socio-politico, economic and educational life of Pakistan (see Tables 6.3 and 6.4). The students QVS5 and QVS6 view the scenario respectively as ‘*English is Pakistan’s official language*’, ‘*lingua franca*’ and ‘*business language*’. The respondent BSS6 also reports, ‘*English is used in schools, colleges, universities, offices and courts*. MAE1 students’ emphatic views support the position of English in the country but simultaneously BSS6’s comment ‘*unless people have command over English*’ and BST4’s view that English ‘*should be taught for better future*’ immediately build up an ambiguity about the real status of English. Accordingly, an interpretation is that only those Pakistanis who possess reasonable proficiency in the language are using it for study and work.

Table 6.3 QVU teachers’ perceptions of the status of English

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strong Agree	Mean
English integrated with socio-politico, economic and educational life (Q.8)	-	-	8	8	4.41
English essential for future development (Q.10)	1	-	3	11	4.35
English signifies liberal values (Q.11)	-	3	7	5	3.82

Table 6.4 BSU teachers' perceptions of the status of English in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English integrated with socio-politico, economic and educational life (Q.8)	3	2	10	3	3.44
English essential for future development (Q.10)	3	1	9	5	3.67
English signifies liberal values (Q.11)	-	1	12	3	3.94

6.3.2 Participants' views about the policy of English as the medium of instruction (EMI) in university

It is noted that 14 QV teachers and 12 BS teachers acknowledge the policy of English as a medium of instruction in higher education (see Tables 6.5 & 6.6). The teachers have been instructed to teach using EMI because all the books and journals are available in English and examinations are also conducted in English, as the respondent BST2 states, '*our university...is using English medium of instruction at Master's level. We are instructed to teach in English.... but---use Urdu language*'. The comment of the respondent QVT5 is also noteworthy, '*English should be used as medium of instruction because most of the literature is available in English*' and '*we don't have complete English as a medium of instruction*' (QVT3). Their perceptions indicate the divergence from the above mentioned pronouncement of EMI in language policies and imply a gap between the policy and practice of EMI. The university teachers are advised to teach using EMI because it has been stated in calendars but they perceive that this objective is impartially accomplished because they use Urdu language side by side in their sessions.

Table 6.5 QVU teachers’ perceptions of the policy of English medium of instruction at university level

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
EMI at university level (Q.27)	-	1	8	6	4.12
EMI hinders achievements (Q.17)	1	3	8	3	3.53

Table 6.6 BSU teachers’ perceptions of policy of English medium of instruction at university level

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
EMI at university level (Q.27)	1	2	8	4	3.67
EMI hinders achievements (Q.17)	1	5	9	3	3.44

6.4 Perceptions about the benefits of English in Pakistan

The evidence in the previous sections about the status of English as an official language of Pakistan and the assumed policy of EMI in universities leads to the perceptions about the usefulness of English in Pakistani society.

6.4.1 A pre-requisite for higher education

The empirical results point out that 95.1% QV and 89.8% BS M.A Education students report that English is essential for higher education. In addition, 94.3% QV students and 91.5 % BS group agree that proficiency in English is needed to read international books and journals. The 95.6% QV postgraduate students and 89.8% of BS report that they need English for travelling abroad; for example, if students intend to travel abroad for higher education, they must pass international proficiency tests (see Tables 6.7 & 6.8).

English is needed to study abroad and to get visas of foreign countries as the participant QVT4 expresses his opinion, ‘our graduates go abroad and they have to follow English medium of instruction’ and the participant BST4 also explains:

‘We need to develop English right from the beginning. If our students want to go abroad, they have to pass English tests like TOEFL, IELTS, etc’.

Thus, Pakistani students need to pass the international language tests to fulfil the condition for admission in foreign universities and also to obtain visas. These results indicate that most of the students are aware of the requirements of higher education but their teachers’ views suggest that these postgraduate students find international tests challenging and experience language problems in universities.

Table 6.7 QVU’s postgraduate students’ perceptions of the status of English

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for HE (Q.16)	0.9%	2.2%	32.7%	62.4%	4.54
English for satisfactory job (Q.17)	0.4%	3.5%	42.5%	50.9%	4.39
English for broadening outlook (Q.18)	1.8%	8.4%	48.2%	39.8%	4.16
English for future career (Q.23)	2.7%	4.0%	36.7%	55.3%	4.38
English for social status (Q.21)	1.8%	4.0%	42.9%	48.2%	4.27
English for international books and journals (Q.20)	1.8%	3.5%	42.5%	51.8%	4.39
English for travelling abroad (Q.22)	1.3%	2.2%	27.9%	67.7%	4.58

Table 6.8 BSU's postgraduate students' perceptions of the status of English

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for HE (Q.16)	3.6%	0.4%	23.6%	66.2%	4.48
English for satisfactory job (Q.17)	2.7%	1.8%	29.8%	55.1%	4.33
English for broadening outlook (Q.18)	2.2%	5.3%	38.2%	44.4%	4.17
English for future career (Q.23)	1.3%	2.2%	39.6%	53.8%	4.42
English for social status (Q.21)	2.2%	5.3%	30.2%	53.3%	4.31
English for international books and journals (Q.20)	0.9%	1.3%	30.2%	61.3%	4.50
English for travelling abroad (Q.22)	1.3%	3.1%	21.8%	68.0%	4.52

It is seen in tables 6.7 & 6.8 that only 39.8% MAE1 students of QVU and 44.4% MAE1 students of the other university strongly agree that English is required for broadened outlook. It can be interpreted that they do not think that English broadens their vision and carries liberal ideals; they have more faith in cultural values.

6.4.2 English obligatory for satisfactory employment

It is perceived that English is a qualification to obtain a reasonable job and to develop the future career. The findings show that 93.4% QV M.A Education students and 84.9% BS consider English important for satisfactory employment while 92% QV students and 93.4% of the other university believe that English is a language of future career (see Tables 6.7 & 6.8). The respondent QVS4 explains, '*we can't pass interviews and public service examinations in Pakistan without good English*'. The informant BSS2 asserts:

‘Those who speak English impressively get good jobs as compared to those who are not fluent in English though they have knowledge and ability as well’.

Again both universities’ empirical results signify that postgraduate students believe that English is essential to seek satisfactory employment and needed for career development but their views raise concerns about their ability to express themselves fluently in English.

6.4.3 As an indicator of adoption of liberal outlook

Notably, the evidence shows that 88% QV students and 82.6% of the other university deem that in Pakistan learning English language symbolises progressive outlook and adoption of latest ideas (see Tables 6.7 & 6.8) and 12 QV teachers and 15 BS teachers believe that English language suggests liberal values in Pakistan (see Tables 6.3 & 6.4). It is noted that 91.1% QV students and 83.5% of BSU emphasise that proficiency in English stands for social status (see Tables 6.7 & 6.8). Thus, BST2’s optimistic inference about the situation is worth mentioning:

‘Through English we can build our identity as a progressive and democratic nation....if we teach English in classroom and students start thinking in global perspective then social justice can be realised’.

It is surmised from the above evidence that English is a pre-requisite largely for higher education and represents progressive outlook and its widespread use means realisation of ‘social justice’ and ‘democratic values’ and if adopted appropriately can possibly help to bridge the gap between ‘haves’ and ‘have nots’ in the long run.

The findings suggest that the young people are more inclined towards learning English as it endows them with opportunities to flourish intellectually and economically. The respondent BST3 puts across his opinion as, *‘there are no more imperialistic connotations associated with learning English...the young generation is accepting it actively’*. However, BST5 refutes this view, *‘a strong culture gives confidence to nation. It isn’t necessary that English can bring about development. The examples of other advanced countries can be taken’*. It is also viewed that *‘culturally English is a foreign language’* (BST6) and *‘we are proud of our culture’* (QVT3). Although, most of the postgraduate students and their teachers report that English represents liberal values and broadens one’s outlook, these views are contradicted, as the reiteration of

word ‘culture’ depicts postgraduate students and their teachers’ interest in ‘cultural heritage’. These conflicting views reflect a rift between the ‘cultural values’ and the ‘liberal values’. Hence, the enthusiastic views about the role of English for eliminating social discriminations are contradicted by the influence of culture in people’s lives.

6.4.4 English fundamental for development of the country

14 QV teachers and 14 BS teachers report that English is imperative for the future development of Pakistan (see Tables 6.3 & 6.4). Pakistanis need English as knowledge reservoirs for various subjects are in English as BST1 says, ‘*the print and the electronic media are in English*’. The respondent BST2 asserts, ‘*we should learn and teach English rigorously and properly*’. The participant QVT4 suggests:

‘English can play a vital role in the development of the country. How can you share the knowledge of advanced countries if you don’t know English?’

Similarly, the participant BST6 articulates his belief, ‘*regarding trade, commerce, foreign affairs, political relations and technological advancements, we must rely on English*’. Therefore, findings demonstrate that English has a radical part to play particularly in the socio-economic and the technological progress of Pakistan.

6.5 Teachers’ perceptions about the role of English language in universities

It is perceived teachers are making use of English language skills in classroom, but because of students learning difficulties, they have to be bilingual in classroom to explain their lectures with examples deduced from pupils’ native context and culture. They also would like to generate discussion in English but keeping in view students’ diverse educational backgrounds let them talk in Urdu in classroom. It is also discovered that reading texts and examinations in English are stressful for students.

Table 6.9 QVU's teachers' perceptions of the uses of English in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Using English for teaching (Q.28)	-	4	8	2	3.47
English for speaking in classroom (Q.31)		4	8	1	3.35
English for reading texts (Q.29)	1	1	5	6	3.82
English for writing purposes (Q.30)	1	2	6	7	3.94
Discussion in English (Q.14)	2	5	8	1	3.06
Using ELT methods (Q.21)	3	4	7	3	3.18

Table 6.10 BSU's teachers' perceptions of the uses of English in universities

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean
Using English for teaching (Q.28)	2	1	13	1	3.56
English for speaking in classroom (Q.31)	2	5	9	2	3.22
English for reading texts (Q.29)	1	4	9	4	3.61
English for writing purposes (Q.30)	1	3	7	7	3.89
Discussion in English (Q.14)	3	2	7	4	3.39
Using ELT methods (Q.21)	1	2	9	5	3.83

It is noted in tables 6.9 and 6.10 that 1 QVU teacher in comparison to 4 BSU teachers strongly agree that English is needed for classroom discussion. Similarly, only 2 BSU teachers strongly agrees that English is used for speaking. It can be implied that university faculty have preference for the use of Urdu in classroom.

6.5.1 Use of English for classroom teaching

It is seen that 10 QV teachers and 14 BS teachers report that they use English language for teaching M.A Education students (see Tables 6.9 and 6.10). It is noted that 8 QV teachers and 8 BS teachers report that they have preference for English language for teaching M.A Education students. 11 QV teachers and 12 BS teachers report that they do not prefer to teach using Urdu (see Tables 6.11 & 6.12).

Table 6.11 QVU teachers' preference to use which language?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Preference to teach in Urdu (Q.15)	4	7	3	4	2.78
Preference to teach in English (Q.16)	3	2	4	4	3.44

Table 6.12 BSU teachers' preference to use which language?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Preference to teach in Urdu (Q.15)	4	8	3	2	2.47
Preference to teach in English (Q.16)	2	3	4	4	3.29

However, they discuss about the necessity to make use of Urdu in classroom in the focus group interviews as BST3 comments, '*in our situation, students are unable to understand concepts if they are taught only in English*'. The teachers make use of the national language because they keep in sight their students' educational and linguistic backgrounds. BST6 says:

'When we deliver the lecture in English, students say, 'repeat it in Urdu'. So I have to repeat it in Urdu when I see their blank faces because our objective is to satisfy students. Urdu and English in combination are used'.

It appears that these first year M.A Education students fall short of adequate English language skills because most of them have been educated in Urdu medium schools and colleges which leads to significant variation in the linguistic background of the students. The responses suggest that MAE1 are unable to grasp the concepts if taught only in English, thus, in order to tackle this problem, teachers rely on bilingual instruction to explain the concepts and terminology presented in English. The respondent BST2 explains that the teachers '*have to be bilingual...and give examples in*

Urdu from our culture’ and *‘we can’t teach without national language’* (BST1). QVT4 comments, *‘we use both Urdu and English...the major language is Urdu to make them understand the concepts’*. The teachers have to be bilingual in classroom because most of the postgraduate students as explained above studied Education in Urdu at Bachelors level (see Table 6.2), therefore, they lack familiarity with the terminology of reading materials in English. S/he further exemplifies this by saying:

‘I write the notes in English but explain in Urdu...I teach philosophy of education, students are unable to understand philosophical issues in English....the terminology is provided in English like pragmatism, realism, idealism but explanation is given in Urdu’.

It can be implied that both language and content of courses challenge students. For example, the curriculum of Philosophy of Education is mostly based on western philosophical traditions, whereas they can take contents from Islamic philosophy as well for compatibility with cultural and religious ideology. It seems that teachers deliver their lectures in English but explain them in Urdu to bring themselves close to students’ understanding. It can be interpreted that not only postgraduate students face language learning dilemmas but teachers also confront pedagogical challenges. This suggests that not only MAE1 students have their preference for using Urdu in classroom but highly qualified university teachers’ perceptions suggest that they have natural preference for Urdu too.

Significantly, it is noted that the respondent QVT3 whose mother tongue is Pashto likes to use English medium of instruction in classroom, whereas, the other faculty members use both Urdu and English mediums of instruction for teaching in classroom (see Table 6.1). It can be interpreted that those teachers who give more preference to MT over Urdu are likely to make more use of English in classroom.

6.5.2 Causing difficulties /Barriers to learning

Although in Pakistan, English is mandatory to have an access to higher education and to satisfactory employment, there are resource limitations on achieving the required language skills. It is noted that 9 and 11 teachers of both universities respectively report using English for speaking in classroom; 11 teachers of QVU and 13 teachers of the other university report using reading skill in classroom and finally, 13 and 14 teachers of both universities state using English for writing purposes in classroom (see

Tables 6.9 & 6.10). However, evidence shows that the postgraduate students experience language problems because of English medium of instruction (EMI) in universities. 11 teachers of QVU and 12 teachers of BSU affirm that EMI affects M.A Education students' progress in universities (see Tables 6.5 & 6.6). The respondent BST2 explains:

'We are instructed to teach in English but the problem is that students at Master's level don't have required proficiency in English. They are unable to follow the instructions delivered in English'.

This is corroborated by respondent QVT2 who agrees about the effects of English medium of instruction in universities:

'Language definitely affects students' performance, their ability to understand something....a student might not be good in English but he is able and can understand his subject and not knowing a language will hinder his performance, his capacity to learn something'.

EMI gets in the way of M.A Education students' accomplishments in universities. Further, these M.A Education students remain under constant pressure throughout the programme.

6.5.3 Students' comprehension of concepts in books and journals

The responses suggest that teachers have to consult English books and journals to teach M.A Education students (see Tables 6.9 & 6.10). QVT3 claims, *'whatever material we consult for teaching in classroom is mostly in English'*. The respondent BST2 reinforces the above statement, *'all the books by both local and foreign authors are available in English in our library'*. The informant BST4 notes, *'when they read, they face difficulty to understand the concepts'* and *'they take it as a burden the literature from foreign books we give them for reading'* (QVT2). The MAE1 students have to grapple with foreign authors' texts, and consider reading an irksome task because they had read predominantly Pakistani authors till Bachelors. The participant BST4 remarks:

'We use books in English by foreign authors which are about their own context and writing style...they study till B.A/B.Sc Pakistani books, so students can't understand foreign authors' writing and thoughts exactly'.

Also, it can be implied that besides language, diverse cultural contexts and writing styles of foreign authors collectively perplex MAE1 students. Moreover, it is interpreted that university teachers also experience pedagogical dilemmas arising partly from their own inadequate proficiency in English and also because of ill-assorted contents of courses for their alliance with foreign traditions and western educational context. Regarding the availability of reading material in Urdu in universities, QVT2 expresses his view:

'In 1978 General Zia ul Haq's period we promoted our national language. There was Urdu science board and Wafaqi Urdu University. The purpose of these institutes was to translate the materials written in English and other languages into Urdu language. They haven't done their job so we are still lacking in literature in Urdu language to be used for teaching'.

It is perceived that Zia ul Haq's government established a few institutes with the objective to translate the reading materials of other languages, such as, English, Arabic, Persian, etc. into Urdu but the task remains incomplete which provides explanation for the existing problem of the unavailability of reading material in Urdu to be used at university level in Pakistan.

6.5.4 Assessment of subjects in English

It is explicitly stated in university calendars that English language is used for assessment in universities. The respondent QVT3 reinforces, *'the examinations are conducted in English'*. Regarding assessment in English, QVT1's comment is noteworthy:

'When we give them a test...the student can respond according to level of understanding...many times student is unable to understand what is being asked in the question...if we use some unfamiliar words in question, they will not be able to answer it even though they know the answer'.

BST1's perception illustrates that postgraduate students' language problems affect their performance in examinations and in order to qualify in the examinations, they are profoundly dependent on *'rote memorisation'* (QVT3).

6.5.5 Which language for classroom discussion?

Respondent BST2 puts across his observation, *'I have...noticed that ...we are doing nothing to develop proficiency in spoken English'*. The questionnaire responses show, 9 teachers of QVU and 11 teachers of the other university attempt to build up discus-

sion in English in classroom (see Tables 6.9 & 6.10). However, participant BST2 says, ‘*when I engage them in discussion...they are unable to communicate in English as they hesitate to speak English. Then I ask them to use Urdu*’ and ‘*they can’t express their ideas fluently and expressively*’ (BST4). The responses show that 15 teachers of QVU and the same number of BS teachers allow their students to talk in Urdu in classroom, whereas, a total of 19 teachers from both universities claim that they do not permit their students to talk in mother tongue in classroom (see Tables 6.13 & 6.14). Thus, many teachers allow their students to respond in Urdu in classroom because these postgraduate students hesitate to talk in English. The postgraduate students are reluctant to participate in classroom probably because their Urdu medium educational background never provided them opportunity to practise speaking skill in classroom. On the contrary, respondent QVT3 reports, ‘*when a teacher does not properly speak language in classroom for 40 minutes how can students speak it*’. This comment suggests that besides postgraduate students’ disappointing spoken English, teachers’ own spoken English is not up to the required standard and they prefer to use Urdu most of the time in classroom.

Table 6.13 QVU teachers’ perceptions of which language in classroom?

Items	Never	Rarely	Mostly	Always	Mean
Allowing students to talk in Urdu (Q.32)	-	3	12	3	3.83
Permitting students to talk in MT (Q.33)	5	7	2	4	2.61

Table 6.14 BSU teachers' perceptions of which language in classroom?

Items	Never	Rarely	Mostly	Always	Mean
Allowing students to talk in Urdu (Q.32)	3	-	12	3	3.47
Permitting students to talk in MT (Q.33)	9	4	-	2	1.94

6.5.6 Use of English for informal conversation in universities

It is noted, 6 teachers of QVU and 11 teachers of BSU report that English should be used for informal conversation in universities, while 10 QV teachers and 13 BS teachers agree that Urdu should be used for informal conversation in universities. The responses show that 8 QV teachers and 10 BS teachers yearn for the mother tongue to be used for informal conversation in universities (see Tables 6.15 & 6.16).

Table 6.15 QVU teachers' perceptions of which language for informal conversation in universities?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for informal conversation (Q.18)	5	3	6	-	2.59
Urdu for informal conversation (Q.19)	3	4	10	-	3.00
Mother tongue for informal conversation (Q.20)	1	5	6	2	3.18

Table 6.16 BSU teachers’ perceptions of which language for informal conversation in universities?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for informal conversation (Q.18)	2	5	10	1	3.17
Urdu for informal conversation (Q.19)	1	4	8	5	3.67
Mother tongue for informal conversation (Q.20)	2	4	6	4	3.33

Concerning English for informal uses in universities, participant QVT2 reflects:

‘Even if they are proficient in English in speaking, they hesitate to speak English because culture does not allow them to do so. It’s not a conducive environment’.

This perceptive comment implies that they would like to talk in English but as explained above most of the students have rural background and have come from Urdu medium institutions so are not used to respond in English. The informant QVT3’s view is noteworthy, *‘we are suffering from inferiority complex...our minds are not free of slavery, we feel dominance of English language’*. It is implied that English is not considered necessary to be used for informal conversations in universities. It is believed that those who speak English extensively have a sense of superiority and lack of faith in the national language.

6.6 Postgraduate students’ perceptions about their uses of English in the university

This section given below will discuss MAE1 students’ perceptions of availability of resources, lectures, discussion and examinations in English.

6.6.1 Comprehension of lectures in English in classroom

The questionnaire responses show that 48.2% QV MAE1 students and 57.3% BS MAE1 students report that English is used for teaching in classroom while 62% QV students and 76.4% BS students report that Urdu is used for teaching in classroom

(Tables 6.17 & 6.18) whereas the results indicate that 56.6% QV students and 61.4% of the BS group report that only English should be used for teaching (see Tables 6.23 & 6.24).

Table 6.17 QVU's postgraduate students' views about which language for classroom teaching?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English as a language of instruction (Q.51)	5.8%	37.6%	33.6%	14.6%	3.14
Urdu as a language of instruction (Q.52)	3.5%	21.7%	51.8%	10.2%	3.43
Using English with teachers (Q.49)	21.7%	49.6%	15.5%	3.5%	2.30
Using Urdu with teachers (Q.50)	3.1%	9.7%	52.2%	31.0%	3.98

Table 6.18 BSU's postgraduate students' views about which language for classroom teaching?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English as a language of instruction (Q.51)	6.7%	33.3%	39.1%	18.2%	3.14
Urdu as a language of instruction (Q.52)	2.2%	20.0%	61.3%	15.1%	3.43
Using English with teachers (Q.49)	15.6%	48.0%	17.3%	5.8%	2.30
Using Urdu with teachers (Q.50)	1.3%	12.4%	48.0%	34.7%	3.98

QVS1 utters, ‘I think English medium of instruction is a problem’. Respondent BSS5 remarks, ‘if teachers prefer to teach in Urdu, we can perform better in Urdu language than in English language’. Participant BSS4 believes:

‘Teachers deliver lectures in English and their and our mental levels are not same...I can’t understand the difficult words spoken by some teachers...’

It can be interpreted from the responses of both groups that MAE1 students have inclination for using Urdu in classroom and the complete comprehension of their teachers’ lectures is an arduous task for them.

6.6.2 Use of English for classroom discussion

The evidence shows that 71.3% and 63.6% MAE1 students of QVU and BSU respectively disagree that they use English with their teachers, while 83.2% and 82.7% students of both universities respectively agree that they mostly use Urdu with their teachers (see Tables 6.17 & 6.18). Interestingly, the findings also indicate that 74.4% QV M.A Education students and 67.6% of BSU report that English should be used for classroom discussion (see Tables 6.19 & 6.20).

Table 6.19 QVU’s postgraduate students’ views about using English for classroom discussion and examination

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for classroom discussion (Q.33)	5.8%	12.4%	38.1%	36.3%	3.87
English for examination (Q.53)	8.8%	2.7%	18.1%	67.7%	4.33

Table 6.20 BSU’s postgraduate students’ views about using English for classroom discussion and examination

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for classroom discussion (Q.33)	7.1%	10.2%	37.8%	29.8%	3.73
English for examination (Q.53)	4.0%	3.6%	15.6%	72.9%	4.33

QVS6 says, ‘we can’t express our ideas’. BSS1 perceives the situation as, ‘those students who have studied in Urdu medium ...hesitate to speak English’. This supports the teachers’ view above that these students would like English to be used for classroom discussion but lack confidence to communicate in it effectively.

6.6.3 Availability of resources in English

The responses depict very positive perceptions of the availability of resources in English as 94.2% QV MAE1 students and 82.7% of the BS group report that most of the reading material is available in English and 89.3% QV students and 81.8% BS students agree that English is required to have an access to information technology (see Tables 6.21 & 6.22).

Table 6.21 QVU’s postgraduate students’ views about availability of resources in English

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Reading material in English (Q.9)	1.8%	2.2%	29.2%	65.0%	2.27
English for access to IT (Q.19)	2.2%	5.3%	45.1%	44.2%	4.24

Table 6.22 BSU's postgraduate students' views about availability of resources in English

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Reading material in English (Q.9)	2.7%	4.0%	27.1%	55.6%	4.29
English for access to IT (Q.19)	4.4%	4.4%	36.0%	45.8%	4.14

According to BSS6, *'we need English for various purposes. We make assignments in English and use computers to work in English'*. The informant QVS1 reports:

'English language is a source of extensive knowledge and huge discoveries...through internet we get different types of knowledge and information'.

Hence, students acknowledge the need to have proficiency in English because they have to browse resources using internet related to their subjects and also are required to write up assignments in English.

6.6.4 Examinations in English

Along with other uses of English mentioned above, the questionnaire responses also confirm that English is mostly used for assessment in universities as 85.8% QV students and 88.5% BS students report that English is a language of examinations in universities (see Tables 6.19 & 6.20). However, it is noteworthy that 61.1% QV students and 62.2% BS students agree that only English must be used for assessment (see Tables 6.23 & 6.24).

Table 6.23 QVU’s postgraduate students’ views about using only English in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Only English for teaching and learning (Q.25)	15.0%	23.0%	38.5%	18.1%	3.26
Only English for assessment (Q.24)	11.1%	21.2%	41.6%	19.5%	3.22

Table 6.24 BSU’s postgraduate students’ views about using only English in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Only English for teaching and learning (Q.25)	7.1%	14.7%	39.6%	21.8%	3.54
Only English for assessment (Q.24)	8.4%	9.8%	36.4%	25.8%	3.61

The variation in these perceptions probably suggests that on account of insufficient command over English language, examinations in English are demanding for them and as explained in subsection 6.5.4, they rely on their ability to memorise contents of courses to pass the examinations.

6.6.5 Use of English for social interaction and co-curricular activities

71.7% QV M.A Education students and 75.5% BS students report that English should be used for social interaction, 61.1% of QV group and 56.4% of the BS group would like Urdu to be used for social interaction and interestingly only 34.9% students of QVU while 38.3% of the other University yearn for regional languages to be used for social interaction in universities (see Tables 6.25 & 6.26).

Table 6.25 QVU’s MAE1’s students’ views about which language for social interaction in universities?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for social interaction (Q.34)	6.2%	5.9%	40.7%	31.0%	3.74
Urdu for social interaction (Q.35)	9.7%	22.1%	35.4%	25.7%	3.45
Mother tongue for social interaction (Q.36)	19.0%	38.5%	21.2%	13.7%	2.72

Table 6.26 BSU’s postgraduate students’ views about which language for social interaction in universities?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for social interaction (Q.34)	5.3%	5.8%	45.3%	30.2%	3.89
Urdu for social interaction (Q.35)	8.9%	17.8%	39.1%	17.3%	3.38
Mother tongue for social interaction (Q.36)	23.1%	26.2%	22.7%	15.6%	2.81

These results are interesting as it was anticipated that the majority of the postgraduate students aspire to learn spoken English. It is also noticeable as compared to English language, the national language and the regional languages have less importance in the eyes of the students. On the contrary, 45.6% QV M.A Education students and 44.4% BS would like English to be used for co-curricular activities, 63.3% QV students and 40.4% BS students would like Urdu for co-curricular activities and lastly 38% QV students 36.9% BS report that regional languages should be used for co-curricular activities in universities (see Tables 6.27 & 6.28).

Table 6.27 QVU’s postgraduate students’ views about which language for co-curricular activities in universities?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for co-curricular activities (Q.37)	11.9%	34.5%	25.2%	20.4%	3.08
Urdu for co-curricular activities (Q.38)	8.4%	20.8%	49.1%	14.2%	3.40
Mother tongue for co-curricular activities (Q.39)	18.1%	34.5%	28.3%	9.7%	2.77

Table 6.28 BSU’s postgraduate students’ views about which language for co-curricular activities in universities?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for co-curricular activities (Q.37)	8.9%	9.3%	28.4%	16.0%	3.13
Urdu for co-curricular activities (Q.38)	9.3%	26.2%	31.1%	9.3%	3.05
Mother tongue for co-curricular activities (Q.39)	19.6%	24.0%	22.2%	14.7%	2.88

QVS3 reasonably identifies the need for, ‘*social atmosphere to practise a foreign language...most of our friends would criticise rather than appreciating us*’. All MAE1 students would like to use English for social interaction but paradoxically this aspiration is counteracted by their need to practise spoken English in an encouraging ‘social atmosphere’.

6.7 Perceptions about language anxiety

The foregoing sections have discussed university teachers’ views and the postgraduate students’ perceptions of formal and informal uses of English in universities. The re-

sponses report on perceptions of the gap between policy and practice of EMI. On close scrutiny, it appears that MAE1 students' views about the various uses of English in universities are affected by their inadequate ability in English. Therefore, it is logical to discuss perceptions of the language problems and the ensuing language anxiety. It is important to discuss how that anxiety arising from the gap between the policy and practice of English medium of instruction (EMI) impinges on students' achievements in higher education.

BST4 asserts, '*English as a medium of instruction affects students' learning ability...they are weak in four skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing*'. Their chief language worries are that they fall short of comprehending teachers' lectures in English; hesitate to speak English in classroom; find reading texts hard to understand, and believe that writing is a complex skill. 80.5% QV students and 72.4% BS students report that their language problems are outcomes of English medium of instruction. The responses specify that 73.5% and 66.2% students of both universities respectively recognise their inability to comprehend their teachers' lectures completely in English; 83.6% and 75.6% students of both universities respectively report that they hesitate to speak English in classroom; 75.7% QV students and BS's 63.6% students affirm that reading materials in English are difficult to be handled and finally 81.4 % QV students and 66.7% BS students report that they find writing a complex skill (see Tables 6.29 & 6.30).

Table 6.29 QVU's postgraduate students' perceptions of language learning difficulties

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Language problems related to EMI (Q.11)	2.7%	14.6%	45.1%	35.4%	3.96
Weak listening comprehension (Q.12)	4.4%	18.1%	48.7%	24.8%	3.71
Hesitation to speak English (Q.13)	1.8%	10.6%	56.2%	27.4%	3.97
Difficult reading texts (Q.14)	2.2%	15.9%	53.1%	22.6%	3.78
Writing a complex skill (Q.15)	2.2%	11.1%	46.0%	35.4%	4.01

Table 6.30 BSU's postgraduate students' perceptions of language learning difficulties

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Language problems related to EMI (Q.11)	8.0%	9.3%	49.3%	23.1%	3.66
Weak listening comprehension (Q.12)	11.1%	14.2%	43.1%	23.1%	3.36%
Hesitation to speak English (Q.13)	7.1%	8.0%	45.8%	29.8%	3.74%
Difficult reading texts (Q.14)	9.8%	15.6%	38.7%	24.9%	3.37
Writing a complex skill (Q.15)	8.9%	11.6%	34.7%	32.0%	3.69

MAE1 students evidently rationalise their insufficiency in English language by reporting that they face language problems because of their varied socio-linguistic and educational backgrounds, for example, the respondent BSS5 describes the situation as,

'English is an international language. It is not our mother tongue. Most of the students live in villages, when they join universities they face language problems'.

QVS6 points out some more examples of language problems such as:

'The main reason is that our mother tongues are either Punjabi or Urdu. It's difficult to speak English fluently...the problems are vocabulary, pronunciation and social atmosphere'.

The students are diffident to express themselves accurately and fluently in English so feel ambivalent about EMI in classroom (see Figure 5.6). Thus, MAE1 students are stressed about understanding teachers' lectures, responding to teachers' questions in English, interpreting reading texts, and taking examinations in English. The responses imply that 67.2% QV and 54.6% BS students undergo tension of comprehending teachers' lectures; 69.9% QV students and 58.2% of BS group feel anxiety to respond to teacher in English on account of their lack of fluency in spoken English; 65.1% QV and 53.4 % BS students experience confusion to interpret reading texts and finally 66.8% QV students while 58.6% of BS agree that they go through the stress of taking examinations in English because they are deficient in writing skill (see Tables 6.31 & 6.32).

Table 6.31 QVU's postgraduate students' views about language anxiety

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Tension of taking notes (Q.31)	8.4%	19.9%	37.6%	29.6%	3.60
Anxiety to talk to teacher in English (Q.29)	7.1%	19.9%	37.6%	32.3%	3.68
Confusion to interpret reading texts (Q.30)	9.3%	21.7%	35.0%	30.1%	3.55
Stress of examinations in English (Q.32)	9.3%	19.0%	36.7%	30.1%	3.59
Inclusion of English language courses (Q.28)	4.0%	7.5%	42.0%	45.6%	4.18

Table 6.32 BSU's postgraduate students' views about language anxiety

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Tension of taking notes (Q.31)	13.8%	19.6%	40.4%	14.2%	3.60
Anxiety to talk to teacher in English (Q.29)	11.1%	12.9%	40.4%	17.8%	3.68
Confusion to interpret reading texts (Q.30)	12.9%	18.7%	38.7%	14.7%	3.55
Stress of examinations in English (Q.32)	13.3%	17.8%	39.6%	19.1%	3.59
Inclusion of English language courses (Q.28)	1.3%	4.0%	36.4%	51.1%	4.18

It is seen that anxiety negatively influences language learning because anxiety has been found to interfere with many types of learning (see Chapter 4). QVS4 says '*students take the language problems as a stress. They try to do their best but can't do so because of language difficulties*'. BST6 comments, '*at Master's level, first year students are weak in English. When they write answers, they use English, but when they speak in class, they use Urdu*'. As explained above, the examinations are conducted in English, therefore, students have to read books and articles in English but because of weak reading comprehension, the reading texts transcend their understanding, '*they take a lot of time to understand the language first and then they grasp the content*' (QVT2). Overall impression about using EMI in classroom can be summed up in the words of the respondent QVT2 who perceptively utters, '*the students don't feel comfortable with English*'. The teachers' perceptions reinforce students' learning difficulties and justify a bilingual approach in universities.

6.7.1 Views on whether varieties of English contribute to language learning difficulties for students

The responses signify that the issue of World Englishes is also one of the sources of language anxiety in universities. Noticeably, 11 QV teachers and 13 BS teachers say that varieties of English create language learning difficulties for students (see Tables 6.33 & 6.34).

Table 6.33 QVU teachers' views about Pakistani English (PakE)

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
PakE a variety of English (Q.25)	2	-	8	5	3.82
Varieties create language problems (Q.23)	2	1	8	3	3.53
Universities to tackle with this issue (Q.24)	2	3	4	8	3.76
Universities to develop PakE (Q.26)	2	2	6	7	3.76
Varieties of English and language policy (Q.22)	2	1	10	3	3.65

Table 6.34 BSU teachers' views about Pakistani English (PakE)

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
PakE a variety of English (Q.25)	1	2	11	2	3.61
Varieties create language problems (Q.23)	-	5	11	2	3.56
Universities to tackle with this issue (Q.24)	1	3	6	8	3.94
Universities to develop PakE (Q.26)	2	3	10	3	3.50
Varieties of English and language policy (Q.22)	1	2	10	4	3.78

It is seen that QVU's 77.9 % and BSU's 74.2% MAE1 students are puzzled by different spellings of the same words while 82.3% and 71.6% M.A Education students of both universities respectively are baffled by deviating pronunciation of the same words (see Tables 6.35 & 6.36).

Table 6.35 QVU's postgraduate students' views about language problems arising from varieties

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Confusion arising from different spellings of same words (Q.41)	4.9%	13.3%	44.7%	33.2%	3.88
Different types of pronunciation (Q.42)	4.4%	10.6%	45.1%	37.2%	4.00

Table 6.36 BSU's postgraduate students' views about language problems arising from varieties of English

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Confusion arising from different spellings of same words (Q.41)	10.2%	9.3%	44.4%	29.8%	3.74
Different types of pronunciation (Q.42)	8.0%	11.6%	41.8%	29.8%	3.74

The evidence from focus group discussions also sheds light on language problems caused by variation, '*students are confused of different spellings and pronunciation of same words*' (QVS3). The respondent BSS1 explains, '*there are three varieties of English which are spoken in Pakistan. These are American, British, and Pakistani English*'. QVS1 says, '*English is not Pakistanis' mother tongue, they speak English*'.

with their own dialects and accents'. BSS1 says, *'we find varieties of English difficult because our understanding is weak*'. BSS5 talks about the problems as, *'varieties create problems in reading, writing, vocabulary and pronunciation. We can't understand which one is the best variety*'. Another participant BSS4 gives vent to his feelings, *'we are confused because we read mostly British books but T.V channels are mostly American in Pakistan*'. BSS6 claims that M.A Education students hesitate to respond in English in classroom because of their accents and pronunciation *'we hesitate to communicate with others because of our poor pronunciation*'. It can be interpreted that MAE1 students' language problems, such as spellings and pronunciation occur because they are not familiar in the variation in varieties of English.

6.7.2 Perceptions of student motivation

Although the questionnaires and the focus group interviews do not include any questions on motivation the university teachers report that if students are motivated intrinsically they can develop their academic skills in universities. Thus, quite unpredictably, language anxiety emerges in proximity to motivation. It is suggested that if postgraduate students are motivated by their teachers, they can improve their academic skills as BST6 remarks:

'My experience...is that students like to use Urdu language but when teachers say that English is important and has significance as an international and a global language, they feel encouraged'.

The responses signify that postgraduate students are uncomfortable with the profuse use of EMI in classroom and have inclination towards using Urdu language but when teachers remind them that they have no bright prospects without learning it, they feel motivated to practise it.

6.7.3 Areas of need in developing English language skills

87.6% QV and 87.5% BS students report that English language courses should be in their programme to enhance their communicative ability in English (see Tables 6.31 & 6.32). QVS3 asserts, *'translation of a language rather than developing it as a communicative skill*' is emphasised in the Pakistani education system. The universities must help students to overcome their language problems, BST6 suggests, *'there should be training programmes to develop students' proficiency in English*'. Students

expect that universities should take remedial measures to assist them so that they can prevail over their language problems.

6.8 English language teaching (ELT) methodology in Pakistan

Perceptions of these problems arising from policy and practice of EMI in universities are directly related to the background of the students coming from school English language classrooms in Pakistan. Students see that the problem is generated a long time back. QVS2 articulates his view:

'The students have problems because they speak Punjabi at home and national language Urdu at school. They start learning English in grade 6, speaking a foreign language is a problem for them'.

Students are multilingual and are using three languages. As indicated above, mostly teachers in public schools teach English by Grammar Translation Method (GTM) making students cram the texts rather than providing them the practice to communicate in it (see Chapter 4). QVT2 refers to this practice when s/he says, *'English teacher explains in Urdu using GTM. Sometimes, he uses Punjabi'*. BST2 says, *'we make students learn by heart and think that through the memorisation of essays, stories, letters and applications, English can be learned'*. The outcome of the lack of resources and this teaching methodology can be portrayed in the words the respondent BST2, *'English language policy is uniform through the country. English is taught as a compulsory subject, our graduates are unable to write and speak good English'*. These perceptions help to understand what factors affect the gap between the policy and practice of EMI in universities.

6.9 Socio-linguistic and educational diversity

Pakistan has an intricate class based education system (see Chapter 2). The public schools follow Urdu medium of instruction and private schools are exclusively using English medium instruction, whereas, in Sindh and Khyber Puktunkhwah, numerous primary government schools practise vernacular medium of instruction. BST5 refers to this aspect of the education system in Pakistan:

'There are two parallel education systems- English Medium and Urdu Medium of instruction. Some schools follow curriculum in Urdu and others in English'.

The statement highlights the fact that in public universities, students belong to diverse educational backgrounds. The respondent BSS3 explains, '*most of the students come from Urdu medium schools and colleges*'. Thus, those MAE1 students who have been educated in Urdu medium or vernacular medium schools and colleges experience various language problems which hamper their progress. Respondent BSS2 remarks, '*our students have different linguistic backgrounds so they face bundles of problems resulting from English as a medium of instruction*'. The responses demonstrate that students have diverse educational and linguistic backgrounds in public universities (see 6.2).

Further, students studied most of the subjects in Urdu including Education at Bachelor's level as BSS2 comments, '*students face language problems because B.A Course was in Urdu but in M.A all syllabus is in English*'. Thus, participants perceive that language policies declare EMI for higher education without taking account of the fact that postgraduate students from diverse stream of socio-linguistic and educational backgrounds might experience language learning problems. QVS5 says, '*though mostly people speak many languages, but they are not proficient in any language. This is because of Pakistan's language policy*'. The responses also suggest that policy makers should understand that English is important for social and economic development. QVT5 pinpoints the expected role of policy makers:

'The policy makers should decide that what should be the medium of instruction. If English is necessary for development, then people should be trained in that language from school to university level' (see Appendix E).

BST3 also believes, '*when we do not have one medium of instruction in the country, how can we devise effective language policy?*' Significantly, another distinguished feature which emerges from data is the Urdu/English controversy which is a sensitive and contentious issue; therefore, language policies intentionally avoid detailed discussion on it. However, QVT2 pinpoints the dilemma:

'Since we are born we talk about Urdu/English controversy...we keep on insisting that English language should be used. It's the policy of those policy makers...who try to influence their own priorities but not the priorities of masses in general. All developed countries are teaching in their own languages'

It is implied that language policies state that English will be the medium of instruction in higher education but have never worked out the logistics for the implementation of this stated objective (see Chapter 2).

6.10 Perceptions of use of national language and regional languages in universities

The responses highlight ambivalent perceptions regarding the role and status of the regional languages in the country. The evidence shows that national language is Urdu, English is an official language but the regional language or the mother tongue is the only way to transmit and preserve culture, traditions and customs. A respondent BSS3 says, *'if the teacher's lecture is translated into Urdu, we can better understand it'*. There are positive attitudes towards the use of Urdu language in universities as teachers quote local examples and metaphors in Urdu to clarify concepts. The students feel comfortable when teachers explain their lectures in Urdu.

QVS5 shares his thought as, *'regional languages should be promoted because they promote our culture and traditions'* and the respondent BSS6 believes, *'we feel good when our teachers give examples in Punjabi or Pashto'*. QVT1 suggests that regional languages can be used to *'create humour'* to enliven the classroom atmosphere. Respondent QVS2 says, *'we should introduce dictionaries and newspapers in mother tongues because it's very important for our next generation'*. The view is that the rich cultural heritage is weakened by making regional languages *'optional languages'* (BST1). It is viewed that regional languages like Urdu and English have not been endorsed and cultivated on equal ground.

Thus, the regional languages should be promoted in accordance with global standards because they are practically useful to comprehend the concepts of various subjects and also because *'creativity comes from your first language'* (BST1). Participant BST4 reflects, *'regional language...should be introduced as a literature/ philosophy course...which might develop the thoughts of students'*. On the other hand, some take the view that emphasis must be laid on the development of English language in the country and regional languages should be restricted to domestic uses at home not at university level. Informant QVT4 asserts:

'Different languages create discriminations. I prefer English should be emphasised and promoted over regional languages...the regional languages should be used for spoken purposes at home but should not be used at university level'.

Participant QVS1 agrees, *'the regional languages should be used for communication purposes only'* and QVS2 believes, *'they can't take the place of official languages or languages which are fulfilling our needs'*. Also BST2 suggests, *'my opinion is that regional languages should be limited to the particular regions and should only be used to preserve culture'*. Respondent BSS5 expresses his opinion, *'regional languages...don't play role in the development of the country'*. The questionnaire responses also illustrate that most of the postgraduate students have inclination for Urdu as L1 instead of Punjabi (see Table 6.2) but Urdu is a mother tongue of only 7% population (see Table 1.1). BST2 points out, *'Sindhi are making more efforts than Punjabis'* to promote their language in Sindh. Sindhi has been established as a language of instruction in which the basic education is imparted in Sindh but Punjab has to tackle with Punjabi/Seraiki controversy, therefore, Punjabi cannot be recognised as a medium of instruction in Punjab. Thus, these two leading languages, particularly Urdu, has struck a blow to Punjabi.

6.10.1 Evidence of multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity

This research acknowledges the various influences, such as; multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity have affected students' perceptions towards the acquisition of ESL (English as second language). Informant QVS2 agrees:

'The culture, religious education and ego of different ethnic groups like Sindhis, Balochis, Punjabis become hurdles in the implementation of effective language policy'.

Respondent BSS3 also believes, *'multilingualism affects language policy in Pakistan'* and *'we fail to obtain educational aims because of multilingualism'* (BSS2). The people are multilingual because they speak more than two languages, likely to be regional languages, national language (NL) and English as a foreign language (EFL). These comments can be linked up to the insight that multilingualism has engendered ethnic and linguistic identities in Pakistan because many of them are fond of their mother tongues or regional languages and are sentimental about them. The respondent BST6

realistically describes the state of affairs, *'language policies and planning focus on English in higher education but we are still facing cultural and ethnic problems'*. Pakistani cultural heritage and ethnic identities are mainly based on regions i.e. Baluchistan, Khyber Pukhtunkhwah, Punjab and Sindh and religions i.e. Islam, Christianity, Hinduism etc. (see Chapter 2). The history tells us wherever in the region mother tongues received importance; it was the result of people's own personal efforts. The violence in the past symbolises people's love for their mother tongues. It is indicated in Chapter 2 that language could be made a political tool.

Thus, responses signify that people are *'emotionally attached to their languages'* (BST6) and teachers in the classroom *'avoid talking about ethnicity'* (QVT3) and believe that *'national language'* (BST1) to counteract these fissiparous tendencies. At present, Punjab is struggling against the *'Punjabi and Seraiki'* contention (QVT4). Respondent QVS3 discusses the situation in detail:

'The creation of Pakistan started the dispute over languages. The policies were dominated and tilted towards the interests of Punjabis. There was a language problem which led to breakage of Pakistan...the government has to take concrete steps to resolve cultural and ethnic differences and eliminate discrimination so that we can live in a stabilised language society'.

This response confirms history that language policy is problematic in Pakistan and has resulted into riots a number of times. It must be resolved in such a way that it benefits the whole society without any discrimination. Respondent QVT4 describes the situation:

'Policy makers are multilingual, multiculturalists and belong to different ethnic groups. Politicians don't want English to be used as a language of instruction. For example, Khyber Pukhtun Kawah wants Pushto to be medium of instruction at Primary level. This can hinder the policy of single medium of instruction at university level'.

This situation points to the fact that even the policy makers themselves have cultural and linguistic differences which is an encumbrance when trying to arrive at a beneficial unanimous consensus. The informants take the view that politicians prioritise their own self-interests rather than implementing serious moves towards the resolution of the prevailing linguistic complexity. Thus, this very complex linguistic situation makes it very difficult to resolve which language is used as a medium of instruction.

6.11 Views on the role and status of different varieties of English in Pakistani Universities

The questionnaires and the focus group interviews explored participants’ feelings and opinions about Pakistani English (PakE) and the extent to which they see it as a new variety of English because it offers an expedient solution to assist students to overcome their hesitation to use English without flinching in the classroom. The language policy document does not include reference to the notion of World Englishes. The students are perplexed about ‘which English’ is more appropriate for academic writing and speech?

Pakistanis are exposed to various varieties of English, such as British English, American English etc. The perceptions of which varieties of English are used in the universities signify that QVU’s 77.9% and BSU’s 67.5% postgraduate students report that there are variations in the Englishes used in Pakistani universities (see Tables 6.37 & 6.38). It is interesting to note that 89% QV students and 81.8% BS students report that their teachers speak Pakistani English. It is noted that 77% QV students and 63.5% of BSU and 79.2% and 59.1% of both universities in that order disagree that their teachers speak American (AmE) and British English (BrE) (see Tables 6.37 & 6.38).

Table 6.37 QVU’s postgraduate students’ perceptions of varieties of English in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Varieties of English in Pakistani universities (Q.40)	4.4%	12.4%	43.8%	34.1%	3.91
Teachers speak Pakistani English (Q.43)	2.2%	8.0%	48.7%	40.3%	4.17
Teachers speak American English (Q.44)	33.2%	43.8%	9.3%	9.7%	2.19
Teachers speak British English (Q.45)	38.9%	40.3%	9.7%	6.2%	2.04

Table 6.38 BSU's postgraduate students' perceptions of varieties of English in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Varieties of English in Pakistani universities(Q.40)	8.4%	10.2%	40.4%	27.1%	3.68
Teachers speak Pakistani English (Q.43)	4.0%	6.7%	42.7%	39.1%	4.06
Teachers speak American English (Q.44)	35.1%	28.4%	10.7%	3.6%	2.19
Teachers speak British English (Q.45)	33.3%	25.8%	13.8%	4.0%	2.29

6.12 Analysis of linguistic features of Pakistani English (PakE)

As explained in Chapter 5 (p.115), the transcriptions of highly qualified university teachers were analysed to find out some new linguistic features of Pakistani English (PakE). The debate in Chapter 3 suggests that Pakistani English has evolved its own identity; however, this section maintains focus on educated Pakistanis' verbal communication features particularly in lexis and grammar. The following examples have been taken from the transcriptions of university teachers.

6.12.1 Lexis

It is discussed in Chapter 3 that some of the words are borrowed from local languages which display a different semantic range in Pakistani English (PakE). This section describes that using vocabulary in a distinctive way also has become another characteristic feature of Pakistani English (PakE). The examples of PakE presented below indicate diversion from BrSE:

- (i) We don't have *ample* literature in Punjabi language. (sufficient)
- (ii) We must necessarily *confine* to single language. (use)
- (iii) We have to *make* ourselves up to the level of world acceptability. (bring)

It is noted that Pakistanis have tendency to make frequent use of semi-modals ‘need’ and ‘want’ to express their opinions. Some examples are:

- (i) There is *need* of one language.
- (ii) We *need* a well-established model.
- (iii) We *want* to classify it.

6.12.2 Grammar

The study analyses some syntactic features of Pakistani English, such as the distinctive use or non-use of articles. Following are a few examples:

- (i) English medium is compulsory at university level (Omission of ‘the’).
- (ii) Our graduates go abroad and they have to follow English medium of instruction (Omission of ‘the’).
- (iii) Most of students are reluctant to accept English as *a* medium of instruction (‘the’ can be more appropriately used).

The prepositions are also specifically used:

- (i) We have sufficient knowledge *in* Pakistani English. (of)
- (ii) If they are not good *in* reading and speaking how could they be good in writing. (at)

In addition to features described above, I found the frequent use of ‘have to’ which shows obligation.

- (i) They *have to* use memorisation.
- (ii) We *have to* transfer the knowledge.
- (iii) We *have to* incorporate all this in our policy.

Further, it is observed that complex tenses such as past perfect tense is avoided which causes simplification in PakE. By looking at these variations, it can be interpreted that educated PakE is loaded with innovations.

6.13 Perceptions about Pakistani English (PakE) as a variety of English

The evidence demonstrates participants’ beliefs about their preference and acceptance of Pakistani English (PakE). Significantly, it is seen that 13 QV teachers and the same population of BSU report that Pakistanis accept Pakistani English (PakE) as the variety of English (see Tables 6.33 and 6.34). Interestingly, 84% and 75.1% MAE1 stu-

dents of QVU and BSU express their preference for Pakistani English. The responses show that 60.6% QV students and 60.5 % of BSU disagree that they have interest in British English. The findings further discover that 61% QV students and 60.9% of BSU report that they are not influenced by American English (see Tables 6.39 & 6.40).

Table 6.39 QVU’s postgraduate students’ views about which English?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Preference for PakE (Q.46)	2.7%	9.7%	38.9%	45.1%	4.14
Interest in British English (Q.47)	30.5%	30.1%	21.2%	12.4%	2.55
Influence of American English (Q.48)	26.5%	34.5%	22.2%	9.7%	2.54

Table 6.40 BSU’s postgraduate students’ views about which English?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Preference for PakE (Q.46)	9.8%	8.9%	42.2%	32.9%	3.80
Interest in British English (Q.47)	22.7%	37.8%	13.8%	12.0%	3.03
Influence of American English (Q.48)	26.2%	34.7%	19.1%	8.4%	2.99

Respondent QVT3 states, ‘*English is not our language we are trying to communicate in this language as best as we can*’. Pakistanis are not native speakers of British and American Englishes, but are using Pakistani English (PakE) as an informant QVS3 says, ‘*Pakistani English is a language of Pakistan.*’ Participant BSS1 states, ‘*we are using Pakistani English. Some examples are ‘rail gari’, ‘shopper’ etc*’. Informant BST1 remarks:

'We are not primary users of British and American Englishes...we use our own English that is Pakistani...Pakistani English is more acceptable than British or American English. In order to enhance learning, we should use Pakistani English'.

Interestingly, participants feel that they are users of Pakistani English which is different from other World Englishes and they identify Pakistani English as one of the languages of Pakistan along with the national language and the regional languages. Participant BST6 comments, *'both spoken and written modes of Pakistani English are different from native varieties'*. The interviewee BST1 says, *'Pakistani English is accepted because articles written by Pakistani authors are accepted by the Pakistani community'*. BST2 communicates his opinion as *'we have English newspapers and we can say that Pakistani English is different'*. As pointed out in Chapter 3 and confirmed by respondent QVT3 below Pakistani English has borrowed many words from Urdu. The word construction is influenced by Urdu language; obsolete words which no longer exist in British Standard English (BrSE) are used and the sentence structure varies from BrSE (see Chapter 4).

'Pakistani English can be different regarding speaking skill for instance we say 'shopper' instead of shopping bag. We have modified English but it's not one way traffic, English has modified Urdu too. In Urdu language, many words are borrowed from English. Similarly, we construct words in Urdu that influence our way of speaking English. We are using obsolete words but not many of them. The sentence structure is different from natives but its not intentional effort to make it different. We are confused about American and British spellings. Usually, we accept both of them'.

Teacher BST3 agrees, *'Pakistani English for use in assessment and instruction is acceptable'*. Respondent QVS6 says, *'Pakistani English is being used for teaching in schools and universities. It is easy for Pakistani students'*. There are English newspapers, journals, books and magazines in Pakistani English so it can be claimed that PakE can be used for instruction and assessment in universities to some or even a significant extent.

6.13.1 Views as to whether there is role for universities to develop PakE

Building on this practice, 13 QV teachers and 13 BS teachers acknowledge that universities can play a significant role to develop PakE. 12 QV teachers and 14 BS

teachers report that universities should take measures to tackle the problem of issue of varieties of English (see Tables 6.33 & 6.34). Informant QVT4 believes that like other World Englishes Pakistani English can thrive as well, '*there is no harm if we develop our own English. World Englishes like Srilankan English, Indian English etc. are accepted by America and Britain*'. Another respondent suggests, '*it should be used in curricula and syllabi*' (QVS6). But respondent BSS3 presents a conflicting view '*I think for assessment we need Standard English*' raises an important question of Standard Englishes and the issue of the non-native varieties of English which are assumed to be legitimate with their own norms in some contexts.

6.13.2 Addressing the issue of World Englishes in language policies in Universities

It is evidently noted that 13 teachers of QVU and 14 teachers of BSU report that the issue of World Englishes should be addressed in language policies so that appropriate steps can be taken to develop Pakistani English (see Tables 6.33 & 6.34). Similarly, focus group interviews also propound that the concept of PakE must be discussed in language policies. Respondent BSS2 asserts, '*the policy makers and politicians should be convinced of developing Pakistani English*'. It is important to include the concept of PakE in teacher education and language policy so that awareness is raised and measures can be discussed for its expansion.

6.13.3 Challenges facing the development of Pakistani English

Some responses show that Pakistani English is a new concept and people will take time to accept it. Pakistanis acknowledge that British and American Englishes are Standard Englishes and Pakistani English is significantly of less value at an international level. The respondent BST3 comments:

'Pakistanis think that British and American Englishes are standard Englishes and best in the world. They fear that Pakistani English is of no value at an International level/ scenario'.

Interestingly, PakE has also varieties of English such as Punjabi English, Sindhi English and Seraiki English, as respondent BST4 says, '*the accent in Pakistan changes at every 20 miles....even in Pakistan, we have varieties of English i.e. Punjabi English, Sindhi English, Seraiki English etc*'.

However, a few constraints have been pointed out that might hinder the progress of PakE. Respondent BST4 reflects, *'the problem is that we lack funding and experts to develop Pakistani English'*. BST5 ruminates:

'People still believe that English is a colonial language and if we promote English, we try to promote colonialism. It's kind of neo-colonialism which is imposed by their agents. Secondly, we lack writers in Pakistani English. Thirdly, the major problem is its acceptance at a global level'.

Regarding the current changing scenario of the country, the language policy in Pakistan is confronted with some significant complexities. For example, English in Pakistan is still struggling to combat internal forces which associate English language with British imperialism. Thus, the perception of Pakistani English as one of the languages of Pakistan is juxtaposed by its connection with colonialism. Keeping in view the current political situation in Pakistan, participant BST6 believes:

'Pakistani society is rapidly turning to islamisation and fundamentalism that might act as a resistance to the development of Pakistani English. They might consider it a conspiracy against Muslims and Islam if we promote English in this society'.

The rapid conversion to islamisation might act as a resistance to the maturity of PakE. Its expansion might be presumed as a conspiracy against Muslims and Islam because English is still believed as a colonial language and its spreading out might be assumed as a kind of neo-colonialism.

6.14 University teachers' views on teacher education in Pakistan

Further, the teacher education in Pakistan forces its way into the discussion - an insight provoked from the above described perceptions. The results signify that 10 QV teachers and 14 BS teachers report that ELT methods should be used to teach M.A Education (see Tables 6.5 & 6.6). The respondent BSS2 remarks, *'we lack professional teachers who can satisfy students'*. Informant BST2's opinion is worth mentioning, *'the problem is with teachers, the way they teach English and the ultimate responsibility lies in teacher education in Pakistan'*. As mentioned above, the majority of English teachers are not trained to teach English as a foreign or second language, thus, it is very important to impart appropriate pedagogical training to them so that they can teach effectively in the classroom. The perceptions indicate that M.A Education students undergo academic problems in universities because they were

taught English until Bachelors' levels using Grammar Translation Method (GTM). The university teachers express their views that English is a compulsory subject until Bachelor's level but postgraduate students are unable to communicate effectively in English, it means English teachers in Pakistan are not well equipped with the latest English language teaching (ELT) methodology.

The responses suggest that teacher education could play a crucial role in the development of Pakistani English '*we are using varieties of English for instruction and assessment at university level... only solution is teacher education*' (BST5). Respondent QVT5 suggests, '*but we will require trainers to develop it*' and measures should be taken '*to standardise and classify it*' (BST1). Thus, it is suggested that the issue of World Englishes needs to be raised in teacher education programmes to create awareness in students that they are using mixture of British, American and Pakistani English. It is also implied that teacher education can assist in the standardising process of Pakistani English to endorse its recognition and acceptance in Pakistan.

The presentation of data in this chapter has focussed on views about the importance of English, English medium of instruction, language learning challenges, language anxiety and motivation, pedagogy and pedagogical dilemmas, teacher education, cultural and linguistic diversity in universities and Pakistani English. The perceptions of participants suggest that these issues appear to be the result of discrepancies between the policy and practice of English medium of instruction in Pakistani universities.

CHAPTER 7. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

Chapter 7 discusses the findings presented in the previous chapter. Keeping in view the research questions (p.21), the chapter starts off with the debate on the importance of English for work and study in Pakistan and then moves on to explain the policy of EMI in Pakistani universities. The difference between policy and practice of EMI is indicated with the discussion about the formal and informal uses of English at university level in Pakistan. It is also discussed that postgraduate students experience barriers to language learning. The viewpoints make it clear that postgraduate students experience language anxiety and the university teachers experience pedagogical dilemmas arising from English as the medium of instruction (EMI). It is argued how language in education policy in Pakistan is enacted upon by influences, such as multilingualism, cultural diversity and ethnicity. The ELT scenario also affects the implementation of EMI in universities. Side by side, the responses raise some other important issues which are the role of motivation, teacher education and Pakistani English (PakE) in universities.

7.1 Importance of English in Pakistan

I discussed in Chapter 3 that a multitude of external and internal influences smoothed the progress of English's place in Pakistan. English is a global language and has an intimate association with the transformation of orthodox values and traditions in the sense that it is generally needed for a country's development and modernisation acting as a lingua franca because of its extensive utilisation in work and study. This section will discuss the evidence about the various uses and benefits of English which mutually determine its importance in the country. Before going into the specific discussion about the value of English in Pakistan, it is certainly useful to consider the significance of English in general.

The findings support that learning English carries a number of rewards and few if any significant disadvantages. The postmodern world is eventually shaped into a global village mainly through technology and English as the world language. Using the internet is like travelling into cyber space which has exposed us to social, cultural, political, geographical, historical and economic information about the international world. In Pakistan, English is a source of entertainment, such as movies, music etc.

and also needed for reading books, correspondence via emails, tourism etc. (p.67). Besides these uses, Pakistanis' knowhow of the English language has also captured the attention of foreign investors into the country (p.55).

7.1.1 Language of administration

The questionnaire data confirms English's association with socio-politico, economic and educational state of affairs (see Tables 6.3 & 6.4). These functions concurrently go hand in hand with perceptions that English is an 'official language', a 'lingua franca', and a 'business language' (p.130). But views about people's inadequate command of English seem to undermine the avowed claims about the widespread use of English as it is clear that only those people who are educated at English medium institutions are capable of using English for the purposes of administration (p.130). This interpretation can be further justified with the explanation that in Pakistan, English is mostly used for office work for writing purposes but it is necessary to use both English and Urdu (or another language), in other words to code switch to achieve this.

7.1.2 Requirement for higher education

The respondents share the view that the foremost purpose of education in English is to equip students with essential English language skills to enable them to participate confidently in various activities, such as coping with university studies, travelling abroad etc. (see Tables 6.7 & 6.8). However, the university faculty's comments indicate that a large number of students find international proficiency tests, such as IELTS, TOEFL etc. hard to qualify for admission in foreign universities because of insufficient language skills (p.133). These views explicitly illustrate that the post-graduate students experience language problems in the process of studying in the medium of English. Therefore, in order to go abroad for higher education, they need to improve their study skills.

7.1.3 Essential for employment and career development

The questionnaire data show that the respondents are aware of the need for English language for getting a reasonable job and career (see Tables 6.7 & 6.8). It is perceived to qualify someone for interviews for esteemed professional opportunities. Those candidates who have education in English medium have better communication skills as compared to those who are educated in Urdu medium institutions (p.78). Some respondents believe that impressive spoken English is more important than the knowl-

edge about the subject (p.131). The impression gathered from these perceptions is their natural restlessness at the prospect of seeing highly paid jobs in the hands of those who are endowed with effective communicative ability in English (p.131). Those people whose spoken English is not up to the required standard are destined to look for low prestige employments.

7.1.4 Adoption of liberal outlook

Many postgraduate students of both universities agree with the view that acquisition of English language helps to broaden progressive outlook (see Tables 6.3 & 6.4) and university teachers of both universities also agree that English enhances liberal values in people (see Tables 6.3 & 6.4). The focus group data suggest that the development of English throughout the country will enable Pakistan to be a modern democratic nation as people might rise above ethnic, cultural and linguistic barriers (p.135). Initially, English language's role was to serve as a tool to make Pakistan a member of global society, the modern state and the hegemonic nation where multiple cultural, ethnic and linguistic entities are assimilated on one platform. However, perceptions of attaining modernity and democracy through English are long term goals which can possibly be achieved with the facilitation of consistent English language instruction throughout the country.

7.1.5 Development of the country

According to respondents, English can play a vital role in the development of the country (p.136). It is not possible to share the knowledge of advanced countries without access to English (p.136). English is a need for economic prosperity and political development of the country (p.18), indicating that national economic development is the most important issue and is dependent on access to modern technology. The notion of socio-economic ideology comes across which emphasises the economic needs of the society as a justification for the teaching of English (p.80). The findings also suggest that besides being indispensable for progress, it has further classified the society by bestowing socio-economic prosperity upon those who know better English (p.135). Significantly, the issue of social justice is also discovered to be embedded with the role of English in the country which perceptively mirrors the gap between the haves and have-nots (p.41). This point can be linked to discussion in Chapter 2 that the purpose of diverse media of education was to create privileged and non-privileged

streams in society. The group emerging from English medium schools will rule the country and the rest of the community will serve this governing class (p.41).

However, some respondents' view is that economic development is a different issue which is not essentially dependent on the use of English in the country (p.135). At the same time, the opinions suggest that many developed countries are teaching in their own languages, such as China, Japan etc. and these countries are as economically prosperous as English speaking countries of inner circle (p.135).

7.2 Policy and practice of English medium of instruction in universities

In a nutshell, the previous section discusses that according to the evidence, English is imperative for the political, economic, social and educational development of the country. Despite the immense importance of English, it is perceived that justice is not being done to the use of EMI in universities. The policy of EMI is a debatable issue. Most of the teachers confirm that English is an official medium of instruction in universities (see Tables 6.3 & 6.4). However, their comments also indicate that although they are instructed to teach using EMI, in default mode they revert to Urdu for the explanation of their lectures delivered in English (p.139). For example, one respondent explains that Philosophy of Education is a challenging course for students, therefore, to demonstrate the meanings of difficult terms, such as pragmatism, realism etc. s/he translates them in Urdu (p.140). Significantly, they are making partial use of EMI in classroom (p.140). Although, the language policy states that English medium of instruction should be used at university level, it is interpreted from participants' views that it has never included any section about the basic principles of EMI.

7.3 Formal and informal uses of English in universities

Although we have already argued previously that English has acquired a justifiable place in the language policy because of its long history, neutrality and functions as a lingua franca, it is necessary to examine the significance of what the participants say about the various uses of English which indicate the difference between policy and practice of EMI in universities.

7.3.1 English for lecturing in classroom

The responses imply that university teachers have an inclination towards using both Urdu and English in classroom (see Tables 6.11 & 6.12). The university teachers'

views further emphasise that at Master's level most of the students do not have the required proficiency in English (p.141), therefore, they have to switch over to Urdu wherever necessary to provide examples from Pakistani cultural, religious, social and economic context for clarification of concepts (p.140).

The students and teachers report that they find both language and content of courses difficult to comprehend (p.141) which is indicated by their blank faces and the request for the translation of lecture in Urdu (p.139). The evidence deduced from the MAE1 students' questionnaire also strengthens teachers' views about the wide-range use of Urdu for teaching in classroom (see Tables 6.17 & 6.18). The students report that EMI is a problem for them and they can learn better if teachers explain in Urdu (p.147). Hence, teachers in order to cope with this situation use their own strategies rather than engaging in the policy of EMI in classroom.

7.3.2 Curriculum at university level

The curriculum materials are in English and, as shown in Tables 6.21 & 6.22, most of MAE1 students of both universities report the availability of reading material in English. It is clear from the teachers' focus group interview that they are aware of the plan in the 1980s to establish Urdu as the medium of instruction in universities. Zia ul Haq's government established a few institutions to translate the reading materials in Urdu but that initiative failed to gain wholehearted recognition (p.142), therefore, efforts in that direction went in vain without producing much productive results. Perhaps, it is for this reason that university teachers explain their lectures with examples in Urdu but do not provide the reading material in Urdu because the national language (NL) has not been enriched in terms of translation.

MAE1 students claim that the terminology of courses transcends their comprehension level, so regarding this, they realise that it is essential to have competence in English to access and understand books and journals in English. In such a situation, teachers need to do beforehand preparation for their lectures. They also report that they face difficulties arising partly from their own insufficient proficiency in English and also because reading materials taken from western educational context require adaptation in terms of translation, notes and local examples (p.142).

7.3.3 Classroom discussion

For classroom discussion, tables 6.17 & 6.18 demonstrate that many MAE1 students do not speak English in classroom, but report using Urdu mostly. Despite the fact they have language problems; the responses suggest an interesting finding. MAE1 students aspire to having classroom discussion in English (Tables 6.19 & 6.20) because it will provide them practice in spoken English. This suggestion can be related to their apprehensions about getting good jobs after the completion of their programmes. The empirical evidence reports that teachers allow students to use Urdu in classroom (Tables 6.13 & 6.14). The teachers admit that MAE1 are hesitant and inexpressive in English (p.143). Therefore, they advise their students to discuss their ideas in Urdu to because they will prefer to be passive listeners rather than participating actively in classroom discussions. These students apparently lack confidence to communicate effectively in English, possibly because speaking skill is neglected in a typical Pakistani classroom.

This perception sheds light on the constraints of the ELT classroom in Pakistan where there is little chance to cover aural/oral skills in the earlier stages of education. So, it seems that most of the students with a rural background are not motivated to learn English because of the challenges they face in universities. These students learned English through bilingual teaching method; therefore, they expect their university teachers to permit them to participate in Urdu in classroom activities. On the positive side, the bilingual method of teaching helps to clarify students' concepts in their languages. However it does not encourage extension of the communication skills of the learners in the target language (p.83). At the same time, it is possible to suggest that some teachers also prefer to use Urdu in classroom because their own communication skills in English are questionable (p.143).

7.3.4 Assessment in English

The primary function of teaching English in Pakistan is to prepare pupils for examinations. Passing examinations in English opens doors to higher levels of learning and to employment opportunities. The numerical evidence from the students' questionnaire (see Tables 6.19 & 6.20) and teachers' perceptions confirm the practice that examinations are conducted in English in Pakistan (p.142). However, the evidence also demonstrates that many MAE1 students are stressed by written examinations because they

believe they have inadequate academic skills and feel that they can perform better in Urdu (p.147). The views also suggest that on account of language learning difficulties students have strong faith in their potential for rote memorisation (p.142) which has likely been utilised since the beginning of their education for getting through the examinations. This also affects their motivation to develop competence in English. Chapter 4 has also described the drawbacks inherent in the Pakistani examination system (p.87). There are problems with the relationship between what is tested, how it is tested and the actual needs of the learners. The examinations neither address the needs of learners nor do allow them to express their creativity, originality and critical reflection (p.86). Thus, conspicuous absence of these aspects in the current examination system leads to negative wash back (p.88).

7.3.5 Which language for social interaction and co-curricular activities?

There are a variety of views in this area. The questionnaire responses (see Tables 6.25 & 6.26) depict MAE1's longing to improve their spoken English. On the other hand, many students would like Urdu to be used for co-curricular activities in universities because they have more fluency in it as compared to English (p.152). Many university teachers also agree about using Urdu for informal conversation in universities (see Tables 6.15 & 6.16). Although, many of them acknowledge Punjabi to be the mother tongue (p.129), it is perceived as discussed previously that they do not have predisposition for speaking Punjabi in universities. This notion can be linked to the above stated idea of culture shame and negative ethnicity in Punjab. Their idea of 'dominance of English' brings to mind linguistic imperialism and worldwide significance of English, but at the same time, is thwarted by the notion of 'inferiority complex' that can be ironically interpreted as an excuse for lack of fluency in English (p.145).

7.4 Barriers to learning English

Despite the importance of English for the development of the country, language policies have never planned to carry out the situational evaluation of the educational scenario and reflect on the postgraduate students' needs for attaining higher education. It is probably assumed that having been exposed to English for many years, postgraduate students have enough English to perform satisfactorily; therefore, they do not need a course in English language, communication skills or study skills. In accordance with the evidence, one of the most important barriers to language learning is anxiety which

is unwittingly demonstrated by MAE1's stress in reading texts and teachers' lectures in English, the tension of written examinations and hesitation to speak English in classroom (p.153-157). Language anxiety has been found to interfere with many types of learning and negatively influences language learning (p.92), therefore, EMI in universities has affected attitudes negatively towards the use of English in universities because of this stress (p.157).

Chapter 4 discussed the necessity of having information about language anxiety to understand how learners approach language learning and with what expectations for success or failure. Studies suggest that it is also important to know what makes them struggle with study (p.92-93). The evidence from participants confirms that students who had Urdu medium education 'are reluctant to accept English' and 'don't feel comfortable with English' (p.157). Moreover, students consider their language problems a 'stress' (p.157). The anxious language learners feel uncomfortable with their abilities even if their objective abilities are good. These postgraduate students report that they do not have confidence to express themselves in English as they are weak in four skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Most of the MAE1 students take the view that their language problems are outcomes of the English as the medium of instruction. Many students report that all four skills are difficult to handle (see Tables 6.29 & 6.30). The results displayed in Tables 6.31 & 6.32, suggest that FLA is influential in students' unenthusiastic feelings towards English language learning and EMI, leading to some of their uncommunicativeness, self consciousness and stress (p.93).

7.4.1 Difficulty in comprehending teachers' lectures in English

The numerical findings (see Tables 6.31 & 6.32) indicate that most of MAE1 students experience tension of comprehending teachers' lectures in English. The teachers' perceptions confirm that students cannot follow accurately the 'instructions delivered in English' (p.141). It is believed that aural-oral skills of these students were not well attended in schools and colleges. The main reason for this neglect is that the focus of the lesson in classroom is maintained on reading and writing skills. The cable and internet services are commonly available in Pakistan but it appears that these postgraduate students are not interested in listening activities, for example, English news

and movies. It is important for both teachers and students to utilise internet so that English language proficiency can be enhanced.

7.4.2 Anxiety to talk in English

It appears that students in the conversation class experience higher levels of FLA (p.93). The empirical data demonstrate that many MAE1 students are anxious to respond in English in classroom (see Tables 6.31 & 6.32). These students also feel that it is 'difficult to speak English' and 'they can't express their ideas fluently' (p.141). The evidence shows that they are nonetheless keen on learning spoken English for bright future prospects but they need encouragement to practise it frequently in the classroom (p.142).

7.4.3 Confusion in understanding of reading texts

The numerical results signify that many MAE1 students are confused about interpreting the foreign authors' writing and thoughts (see Tables 6.31 & 6.32) and consider reading texts a 'burden'. Regarding reading skill, MAE1 students are perplexed 'to understand the concepts' (p.141). They claim that they spend most of their time on understanding the 'language first' and then on 'grasping the content' (p.141). Besides the challenge of understanding language and content of reading materials, another issue is the identification with the context of foreign reading texts which also hinders pupils' interpretive ability. The augmentation of cultural pluralism can enrich students' ability to understand reading texts from wide-ranging contexts (p.80).

The concepts provided in articles and books are taxing for MAE1 students because of their insufficient vocabulary and unfamiliarity with terminology in English. Their learning style also interferes with the conceptualisation of knowledge. They are prone to commit to memory the content of books and articles rather than decoding the information by utilising critical, introspective and interpretative faculties. Many teachers also believe in lecturing rather than engaging students in classroom discussion of reading materials.

7.4.4 Stress of written examinations

The numerical evidence shows that many MAE1 students find writing a complex skill to be acquired (see Tables 6.31 & 6.32). The teachers' perceptions are that these students are not trained in satisfactory practices of academic writing (p.161). It is perti-

ment to know that writing is not an innate natural ability but is a cognitive ability and has to be acquired through years of training or schooling. Although, in Pakistan, English is taught as a second language and writing is a compulsory skill, during the whole period of education students in universities face great difficulty to express themselves in accurate English. The academic writing is a dilemma for these postgraduate students. They memorise the contents of articles and books and attempt to reproduce them. They tend to be descriptive instead of synthesising and evaluating the knowledge. They are neither taught planning, drafting, structuring and editing of essays nor about providing referencing to avoid plagiarism. The main objective for postgraduate study should be enabling these students to be original and critical writers.

7.4.5 Perceptions of World Englishes creating language learning difficulties for students

Most of the university teachers perceive that WEs cause language learning difficulties which engender language anxiety in students (see Tables 6.33 & 6.34), because many MAE1 students feel confounded by American and British varieties (p.145), especially by variant spellings and pronunciation of the same words (Tables 6.35 & 6.36). Perhaps teachers could undertake to point out these variations so that they are not seen as threats. It has already been argued that MAE1 students hesitate to talk in English because of the lack of fluency (p.160). It is perceived that their ‘poor pronunciation’ also gets in the way of speaking English confidently in class (p.160).

7.4.6 Areas of need in developing English language skills

English language proficiency involves uses that may range from a simple task, such as discussing work with fellow students, to complex tasks, such as writing an academic paper or delivering a presentation to a professional audience. It can be said that all students need to acquire specific academic literacy skills during their studies, and the acquisition of these skills is part of improving English language proficiency. The respondents believe that the most MAE1 students do not have the desired language proficiency, and therefore, they are bound to experience language problems which negatively have impact on their attitudes towards EMI in universities. Many respondents agree that the inclusion of English language courses in M.A Education programmes would be beneficial for providing assistance in developing specific aspects of their English language proficiency (see Tables 6.31 & 6.32).

7.4.7 The role of motivation in second language acquisition

The preceding debate evidently reflects M.A Education students' language problems which are evident in their stress of reading texts, tension of written examinations and hesitation to participate in English in classroom discussions. The questionnaires and the focus group interviews do not include any questions on motivation (see Chapter 6) but the university teachers report their view that if students are motivated intrinsically they can develop their academic skills in universities (p.160). Therefore, along with language anxiety, motivation comes to the surface.

Positive motivation is necessary to encourage learners' achievement in EFL as in substantial amount it can certainly make up deficiencies in language aptitude and learning conditions (p.94). Moreover, this kind of motivation can assist MAE1 students to rise above their' anxiety regarding the use of EMI in classroom. Pakistani university students mostly learn English using instrumental and integrative motivation which in unison is useful to develop their practical and interpersonal qualities (p.96). They need instrumental motivation to enhance English language academic and communicative skills which can direct them to gain success in society with the provision of education and satisfactory employment. On the other hand, integrative motivation inculcates liberal values and can be of assistance to use English for social interaction.

However, besides showing interest in integrative and instrumental motivation, evidence also indicates that the use of national and regional languages can motivate students in their learning which is an additional motivation. For example, the postgraduate students show 'blank faces' (p.139) if teachers keep focus on English but when they are presented with examples from their L1 culture they feel 'much facilitated' (p.140). So the way to encourage positive motivation is to mix English with national and regional languages.

7.5 Influences: multilingualism, cultural diversity and ethnicity

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the formulation of language policy in Pakistan has been for the past 66 years a complex phenomenon that sparks controversial debates whenever it is discussed (p.17). Besides external pressures, it is obliquely affected by co-existing multifaceted constraints within the society especially in relation to multilingualism, ethnicity and cultural diversity (p.30). This predicament leads to the question of devising 'effective language policy' in Pakistan (p.162). Participants' views sup-

port this position, suggesting that it is important to address these issues in language policy (p.162).

Currently, Pakistanis are unwilling to surmount the constraints of provincial languages, cultures and caste systems (p.164). The Balochi, Pathan, Punjabi, Seraiki and Sindhi provincial identities come into confrontation with Pakistani national identity (p.164). It is construed that language policy preferred English and Urdu over regional languages to strengthen national identity and to weaken provincial identities. It is suggested in Chapter 2 that Urdu represents Muslim unity and Islamic culture while English symbolises intercontinental, sophisticated and open-minded culture in the community (p.35). In a way, the development of these two languages served the purpose of strengthening linguistic and cultural hegemony in the society because their choice compromised neutral languages to thwart ethnic nationalist tendencies while attempting to reduce linguistic and cultural diversity in the country. Thus, the state declared Urdu, the national language, to be the marker of identity and an integrative device for five major ethnic groups because as the evidence signifies, it is important to 'resolve cultural and ethnic differences' so that people can 'live in a stabilised language society' (p.164). At the same time, the question of regional languages arises because they epitomise cultural diversity in the country.

The teachers express their opinions that the most debilitating conflict in the language policy of Pakistan is the issue of English and Urdu controversy which has possibly been intentionally maintained in synchronization with the prevailing political scenario in the country (p.162). One of the problems is found in the fact that language policies in Pakistan are devised by politicians representing different provinces, who have never probed into the local and global needs with regards to languages (p.164). It is also read between the lines that the policy makers are not able to decide on a suitable medium of instruction for the country. In fact, it is surmised, they resist the efforts made in the direction of single medium of instruction as politicians in Khyber Pakhtunkawh wish for Pashto to be the medium of instruction in that province (p.165). The data suggest that if EMI is important for higher education, then tangible measures must be executed for its implementation in universities rather than creating elusiveness with vague proclamations in policies that it might be replaced with Urdu

at some point in the future. Thus, these policy makers are chiefly concerned about their own priorities and not of masses in the general (p.162).

The point made in Chapter 2 was that eminent linguists believe that multilingualism is important to maintain linguistic and cultural diversity in the world (p.37) but evidence in this research appears to show that ‘multilingualism affects language policy’ negatively and does not ensure the ‘educational aims’ in universities. The university teachers also identify that not merely hesitation (p.164) but culture also restricts students from speaking English because most of the students’ social background is rural where they are not much exposed to the use of English. In addition, respondents believe that ethnicity is a contentious issue, so discussion about it is deliberately avoided in classroom (p.165). It is inferred from these examples that multilingualism, cultural diversity and ethnicity attempt to segregate the society by struggling against the ideology of national unity.

It is implied that besides resisting nationalism these aspects of society also come into conflict with the formulation and implementation of EMI in higher education. The university teachers claim that they have the tendency to be bilingual in classroom to explain the concepts with examples derived from the pupils’ native culture (p.136) but on close scrutiny the recurrence of words ‘national language’ (NL) and ‘culture’ in their conversation imply reverence for Urdu language and pride in Pakistani culture. These words while representing their national identity also show movement away from the policy of using EMI in the classroom.

7.5.1 The status of regional languages in Pakistan

In relation to national ideology, it is noted that respondents also express their views about the status of regional languages in Pakistan. Some believe that regional languages should be promoted because they can preserve the culture and traditions (p.163) but at the same time their opinion is that the aim of regional languages should only be oral communication because they do not play a role in the development of the country and can never take the place of official languages which are fulfilling the needs of the people (p.164). On one hand, there is an issue of national integration and on the other, the language rights of minority languages. The majority languages replace minority languages in all important functional uses. In colleges and schools, regional languages, such as Punjabi, Pashto, Seraiki and Sindhi are offered as optional

languages along with other oriental languages, such as Arabic and Persian. These regional languages are taught only in their particular regions. For example, Sindhi is not taught in Punjab or alternatively, Punjabi is not prescribed in the curriculum in Sindh and so on (p.164). Urdu and English have become dominant languages and the regional languages mostly in universities are not normally used (p.164). This explains that multilingualism can be a disadvantage as it leads to inadequate proficiency in any of the languages.

It is interesting to note that some teachers create 'humour' in the classroom in their mother tongue because they feel that humour can be best shared in one's mother tongue (p.163). It is perceived that when lectures loaded with difficult terminology in English confuse postgraduate students, teachers instinctively revert to telling jokes in Punjabi or Urdu to cheer up the classroom environment. Further, it is surmised from the evidence that the regional languages have a value in deepening the 'creativity' in students (p.163). It is important to mention that Pakistanis are a creative nation. Pakistani literary treasures include Suffiana (mystic) poetry, folklores, classical and modern poetry and modern prose which are composed in Urdu and regional languages. Similarly, like giving vent to creative and imaginative talents genuinely in one's L1, one can ruminate more deeply in one's native language. To support the development of regional languages, some participants suggest that philosophical courses in regional languages should be introduced in colleges which will certainly expand students' introspective faculties (p.163). Regarding these views, it can be argued that these courses will also be helpful to develop academic rationalism in pupils (p.79) which means having a keen interest in the subject to that extent that it will refine their intellectual and analytical skills. The purpose of education is to facilitate students to think deeply and evaluate reasonably the content of courses rather than merely studying them from an examination perspective. Using the regional languages could assist to impart training to students regarding this noteworthy aspect of education. Once academic rationalism is developed, it can be used for appraisal of curricula in English as well.

Interestingly, the responses indicate that Sindhis are more enthusiastic to promote their language as compared to Punjabis (p.164). The history shows that Punjab participated keenly to support the movement of Urdu as the national language (NL) of

Pakistan (p.164). The evidence in this study also signifies that many postgraduate students have an inclination towards Urdu as their mother tongue (p.129). It is worth mentioning that Punjab is currently undergoing a Punjabi and Seraiki controversy (p.164). Seraiki are very sentimental about their mother tongue and have also demanded a separate province due to linguistic and cultural differences (p.165). This might be an important reason for the neglect of Punjabi language in Punjab so conflicts over MTs can be avoided.

At the same time, some other participants' views suggest that various languages create discrimination in society (p.164), therefore in universities, English should be prioritised over regional languages. The regional languages should be used for domestic purposes only and have no importance in universities (p.165). It is discussed in Chapter 3 that educated Punjabis are ashamed of their mother tongue and do not like to speak it in work and study places and believe that if they will communicate in Punjabi, they will be thought of as 'Paendu' which represents an unrefined demeanour (p.50). The implication is, in Punjab, Urdu is prominently spoken rather than Punjabi particularly in Lahore district where the field study was conducted (p.129). The discussion shows that the participants express ambivalent perceptions about the role of regional languages in Pakistan. Some participants take the view that regional languages are beneficial whilst others believe that regional languages hamper the development of English language at tertiary level.

In short, it is apparent from foregoing argument that English is presumably an indispensable means for the socio-economic prosperity of the country and the views towards using national and regional languages in university have also been explored to understand, to what extent these languages have implicitly influenced postgraduate students' perceptions towards the use of English in university. The respondents report that objectives of language policy in Pakistan have not been clear since 1948 and no consistency is found in the policies of various governments. Some of the issues identified include the impact of extralinguistic factors on language policy, such as multilingualism, culture and ethnicity. The underlying obscurity in language policies has constrained the Ministry of Education to arrive at the consensus about the functions of various languages in the country. Thus, the question arises, which language is most beneficial for the country and its citizens' progress and enlightenment? Consequently,

the recipients of language policy do not know how to use English, Urdu and mother tongue proportionately. All three have ultimately become the symbols of ‘power’, ‘hegemony’ and ‘ethnicity’ respectively. Referring to previous discussion, proficiency in English empowers people because it leads them to capture attractive positions in the society, so they are socially and economically better equipped than others (p.40); Urdu represents hegemony as it has struggled to unify the nation on one platform (p.35) and multilingualism and cultural diversity had led to a divisive ethnicity which has split up the nation into different groups (p.33).

7.6 English language teaching (ELT) classroom in Pakistan

A careful look at the influences affecting implementation of the language policy leads logically to have an insight into the current ELT scenario. Bearing in mind that English is taught as a compulsory subject till grade 14 because most of the knowledge reservoirs useful to students are in English (p.161), the evidence is constructive to understand the relationship between ELT in Pakistan and postgraduate students’ language learning difficulties in universities. Focus group interviews suggest that bilingualism or multilingualism impedes English language acquisition because most of the students speak Punjabi at home and the national language in study places (p.161). The literature discusses that English is now taught from grade 1 in Punjab (p.45) but many of these postgraduate students who participated in the current research started learning English in grade 6 because they were educated in government schools (p.161). The focus of their English teachers was on bilingual education which involves the translation of English into Urdu rather than fostering pupils’ academic skills in it (p.161). Hence, the effects of such teaching are far reaching.

It is also important to mention that changes in language policy directly affect classroom teaching. For example, the participants are all aware that the focus of Zia’s language policy was on the promotion of Urdu language and that objective undermined the ability of people in English (p.44). This notion can also be related to the point discussed above that EMI has not been unequivocally explained in language policy. Also, the language policy has not taken account of the fact that students from diverse streams of education might have language problems. The responses indicate that most of the postgraduate students joining universities have been educated in Urdu medium public schools (p.129). They also studied the subject education in Urdu at Bachelor’s

level (p.129), so they would prefer to continue the education in Urdu at university level.

7.7 The role and status of Pakistani English (PakE)

It has previously been argued that World Englishes (WEs) is one of the sources of language problems, such as spellings and pronunciation. The gap between the policy and practice of EMI cannot be fully justified without bringing into discussion views about World Englishes. The language policy in Pakistan has not reflected over the developments in World Englishes. Regarding English, it is important to recognise that, along with uses, it also carries markers that identify the users or speakers of that language. The respondents indicate that encouragement of the use of Pakistani English can also help out students to use English freely as ‘their own language’ (p.154). This would imply an acceptability that is possibly implicit at present, but which might be made explicit.

Chapter 3 included a detailed description of evolution of Pakistani English. It is pointed out that South Asian English (Indian English, Pakistani English, Srilankan English, etc.) emerged because the input which people received was non-native due to scarce exposure to native varieties of English (p.64). Some non-native varieties are now considered legitimate and working in the direction of their own standards and norms. Pakistani English has also its notable features which may be differentiated from some of the native varieties of inner circle (p.72). Hence, the perceptions indicate that not merely ‘which language?’ for teaching in universities is an issue for language policy; it should also take into consideration ‘which English?’ is appropriate to help students to develop their language skills.

Significantly, many teachers of QVU and BSU report that Pakistanis accept Pakistani English (PakE) as a variety of English (see Tables 6.33 & 6.34) and this finding is supplemented by positive response rate of MAE1 students of both universities about their support / liking for Pakistani English (see Tables 6.39 & 6.40) and an emphatic claim that Pakistani English is one of the languages of Pakistan (p.169). This belief is found to be closely linked with the issue of multilingualism in Pakistan. Pakistanis are multilingual because, besides using national and regional languages, they are using English (p.31). English, as perceived, is one of the languages of Pakistan. This contemplation is reinforced by the role of English as a lingua franca. Although, American

and British Englishes have wide coverage in Pakistan, the evidence illustrates that most of the MAE1 students deny having been influenced by them (see Tables 6.39 & 6.40). This desire for interest in British and American Englishes can be connected to the point about their weak listening comprehension despite far-reaching coverage of native varieties in Pakistan through media, books, etc. (see 7.4.1)

Further, the perceptions suggest that Pakistani English is distinctly differentiated from native varieties and has evolved out of many factors, such as the habit of Pakistani students to think in Urdu and then translate those sentences into English. Their cognitive reflective faculty operates into Urdu, therefore, not surprisingly; the translation from Urdu into English has affected English in Pakistan. As a result of translation from the L1 into L2, 'different sentence structure' is adopted (p.170). Also, Pakistanis are still making use of those words which are now considered 'obsolete' in British Standard English (p.170). They have remained in use in Pakistan since their introduction whereas they have fallen out of use in inner circle countries. Pakistanis are using amalgamation of American and British Englishes, for example, spellings of both Englishes are accepted (p.170). These variations naturally perplex students. It would help if the Ministry of Education decided on one or other of the two conventions. They attempt to follow the rules of Standard British English, but as perceived, are using English unintentionally in the Pakistanised mode. Languages in Pakistan, primarily, English and Urdu are so much localised that it is implausible to disentangle one from the other. This phenomenon automatically finds its association with the notion of indigenisation, as Kachru calls it (p.63), whereby the changes are found in common use and become acceptable at institutional level.

Bringing together the above aspects of argument, it is assumed that in Pakistani education system 'Pakistani English as a medium of instruction and assessment' is being used because of abundant accessibility of English newspapers, journals, books, and magazines in Pakistani English, therefore, it can be used in 'curricula and syllabi' (p.171). However, the problem is that, 'for assessment we need Standard English' (p.171). The way native speakers of English express themselves in written and spoken modes, Pakistanis are not able to follow, hence, in order to maintain standard in education system they need British and American models of English (p.74). The World Englishes movement has challenged such thinking and many non-native varieties are

developing their own standards (p.61). However, it can be thought they have their own communicative norms. Those models are not going to help for the rhetoric of communication – because of variation in cultural rhetorical style. Also, it is assumed that given the historical and linguistic processes involved in the evolution of Pakistani English, it is seen as one of the local languages of the country which has an official status and recognition in the language policies. As such, Pakistani English should ideally not be judged in relation to inner circle Englishes.

According to my findings, many teachers of both universities propose that universities can think of the way to deal with the issue of varieties of English through teacher education and that it should also be addressed in language policy (p.156) so that Pakistani English can have recognition and be encouraged to expand its functional domain (see Tables 6.33 & 6.34). However, it is perceived that the idea of the development of Pakistani English as one of the local languages of Pakistan is challenged for many reasons, such as PakE's absence of good writers, will have problem of recognition at the global level (p.171). The expansion of PakE needs financial and human resources (p.172). Most Pakistanis take the view that English is a colonial language and not their own language. The acceptance and encouragement for expansion might be seen as an intrigue and misjudged as a type of neo-colonialism which can be easily aired by the current political state in the country (p.172). It is assumed that English is still resisted by religious parties in present day Pakistan. Finally, Pakistan also has internal variation in the form of 'Punjabi English, Sindhi English, Seraiki English etc', such heterogeneity of Pakistani English might also act as a hurdle to the expansion. There would be a problem with the production of literature related to the different cultures with regional variations in style (p.58). However, if this objective is achieved at some stage, it will unquestionably be accommodating in endorsement of cultural pluralism in education (see 7.4.3).

Continuing the argument about PakE, this study has also endeavoured to discuss a few new linguistic features of educated PakE. Referring to Kirkpatrick's identity-communication continuum (p.63), the study's focus is on acrolectal variety that is English spoken by educated class of Pakistan whereas previous literature discussed in Chapter 3 concentrates on mesolectal variety which represents the cultural identity of the middle class (p.72). The analysis of communication of highly qualified Pakistanis

shows certain innovations in lexis and syntax (p.167). It can be said that lexical and syntactic variations, such as distinctive use of vocabulary, modals, articles and prepositions have resulted primarily from tendency to simplify and regularise the language to communicate the meaning distinctively (p.167-168). Thus, these examples demonstrate that educated English despite having closeness to Standard English is marked with local variation.

7.8 Teacher education in Pakistan

Some responses suggest that teacher education in Pakistan is held responsible for the standard of English language teaching in classroom, 'responsibility lies on teacher education'. The situation of a typical Pakistani ELT classroom shows that English teachers in Pakistan are not well equipped with the latest English language teaching (ELT) methodology (p.172). Most of the university teachers in the two universities would like to have knowledge of ELT methodology (p.172) so that they can effectively teach postgraduate students using EMI in classroom. It is construed from MAE1 students' discussion that Pakistani universities are in need of professional teachers who could satisfy students (p.172). Chapter 4 also discusses that most of the English teacher trainers in Pakistan are recruited without professional qualifications in teacher training (p.91). If EMI is assumed essential at university level then ideally all university teachers should be offered compulsory training of teaching in English medium of instruction in classroom. In such a training scheme, English language teacher educators should have professional qualifications in ELT. They should be experienced in the preparation and adaptation of curricula and assessment that should develop rational, academic, social and creative skills. The programme should adopt means to train university teachers to help students about their language problems and also provide enough language practice to teachers as well so that they can teach their postgraduate courses competently.

This is not surprising as the whole situation is based on the conflict between tradition and modernity. It allows respondents to discuss tensions or even, one might say, leads to contradictions in their responses. In short, the debate built up in Chapter 7 shows that the major outcome of language policy in Pakistan is postgraduate students' efforts with study in English, therefore, the policy of EMI has not been effectively translated into practice in universities.

CHAPTER 8. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter includes the conclusions of findings in relation to research questions and comes up with a few pragmatic recommendations to resolve those issues. The chapter also suggests areas of future research.

8.1 Research Question 1: To what extent does policy and practice of English medium of instruction (EMI) affect the perceptions of first year M.A Education (MAE1) students about their learning situation in Pakistani universities?

- ✚ EMI is accepted as compulsory in Pakistani universities for postgraduate study on account of accessibility of reading material in English, but it is not fully implemented. The difference between the policy and practice of EMI becomes perceptible because the university teachers in default mode revert to the national language for functional uses in classroom. Both students and teachers lacked command over English, and this discrepancy occurs because the meaning of EMI is not explained in language policies.
- ✚ Devising an effective policy is challenging because the evidence confirms the tensions between external pressures, such as, globalization, foreign investment etc. and internal forces, such as, multilingualism, multiculturalism and multi-ethnicity influencing language policy in Pakistan. The findings further support the view that provincial identities clash with national identity ensuing into restlessness in the country. In order to curb provincialism and tribalism, Urdu and English were adopted as neutral languages which whilst strongly representing linguistic and cultural hegemony endangered diversity at the same time. These two dominant languages also maintain Urdu versus English controversy.
- ✚ The language policies are devised by politicians who prioritise their own interests rather than considering the local and global needs of public for learning English.
- ✚ The literature tells us that well-known linguists assume that mother tongues are important for sustaining a country's linguistic and cultural heritage (see Chapter 2) but the evidence in this research indicates that this support for mul-

tilingualism, multiculturalism and multiethnicity are problematic for the country's national unity and also get in the way of formulation and implementation of an effective language policy. Chapter 7 suggests that this complex linguistic situation may lead to confrontation between the issues of national assimilation and the rights of minority languages.

- ✚ The examination of the interrelationship between language policy and English language teaching in Pakistan suggests the outcome is postgraduate students' language learning challenges. It appears that multilingualism or bilingualism hampers students' capacity for learning English because chiefly they use mother tongues and Urdu.
- ✚ English is taught using GTM which teaches the target language using Urdu. As discussed in Chapter 7, it appears that most of the MAE1 students studied subjects in Urdu including Education at Bachelor's level. It would be, therefore, reasonable to suggest that the proportionate use of mother tongue, national language and English in education symbolising ethnicity, hegemony and power respectively would harmonise some of the conflicts.
- ✚ Language policies have disregarded postgraduate students' needs for further English training at university level postulating that these students have studied English as a compulsory subject from grade 6 to grade 14. But many of the postgraduate participants report they find expressing themselves confidently in written and spoken modes an arduous task to be achieved.
- ✚ An impact of such type of language policy can be language anxiety which negatively affects students' attitudes towards the use of English in universities. As oral-aural skills are largely ignored in schools and colleges, this results in postgraduate students' inability to follow directions completely in English. They would require translation and explanation in Urdu language. They are diffident to participate in English in classroom activities. Also, they find language and content of reading texts taxing. Similarly, they are stressed about academic writing. As a result, they rely on plagiarism rather than engaging in critical thinking, critical reading and critical writing skills. Thus, the postgraduate students in Pakistani universities have need of reflective, creative and communicative skills for satisfactory completion of academic programmes. The postgraduate students are baffled by the diversity of forms of World Englishes, which appears to be one of the sources of their language problems, for

example, variations in pronunciations and spellings of same words. Also, they are reluctant to respond in English in classroom because of their uncertainty about pronunciation and accent.

- ✚ The research tools do not include any questions on motivation but quite spontaneously it falls into discussion in close affinity to language anxiety. It appears that if postgraduate students were motivated, they would definitely work hard to develop their deficient language skills. It is surmised from findings that local languages and culture could also help to learn English.
- ✚ Finally, it is suggested in Chapter 7 that besides language policy, teacher education in Pakistan also contributes to postgraduate students' language problems and university teachers' pedagogical difficulties. These postgraduate students were educated using traditional methodology which retained a focus on refining their ability for memorisation of texts rather than stimulating their cognitive, imaginative and communicative potential for L2 acquisition.

8.1.1 Research Question (i) What are the perceptions of university teachers and students about the importance of English language in Pakistan?

The evidence indicates that:

- ✚ English is seen as a lingua franca in Pakistan and has seeped overwhelmingly into the political, socio-economic and educational state of affairs. This evidence confirms the findings from the literature detailed in Chapter 3. However, as expected, views of participants in the current research indicate that only those who have proficiency in English are using it for work and study in Pakistan.
- ✚ The findings support the view that English is adopted as a language in universities because of accessibility of international books and journals in English, but the thinking behind the policy reveals that international English language proficiency tests are demanding for postgraduate students because of their low competence in English language skills. This finding confirms many reports linking low scores with low competence. This realisation unleashes postgraduate students' inner discontentment to perceive satisfactory employments in the hands of those pupils who possess concrete know-how in English, especially fluency in spoken English matters a lot.

- ✚ The perceptions support the view that English symbolises broadmindedness, social status, social justice, democratic values and global thinking. The young people in Pakistan are learning English enthusiastically for better future prospects. But the views indicating pride in local culture represent negation to the above stated claims. The conflict between the liberal values and the cultural values conspicuously emerges on the surface as a challenging tension for the participants.
- ✚ Pakistan is a divided society and that classification is also based on varied mediums of instruction which have further divided the society by bestowing socio-economic prosperity upon those who know better English. Thus, socio-economic ideology comes across which justifies the teaching of English to meet the economic needs of the society. English language acted as a neutral referee by waving the flag of peace. It endeavoured to establish Pakistan as a hegemonic nation through the assimilation of diverse cultural, ethnic and linguistic entities.
- ✚ However, views about English's role in the development of the country are contradicted by research participants' opinion that English is not necessarily a pre-requisite for development because many advanced countries teach and work in their mother tongues or national languages.
- ✚ In fact, postgraduate students are at ease in classroom when their teachers translate the lectures in Urdu and quote local examples and metaphors for elucidation of concepts.
- ✚ This suggests that books, newspapers, dictionaries, etc. should be written in regional languages to preserve the culture and traditions. The regional languages can be used to create humour in classroom and to develop academic rationalism and creativity of pupils. But the regional languages are viewed with biased attitude, as they do not have the status of compulsory languages in schools and colleges. The mother tongues though rich in cultural heritage are neglected in comparison to national language and English as a global language.
- ✚ The participants express their concerns that in Punjab, efforts to promote regional languages, such as, Punjabi and Seraiki are not seriously made as compared to Sindh where Sindhi is used as the medium of instruction. Most of the postgraduate students in this research have inclination towards speaking Urdu.

Therefore, as discussed in Chapter 2, negative ethnicity threatens Punjab regarding mother tongues.

8.1.2 Research Question (ii) What are students' opinions about using English language in universities?

The findings show that:

- ✚ Most of the postgraduate students experience language learning difficulties in universities because of English medium of instruction and remain under pressure throughout their programme.
- ✚ Many postgraduate students have a rural background where they were not provided with enough exposure to English language. The students view that English is a foreign language for them and their uses of English are far more limited as compared to Urdu and mother tongues.
- ✚ Students undergo many language problems, for example, inadequate vocabulary in English which is needed for satisfactory oral and written expression. They express their preference for the use of Urdu because they believe that teachers' lectures in English go beyond their comprehension.
- ✚ Many of them would like English to be used for social interaction but at the same time realise that they need confidence to speak English in classroom. They are also restricted by absence of feasible social atmosphere for practising English.

8.1.3 Research Question (iii) What are teachers' views about using English language for teaching and interactive purposes in Universities?

The findings show that:

- ✚ Many teachers have preference for teaching in Urdu because their experience tells them that postgraduate students in public universities are unable to understand lectures in English, for that reason, they use Urdu language as a strategy to accommodate them.
- ✚ Bilingual instruction is used because teachers have instinctive and intrinsic preference for Pakistani national culture and language. Moreover, Urdu makes learning more authentic and also serves as a practical tool to develop understanding between the local and global.

- ✚ University faculty feel that their postgraduate students find both language and content of curriculum demanding because of their want for English language and lack of familiarity with foreign philosophical ideology and culture.
- ✚ The university teachers experience teaching problems because they are untrained to cope with these students having diverse educational backgrounds. One interpretation is that they feel uncomfortable teaching postgraduate students using EMI in universities because they are not as proficient in English language as they should be.
- ✚ Chapter two discussed the statement that language policies have stated that Urdu medium of instruction (UMI) will replace English medium of instruction (EMI) in universities at some point in future. But evidence shows that sufficient steps were not taken to translate reading materials into Urdu to be used at university level.
- ✚ The university teachers claim that their postgraduate students are unable to answer the examination question if any unfamiliar word is used to test their comprehension; hence to pass the examinations the postgraduate students are dependent on their blind faith in rote learning rather than working emphatically towards the development of academic skills. This process of learning results in making the tests easier for them.
- ✚ Many teachers permit their students to use Urdu as the language of communication in classroom not only on account of students' hesitation to speak English but also because of their own lack of fluency in spoken English. The teachers' perceptions suggest that people would like to speak English for informal conversation but this view is counter foiled with the idea of inferiority complex about those who are fluent in English.

8.1.4 Research Question (iv) What are the perceptions of the type of English being used in Pakistani universities?

Chapter 3 discusses whether Pakistani English (PakE) is a distinct variety of English because of its indigenisation resulting from its contact with national and regional languages. The research findings describe the postgraduate students' opinions about Pakistani English so that it can be used in universities. The findings suggest that:

- ✚ The evidence supports the view that evolution of Pakistani English has occurred. The students think in Urdu, and then translate their thoughts in Eng-

lish; this strategy leads to the construction of distinctive syntax. Sometimes, due to inadequate vocabulary, they borrow words from Urdu to communicate meaning. Also, they are also using mixture of American and British Englishes.

- ✚ This study has also discovered lexical and syntactic variation in educated Pakistani English. This variation is probably an outcome of the regularisation of English.
- ✚ The participants express their preference for PakE and presume that PakE can be used for assessment and instruction in universities. The universities should proceed to undertake initiative for endorsing PakE in universities and language policies because it is one of the local languages because of its historical roots and has made Pakistan a multilingual society.
- ✚ At the same time, the participants discuss some realistic drawbacks which show tendency to obstruct the development of PakE, for example:
 - 1) Need of creative and research oriented writers in PakE
 - 2) Financial constraints to develop PakE
 - 3) Association of English with British colonialism
 - 4) Heterogeneity in PakE because it has not yet been codified or standardised. There are no grammar books and dictionaries in Pak E.

Thus the research discusses the patterns of development in Pakistani English (PakE). In the first place, it throws light on the evolution of PaKE within historical perspective. Secondly, it analyses some linguistic features of PakE. Thirdly, it discusses the participants' perceptions of PakE in Pakistani universities.

8.2 Recommendations

This research has shown that postgraduate students in these two public universities have diverse ethnic, cultural, linguistic and educational backgrounds; therefore, imposition of EMI causes anxiety mainly arising from their language problems. The university faculty also experience pedagogical dilemmas because they are probably untrained to teach postgraduate students using EMI. Instead of practising EMI in the classroom as stated in language policy, they adopt their personal strategies to accommodate these anxious learners. Thus, these findings explicitly indicate difficulties with implementation of EMI in universities. The study suggests a few pragmatic recommendations to resolve the issues of postgraduate students' language anxiety about

EMI and university faculty's challenges to cope with the pedagogy. The suggestions concern amendments in language policy and planning, language proficiency courses, models of motivation, teacher education, culturally responsive teaching, multi-ethnic teaching, and support for the use and development of Pakistani English.

8.2.1 Amendment in language policy and planning

The language policy in Pakistan implicitly or explicitly affects curriculum, class room practices, assessment and teacher education. Regarding this situation, the following recommendations can be given:

- ✚ The evidence supports that language in education policy has never clearly planned specific objectives regarding proficiency in English language for postgraduate study. Therefore, the purpose of the language policy strategy needs to be considered with a view to achieving particular goals and outcomes.
- ✚ The comments in the responses provide further support for the view that language policy in Pakistan has been influenced by a mixture of linguistic and extralinguistic factors which mainly are ideology, culture, politics and languages. The policy makers should identify the impact of social, economic and political forces on policymaking decisions.
- ✚ Language in education policy should represent local needs and global requirements for postgraduate study.
- ✚ The findings show that uncertainties around the language in education policy have generated the difference between the policy and practice of EMI in universities. The language policy should be effectively translated into practice which is possible by collaboration between the policy makers and practitioners. Therefore, it is necessary to ensure that policymaking is a consultative process that takes into account the role of university teachers as the point of contact between the educational objectives of language policy and the postgraduate students (Ramanathan and Morgan, 2007; Tsui and Tollefson, 2006).
- ✚ The policymaking process for universities should be inclusive and practitioners should also work collaboratively with policymakers to determine policy goals, and policy decisions should be made visible, transparent, and accessible to practitioners and aligned with those goals.

- ✚ The evidence makes clear that university teachers undergo pedagogical difficulties, therefore, the policymaking decisions should be bidirectional and that within each context teachers, syllabus designers and textbook writers, etc. should be able to reflect on effective pedagogical practices and should be able to communicate these practices to policymakers (Tsui and Tollefson, 2006; Ramanathan and Morgan, 2007).
- ✚ The language policy should have visible pedagogy which means that classroom practices and pedagogy should also be made visible and should aim to enable students to create discourses appropriate for communities of practice (Martin, 1999).
- ✚ It is clear that some postgraduate students find the curriculum demanding because of their alienation from foreign contexts. The language policy should also discuss how the focus in international books can be shifted from promoting British and European culture to creating and promoting regionally situated cultural content or that, alternatively, have a global focus which can develop cultural pluralism. Further, language policy should keep in view the cultural sensitivity in the country as well as the manner in which textbooks are designed to promote a particular culture, ideology and nationalistic sentiment (Mahboob and Tilakaratna, 2012).
- ✚ Ideally, the language policy should also explicitly discuss the assessment practices. The standard and criteria of examinations, particularly in universities should be higher than mere reproduction of reading materials provided in classroom. The assessment practices need to have stricter quality assurance procedures.

8.2.2 Need of English language proficiency course

The study reveals postgraduate students' views about the desirability of compulsory inclusion of English language proficiency course for postgraduate study. As a follow on, it is recommended to develop English language proficiency course to assist students to overcome their language problems arising from EMI and to enable them to develop self-confidence, competence and self-determination needed for satisfactory performance in universities. The language proficiency course might aim at the development of four skills and the use of English with confidence. It can mainly comprise:

- Different types of reading texts, such as, journals, newspapers and manuals.
- Variety of writing tasks, for example, essays, proposals, reports and reviews.
- Range of activities for following and understanding spoken materials, such as, lectures, speeches and interviews.
- Assorted tasks to develop effective communicative ability in face-to-face situations.

8.2.3 The role of ELT in teacher education

Regarding postgraduate students' English learning problems and university teachers' pedagogical dilemmas, teacher education can play a significant role in Pakistan.

- ❖ It can train university teachers to design a language proficiency course for postgraduate students.
- ❖ It can support and endorse language proficiency of university teachers.
- ❖ It can impart specific training to university teachers about teaching using English medium of instruction (EMI).
- ❖ Thus, ELT programmes should enable enhanced English proficiency and to improve delivery of language programs in local contexts to ensure that students can use the language with the proficiency required to enhance their prospects in accessing better opportunities in education, community membership and employment within their own contexts and globally .
- ❖ Finally, teacher education should be inclusive of cultural issues pedagogy to deal with socio-linguistic, ethnic and educational diversity in university.

8.2.4 The role of motivation in reducing L2 anxiety

To address the experience of language anxiety on account of language problems, the study recommends that the motivation model of Gardner (2007) which examines cultural context consisting of personality traits, prospects and opinions and educational context regarding academic programme, capability and knowledge of the teacher, resources, the curriculum, the class atmosphere can certainly affect postgraduate students' motivation level to acquire and retain L2 (see Figure 5.2). The model indicates that the motivated student is goal oriented, attentive, enthusiastic, conscientious and has aspirations (p.94). The adoption of such type of model in Pakistani universities might assist postgraduate students to get over their language anxiety and enable them to demonstrate positive attitudes towards learning English. Another strategy of help-

ing postgraduate students in multi-ethnic settings to overcome anxiety is through the development of linguistic self-confidence. Clement et al. (1977) pioneered introduction to this concept which is believed to facilitate communicative competence and reduce the levels of anxiety in L2 (p.94).

8.2.5 Culturally responsive teaching in universities

As discussed in previous sections, to cope with ethnic, linguistic and cultural diversity university teachers should receive training. Therefore, one feels a need to revisit the way teaching proceeds in universities because if the appropriate effective teaching methods meet the needs of this student body, a greater portion of the population will benefit. This research recommends the use of culturally responsive teaching which uses the cultural knowledge, prior experiences and performance styles of diverse students to make learning more appropriate and effective for them. The culturally responsive teaching method is useful because it acknowledges the legitimacy of the cultural heritages of different ethnic groups, both as legacies that affect students' dispositions, attitudes, and approaches to learning and as worthy content to be taught in the formal curriculum. It builds bridges of meaningfulness between academic abstractions and lived socio-cultural realities (Gay, 2000). Further, by understanding diversity and engaging in constant self-reflection, the university faculty would acquire tolerance, acceptance, respect and affirmative solidarity and consequently become aware of its own unconscious assumptions (Manning and Baruth, 2000; Watson and Johnston, 2006).

It has been mentioned that in Pakistani universities, the classroom is centrally controlled by teachers. The teachers teach using the lecture method. This traditional pedagogy means the students arrive in class and receive a syllabus with pre-planned readings, assignments, and activities. It hardly recognises another voice and perspective with the authority over content and criteria (Jacobs and Hundley, 2005). But culturally responsive teaching uses the strengths of students and is a foundational precept of multicultural education as teachers infuse the curriculum with rich connections to students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds within community contexts (Martinez, 2006; Pang, 2001). The culturally responsive teaching matches the learning process with the individual goals, backgrounds, needs and expectations of the students (Steeley, 2003; Tileston, 2004; Wang and Yu, 2006).

8.2.6 Multi-ethnic teaching in universities

Keeping in view diverse populations, multi-ethnic teaching can be effectively used in Pakistani universities. As discussed earlier, most of the university teachers are using a traditional method which is teacher focussed and is synonymous with the conventional lecture-based method, unlike the student-centered approach favoured by multicultural educators (Banks, 1991; Chiou, 2008; Domask, 2007). Other studies, such as, (Garcia-Capero, 2008; Gurin et al., 2002; Halagao, 2004; Kozulin, 2003; Rogers and Freiberg, 1994; Rugutt et al., 2003; Tagg, 2003) have also identified the shortcomings of the traditional lecture method. It can be suggested that attention should be given to other beneficial teaching methods, such as multi-ethnic teaching that may enhance students' academic achievement. Studies (e.g., Banks et al., 2005; Stephen and Vogt, 2004; Zirkel, 2008) have shown that knowledge construction and prejudice reduction can enhance students' academic achievement. The study recommends practising multiethnic teaching method in Pakistani universities on the basis of following research reports:

- ❖ It might lead to cognitive and affective development among postgraduate students (Tam and Bassett, 2004).
- ❖ Multiethnic content integration can lead to significantly higher levels of engagement among culturally and linguistically different students (Amosa, 2005).
- ❖ Teaching based on multicultural approach enhances academic performance (Alfred, Louis, and Mervyn, 2005).
- ❖ Multiethnic method, by including cultural norms, enhances postgraduate students' remembering and critical thinking skills (Christensen, 2006).

8.2.7 Using Pakistani English (PakE)

The view presented in Chapter 3 that English is not a single language anymore but a packet of inter-related tongues, means that notions of having standardised norms of grammar and vocabulary, should be given up in favour of practices that take real account of the communication needs of all the people with the vast range of multilingual backgrounds now using English in the global context.

- ❖ The evidence indicates that most of the postgraduate students have preference for the use of Pakistani English (PakE), therefore, it is suggested that

the development of Pakistani English (PakE) can be an effective strategy to help students to overcome language anxiety.









- ❖ The students can be made to realise that English is their own language and not a foreign language so that they can use it confidently for formal and informal uses in universities.
- ❖ The universities should support the development of Pakistani English (PakE) by utilising it in assessment and curriculum.
- ❖ The concept of Pakistani English (PakE) should be introduced in language policy.

8.3 Limitations of research

This research was to be completed in three years; therefore, it focused on the post-graduate students and their teachers' perceptions of the implementation of English medium of instruction in universities. Owing to time limit, I could not analyse and discuss in detail many other emerging complex issues, such as inadequate communication between policy makers and practitioners, language or the politics of policy making in Pakistan. It was noted that questionnaires had a few lead questions, for example in relation to varieties of English. The questions were constructed in accordance with the participants' language ability so that they could understand questions (see Appendix A). Similarly, focus group interviews also had a lead question, for instance 'why do you think that English is essential for the future development of Pakistan?' However, if I were to do this study again, this question can be restructured as 'how can English be helpful for the development of Pakistan?' Other limitations include the unequal number of M.A Education programmes in universities selected for field study and unavailability of enough rooms for recording the focus group interviews. Moreover, many postgraduate students were reluctant to participate in focus group discussions; therefore, their teachers were requested to persuade them. The different time tables of university teachers delayed the recording of university teachers' focus interview interviews. I had to wait for at least 7 weeks for the day when 5 or 6 teachers in both universities could be available for the recording of focus group interviews.

8.4 Suggestions for future researchers

Future researchers can investigate the following issues derived from the study:

-  Influences on language policy and planning development in Pakistan
-  Impact of national and regional languages on learning English language
-  Bilingual method of instruction for postgraduate students
-  Co-ordination between the policy makers and practitioners
-  Teaching through English medium of instruction in teacher education programmes
-  Support and development of standardisation of Pakistani English (PakE)
-  Incorporating cultural pluralism in the curriculum
-  Investigating the role of motivation to develop linguistic self-confidence in students

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APPENDICES. RESEARCH TOOLS AND DATA

Appendix A. Questionnaires

A1: Questionnaire with Queen Victoria University's M.A Education Students'

Results

Sample size= 226

1. You are:

- (a) Male (b) Female

2. Your age is:

- (a) 20- 24 (b) 25-29 (c) 30-35 (d) 36-40 (e) 41-45 (f) 46-50 (g) above 50

3. Your mother tongue is:

- (a) English (b) Urdu (c) Punjabi (d) Other regional language -----

4. Your qualifications:

- (a) Graduation (b) Masters Degree

5. You got your school-leaving certificate from:

- (a) English Medium School (b) Urdu Medium School

6. If you had studied Education as an elective subject in graduation,
was it in:

- (a) English (b) Urdu (c) Both

Question response scale: 5 = Strongly Agree; 4 = Agree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 2 = Disagree; and 1 = Strongly Disagree

Questions		1	2	3	4	5
		Percentage of responses				
7	You mostly use mother tongue for communication with your class fellows.	9.7	13.3	2.2	26.1	48.7
8	Urdu Language is mostly used for communication outside the classroom.	3.5	3.5	1.3	27.9	63.7
9	Most of the required reading material is available in English for various courses of MA Education in terms of relevance and updatedness.	1.8	2.2	1.8	29.2	65.0
10	Most of the required reading material (reference books, journals etc) is also	37.2	37.2	5.3	15.9	8.8

	available in Urdu language.					
11	You face language problems regarding English as a medium of instruction.	2.7	14.6	2.2	45.1	35.4
12	You have difficulty to comprehend teacher's lecture in English.	4.4	18.1	4.0	48.7	28.4
13	You hesitate to speak English in classroom.	1.8	10.6	4.0	56.2	27.4
14	You find reading texts hard to understand.	2.2	15.9	6.2	53.1	22.6
15	You feel that writing is a complex skill to acquire effectively.	2.2	11.1	5.3	46.0	35.4
16	English language is essential for Higher Education in Pakistan.	0.9	2.2	1.8	32.7	62.4
17	English is required for satisfactory employment.	0.4	3.5	2.7	42.5	50.9
18	English is needed for acquiring new ideas and broadening one's outlook.	1.8	8.4	1.8	48.2	39.8
19	English means to have an access to information technology.	2.2	5.3	3.1	45.1	44.2
20	English leads to an access to international books and journals.	1.8	3.5	0.4	42.5	51.8
21	You need English to improve social status.	1.8	4.0	3.1	42.9	48.2
22	English is a necessity for travelling abroad.	1.3	2.2	0.9	27.9	67.7
23	English is a working language of your future career.	2.7	4.0	1.3	36.7	55.3
24	Only English must be used for assessment of MA Education in universities.	11.1	21.2	6.6	41.6	19.5
25	Only English must be used for teaching and learning purposes for M.A Education.	15.0	23.0	5.3	38.5	18.1
26	Education courses in Urdu should be used simultaneously along with English.	7.1	19.9	7.1	46.0	19.9
27	All courses in MA Education must be offered in English.	9.3	20.4	5.3	46.5	18.6
28	English language courses must be included in MA Education to improve students' communicative ability in English.	4.0	7.5	0.9	42.0	45.6
29	You get anxious when your teacher speaks to you in English.	7.1	19.9	3.1	37.6	32.3
30	You get confused while reading a text or other materials in English.	9.3	21.7	4.0	35.0	30.1
31	You get tense about taking notes or writing assignments in English.	8.4	19.9	4.4	37.6	29.6
32	You get stressed about taking tests and examination in English.	9.3	19.0	4.9	36.7	30.1
33	English should be used for class room discussion.	5.8	12.4	7.5	38.1	36.3
34	English should be used by university students for social interaction.	6.2	5.9	6.2	40.7	31.0
35	Urdu should be used for social interaction by students in universities.	9.7	22.1	7.1	35.4	25.7
36	Mother tongue should be used for social interaction by students in universi-	19.0	38.5	7.5	21.2	13.7

	ties.					
37	Only English should be used for co-curricular activities in universities.	11.9	34.5	8.0	25.2	20.4
38	Urdu should be used for co-curricular activities.	8.4	20.8	7.5	49.1	14.2
39	Mother tongue should be used for co-curricular activities.	18.1	34.5	9.3	28.3	9.7
40	There are different varieties of English which are used in Pakistani universities.	4.4	12.4	5.3	43.8	34.1
41	The different spellings of same words confuse you.	4.9	13.3	4.0	44.7	33.2
42	The pronunciation of different types of English puzzles you.	4.4	10.6	2.7	45.1	37.2
43	Your teachers speak Pakistani English.	2.2	8.0	0.9	48.7	40.3
44	Your teachers speak American English.	33.2	43.8	4.0	9.3	9.7
45	Your teachers speak British English.	38.9	40.3	4.9	9.7	6.2
46	Your preference is for Pakistani English.	2.7	9.7	3.5	38.9	45.1
47	You like to speak British English.	30.5	30.1	5.8	21.2	12.4
48	You feel influenced by American English.	26.5	34.5	6.6	22.2	9.7

Question response scale: 5 = Always; 4 = Mostly; 3 = Sometimes; 2 = Rarely; and 1 = Never

Questions		1	2	3	4	5
		Percentage of responses				
49	You use English language with your teachers.	21.7	49.6	9.7	15.5	3.5
50	You use Urdu language with your teachers.	3.1	9.7	4.0	52.2	31.0
51	English is used as a language of instruction in classroom.	5.8	37.6	8.4	33.6	14.6
52	Urdu is used as a language of instruction in classroom.	3.5	21.7	12.8	51.8	10.2
53	English language is used for examination in your university.	8.8	2.7	2.7	18.1	67.7

A2: Questionnaire with Bulle Shah University's M.A Education Students'

Results

Sample size=225

1. You are:

- (a) Male (b) Female

2. Your age is:

- (a) 20- 24 (b) 25-29 (c) 30-35 (d) 36-40 (e) 41-45 (f) 46-50 (g) above 50

3. Your mother tongue is:

- (a) English (b) Urdu (c) Punjabi (d) Other regional language -----

4. Your qualifications:

- (a) Graduation (b) Masters Degree

5. You got your school-leaving certificate from:

- (a) English Medium School (b) Urdu Medium School

6. If you had studied Education as an elective subject in graduation,
was it in:

- (a) English (b) Urdu (c) Both

Question response scale: 5 = Strongly Agree; 4 = Agree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 2 = Disagree; and 1 = Strongly Disagree

Questions		1	2	3	4	5
		Percentage of responses				
7	You mostly use mother tongue for communication with your class fellows.	12.9	9.3	4.9	31.1	41.8
8	Urdu Language is mostly used for communication outside the classroom.	4.4	4.0	7.1	29.3	55.1
9	Most of the required reading material is available in English for various courses of MA Education in terms of relevance and updatedness.	2.7	4.0	10.7	27.1	55.6
10	Most of the required reading material (reference books, journals etc) is also available in Urdu language.	26.7	21.3	21.3	19.1	11.6

11	You face language problems regarding English as a medium of instruction.	8.0	9.3	13.3	49.3	23.1
12	You have difficulty to comprehend teacher's lecture in English.	11.1	14.2	20.9	43.1	23.1
13	You hesitate to speak English in classroom.	7.1	8.0	16.9	45.8	29.8
14	You find reading texts hard to understand.	9.8	15.6	21.3	38.7	24.9
15	You feel that writing is a complex skill to acquire effectively.	8.9	11.6	12.9	34.7	32.0
16	English language is essential for Higher Education in Pakistan.	3.6	0.4	6.2	23.6	66.2
17	English is required for satisfactory employment.	2.7	1.8	10.7	29.8	55.1
18	English is needed for acquiring new ideas and broadening one's outlook.	2.2	5.3	9.8	38.2	44.4
19	English means to have an access to information technology.	4.4	4.4	9.3	36.2	45.8
20	English leads to an access to international books and journals.	0.9	1.3	6.2	30.2	61.3
21	You need English to improve social status.	2.2	5.3	8.9	30.2	53.3
22	English is a necessity for travelling abroad.	1.3	3.1	5.8	21.8	68.0
23	English is a working language of your future career.	1.3	2.2	3.1	39.6	53.8
24	Only English must be used for assessment of MA Education in universities.	8.4	9.8	19.6	36.4	25.8
25	Only English must be used for teaching and learning purposes for M.A Education.	7.1	14.7	16.9	39.6	21.8
26	Education courses in Urdu should be used simultaneously along with English.	7.1	12.9	18.2	40.4	21.3
27	All courses in MA Education must be offered in English.	8.4	8.9	14.7	35.1	32.9
28	English language courses must be included in MA Education to improve students' communicative ability in English.	1.3	4.0	7.1	36.4	51.1
29	You get anxious when your teacher speaks to you in English.	11.1	12.9	17.8	40.4	17.8
30	You get confused while reading a text or other materials in English.	12.9	18.7	15.1	38.7	14.7
31	You get tense about taking notes or writing assignments in English.	13.8	19.6	12.0	40.4	14.2
32	You get stressed about taking tests and examination in English.	13.3	17.8	10.2	39.6	19.1
33	English should be used for class room discussion.	7.1	10.2	15.1	37.8	29.8
34	English should be used by university students for social interaction.	5.3	5.8	13.3	45.3	30.2
35	Urdu should be used for social interaction by students in universities.	8.9	17.8	16.9	39.1	17.3
36	Mother tongue should be used for social interaction by students in univer-	23.1	26.2	12.4	22.7	15.6

	sities.					
37	Only English should be used for co-curricular activities in universities.	8.9	9.3	17.3	28.4	16.0
38	Urdu should be used for co-curricular activities.	9.3	26.2	24.0	31.1	9.3
39	Mother tongue should be used for co-curricular activities.	19.6	24.0	19.6	22.2	14.7
40	There are different varieties of English which are used in Pakistani universities.	8.4	10.2	13.8	40.4	27.1
41	The different spellings of same words confuse you.	10.2	9.3	6.2	44.4	29.8
42	The pronunciation of different types of English puzzles you.	8.0	11.6	8.9	41.8	29.8
43	Your teachers speak Pakistani English.	4.0	6.7	7.6	42.7	39.1
44	Your teachers speak American English.	35.1	28.4	22.2	10.7	3.6
45	Your teachers speak British English.	33.3	25.8	23.1	13.8	4.0
46	Your preference is for Pakistani English.	9.8	8.9	6.2	42.2	32.9
47	You like to speak British English.	22.7	37.8	18.2	13.8	12.0
48	You feel influenced by American English.	26.2	34.7	15.1	19.1	8.4

Question response scale: 5 = Always; 4 = Mostly; 3 = Sometimes; 2 = Rarely ; and 1 = Never

Questions		1	2	3	4	5
		Percentage of responses				
49	You use English language with your teachers.	15.6	48.0	6.4	17.3	5.8
50	You use Urdu language with your teachers.	1.3	12.4	8.9	48.0	34.7
51	English is used as a language of instruction in classroom.	6.7	33.3	9.1	39.1	18.2
52	Urdu is used as a language of instruction in classroom.	2.2	20.0	9.3	61.3	15.1
53	English language is used for examination in your university.	4.0	3.6	4.0	15.6	72.9

A3: Queen Victoria University Teachers' Questionnaire Results

Sample size=17

1. You are:

- (a) Male (b) Female

2. Your age is:

- (a) 24-29 (b) 30-35 (c) 36-40 (d) 41-45 (e) 46-50 (f) above 50

3. Your mother tongue is:

- (a) English (b) Urdu (c) Punjabi (d) Other regional language -----

4. Your qualifications:

- (a) Masters Degree in Education (b) MPhil Education (c) PhD Education (d) English Teaching Qualifications

5. Current Position in University:

- (a) Lecturer (b) Assistant Professor (c) Associate Professor (d) Professor

6. Language used by you for teaching M.A Education students:

- (a) English (b) Urdu (c) Both languages

7. Teaching Experience in years:

- (a) 1 – 5 (b) 5 - 10 (c) 10 - 15 (d) 15 - 25 (e) 25-30 (f) above 30

Question response scale: 5 = Strongly Agree; 4 = Agree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 2 = Disagree; and 1 = Strongly Disagree

	Questions	1	2	3	4	5
		Frequency of responses				
8	English is an integral part of educational, political, economic and social life in Pakistan.	-	-	1	8	8
9	There is insufficient material produced in local languages to use in all the various types and levels of educational institutions.	1	-	2	6	8

10	English is essential for future development of Pakistan.	1	-	2	3	11
11	English language in Pakistan signifies liberal values.	-	3	2	7	5
12	Only English should be used for teaching in universities in Pakistan.	3	3	-	6	5
13	Urdu should be used along with English for teaching in universities in Pakistan.	3	10	2	2	-
14	You encourage your students to participate in discussions in English in the university.	2	5	1	8	1
15	You prefer to teach in Urdu to MA Education students.	4	7	-	3	4
16	You prefer to teach MA Education in English.	3	2	-	4	4
17	English as a medium of instruction hinders M.A Education students' achievements.	1	3	2	8	3
18	English should be used for informal conversation in universities.	5	3	3	6	-
19	Urdu should be used for informal conversation in universities.	3	4	-	10	-
20	Mother tongue should be used for informal conversation outside the class room.	1	5	3	6	2
21	English Language Teaching methods should be used to teach MA Education.	3	4	-	7	3
22	The problem of varieties of English must be addressed in language policies.	2	1	1	10	3
23	The varieties of English create language learning difficulties for students.	2	1	3	8	3
24	Universities in Pakistan should adopt suitable measures to tackle this problem.	2	3	-	4	8
25	Pakistani English is accepted as a variety of English.	2	-	2	8	5
26	The suitable measures must be taken by universities to develop PakE in universities in Pakistan.	2	2	-	6	7

Question response scale: 5 = Always; 4 = Mostly; 3 = Sometimes; 2 = Rarely; and 1 = Never

	Questions	1	2	3	4	5
		Frequency of responses				
27	English is a medium of instruction at university level.	-	1	2	8	6
28	You use English language for teaching MA Education students.	-	4	3	8	2
29	You use English for teaching reading texts.	1	1	4	5	6
30	You use English for writing purposes in classroom.	1	2	1	6	7
31	You use English for speaking in the class during the periods.	-	4	4	8	1
32	You allow them to talk in Urdu in classroom.	-	3	-	12	3
33	You permit your students to talk in mother tongue in the class room.	5	7		2	4

A4: Bulle Shah University Teachers' Questionnaire Results

Sample size=18

1. You are:

- (a) Male (b) Female

2. Your age is:

- (a) 24-29 (b) 30-35 (c) 36-40 (d) 41-45 (e) 46-50 (f) above 50

3. Your mother tongue is:

- (a) English (b) Urdu (c) Punjabi (d) Other regional language -----

4. Your qualifications:

- (a) Masters Degree in Education (b) MPhil Education (c) PhD Education (d) English Teaching Qualifications

5. Current Position in University:

- (a) Lecturer (b) Assistant Professor (c) Associate Professor (d) Professor

6. Language used by you for teaching M.A Education students:

- (a) English (b) Urdu (c) Both languages

7. Teaching Experience in years:

- (a) 1 – 5 (b) 5 - 10 (c) 10 - 15 (d) 15 - 25 (e) 25-30 (f) above 30

Question response scale: 5 = Strongly Agree; 4 = Agree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 2 = Disagree; and 1 = Strongly Disagree

	Questions	1	2	3	4	5
		Frequency of responses				
8	English is an integral part of educational, political, economic and social life in Pakistan.	3	2	-	10	3
9	There is insufficient material produced in local languages to use in all the various types and levels of educational institutions.	1	3	1	10	3
10	English is essential for future development of Pakistan.	3	1	-	9	5

11	English language in Pakistan signifies liberal values.	-	1	2	12	3
12	Only English should be used for teaching in universities in Pakistan.	2	8	-	8	-
13	Urdu should be used along with English for teaching in universities in Pakistan.	1	5	1	10	1
14	You encourage your students to participate in discussions in English in the university.	3	2	2	7	4
15	You prefer to teach in Urdu to MA Education students.	4	8	-	3	2
16	You prefer to teach MA Education in English.	2	3	1	4	4
17	English as a medium of instruction hinders M.A Education students' achievements.	1	5	-	9	3
18	English should be used for informal conversation in universities.	2	5	-	10	1
19	Urdu should be used for informal conversation in universities.	1	4	-	8	5
20	Mother tongue should be used for informal conversation outside the class room.	2	4	2	6	4
21	English Language Teaching methods should be used to teach MA Education.	1	2	1	9	5
22	The problem of varieties of English must be addressed in language policies.	1	2	1	10	4
23	The varieties of English create language learning difficulties for students.	-	5	-	11	2
24	Universities in Pakistan should adopt suitable measures to tackle this problem.	1	3	-	6	8
25	Pakistani English is accepted as a variety of English.	1	2	2	11	2
26	The suitable measures must be taken by universities to develop PakeE in universities in Pakistan.	2	3	-	10	3

Question response scale: 5 = Always; 4 = Mostly; 3 = Sometimes; 2 = Rarely; and 1 = Never

	Questions	1	2	3	4	5
		Frequency of responses				
27	English is a medium of instruction at university level.	1	2	3	8	4
28	You use English language for teaching MA Education students.	2	1	1	13	1
29	You use English for teaching reading texts.	1	4	-	9	4
30	You use English for writing purposes in classroom.	1	3	-	7	7
31	You use English for speaking in the class during the periods.	2	5	-	9	2
32	You allow them to talk in Urdu in classroom.	-	3	-	12	3
33	You permit your students to talk in mother tongue in the class room.	9	4	-	-	2

Appendix B. Focus Group Questions

B1: Focus Group Interview for M.A Education Students

Sample size=12

PART A

1. You are:
(a) Male (b) Female
 2. Your age is:
(a) 20-24 (b) 25-29 (c) 30-35 (d) 36-40 (e) 41-45 (f) 46-50
(g) above 50
 3. Your mother tongue is:
(a) English (b) Urdu (c) Punjabi (d) Other regional language.....
 4. If you had studied Education as an elective subject in Graduation was it in:
(a) English (b) Urdu (c) Both
 5. Which medium of instruction is being used for teaching M.A Education students in your university?
(a) Urdu (b) English (c) Both
-

PART B

6. Why do you face language problems regarding English as a medium of instruction?
6 (a) Could you give examples of your language difficulties?
7. How do you think that multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity influence implementation of an effective language policy in Pakistan?
7 (a) What is the role of regional languages in Pakistan?
7 (b) Why do you think that English is essential for future development of Pakistan?

8. Do you believe that varieties of English in Pakistan confuse you?
- 8 (a) Do you think that Pakistani English is an acceptable variety to be used for instruction and assessment purposes in universities?
- 8 (b) What problems might be encountered if we come up with Pakistani English?

B2: Focus Group Interview for University Teachers

Sample size=11

PART A

1. You are:
(a) Male (b) Female
 2. Your age is:
(a) 20- 24 (b) 25-29 (c) 30-35 (d) 36-40 (e) 41-45 (f) 46-50
(g) above 50
 3. Your mother tongue is:
(a) English (b) Urdu (c) Punjabi (d) Other regional language-----
 4. Your qualifications are:
(a) Masters Degree in Education (b) MPhil Education (c) PhD Education
(d) English Teaching Qualifications
 5. Your current position in university:
(a) Lecturer (b) Assistant Professor (c) Associate Professor (d) Professor
 6. What is your teaching experience?
(a) 1 – 5 (b) 5 - 10 (c) 10 - 15 (d) 15 - 25 (e) 25-30 (f) above 30
 7. Which medium of instruction do you use for teaching MA Education students in university?
(a) Urdu (b) English (c) Both
-

PART B

8. Do you agree that the impact of English as a medium of instruction affects students' ability to learn effectively?
- 8(a) Can you give an example when you might use Urdu language in classroom?
9. How do you think that multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity influence implementation of an effective language policy in Pakistan?

- 9(a) What is the role of regional languages in Pakistan?
- 9(b) Why do you think that English is essential for future development of Pakistan?
10. Do you believe that Pakistani English is an acceptable variety to be used for instruction and assessment purposes in Universities?
- 10(a) What problems might be encountered if we come up with Pakistani English?

Appendix C

Tabulated Results of M.A Education Students of Queen Victoria University and Bulle Shah University

Table C.1. Perceptions of the role of English in Pakistan

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for HE (Q.16)	2.2%	1.3%	28.2%	64.3%	4.51
English for satisfactory job (Q.17)	1.6%	2.7%	36.1%	53.0%	4.36
English for broadening outlook (Q.18)	2.0%	6.9%	43.2%	42.1%	4.17
English for future career (Q.23)	2.0%	3.1%	38.1%	54.5%	4.40
English for travelling abroad (Q.22)	1.3%	2.7%	24.8%	67.8%	4.55
English for international books and journals (Q.20)	1.3%	2.4%	36.4%	56.5%	4.44

Table C.2. English language problems arising from EMI

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Language problems related to EMI (Q.11)	5.3%	12.0%	46.1%	28.8%	3.81
Weak listening comprehension (Q.12)	7.8%	16.2%	42.1%	21.5%	3.53
Hesitation to speak English (Q.13)	4.4%	9.3%	47.9%	27.9%	3.86%
Difficult reading texts (Q.14)	6.0%	15.7%	43.7%	20.8%	3.58
Writing a complex skill (Q.15)	5.5%	11.3%	40.4%	33.7%	3.85

Table C.3. Language anxiety

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Tension of taking notes (Q.31)	11.1%	19.7%	39.0%	22.0%	3.41
Anxiety to talk to teacher in English (Q.29)	9.1%	16.4%	39.0%	25.1%	3.55
Confusion to interpret reading texts (Q.30)	11.1%	20.2%	36.8%	22.4%	3.39
Stress of examinations in English (Q.32)	11.3%	18.4%	38.1%	24.6%	3.41
Inclusion of English language courses (Q.28)	2.7%	5.8%	39.2%	48.3%	4.25

Table C.3. Which language for classroom teaching?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English as a language of instruction (Q.51)	4.0%	24.6%	39.2%	17.3%	3.41
Urdu as a language of instruction (Q.52)	2.9%	20.8%	42.6%	12.6%	3.41
Using English with teachers (Q.49)	14.2%	37.5%	20.6%	4.7%	2.64
Using Urdu with teachers (Q.50)	2.2%	11.1%	49.0%	25.3%	3.84

Table C.4. Availability of resources in English

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Reading material in English	2.2%	3.1%	28.2%	60.3%	4.41
English for access to IT	3.3%	4.9%	40.6%	45.0%	4.19

Table C.5. English for examination and classroom discussion in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for classroom discussion (Q.33)	6.4%	11.3%	37.9%	33.0%	3.80
English for examination (Q.53)	6.4%	3.1%	16.9%	70.3%	4.41

Table C.6. Using only English in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Only English for teaching and learning (Q.24)	11.1%	18.8%	39.0%	20.0%	3.37
Only English for assessment (Q.25)	9.8%	15.5%	39.0%	22.6%	3.49

Table C.7. Which language for social interaction in universities?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for social interaction (Q.34)	5.8%	10.9%	43.0%	30.6%	3.82
Urdu for social interaction (Q.35)	9.3%	20.0%	37.3%	21.5%	3.42
Mother tongue for social interaction (Q.36)	21.1%	32.4%	22.0%	14.6%	2.77

Table C.8. Which language for co-curricular activities in universities?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for co-curricular activities (Q.37)	10.4%	31.9%	26.8%	18.2%	3.10
Urdu for co-curricular activities (Q.38)	8.9%	23.5%	40.1%	11.8%	3.22
Mother tongue for co-curricular activities (Q.39)	18.8%	29.3%	25.3%	12.2%	2.83

Table C.9. Perceptions of varieties of English in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Varieties of English in Pakistani universities (Q.40)	6.4%	11.3%	42.1%	30.6%	3.79
Teachers speak Pakistani English (Q.43)	3.1%	7.3%	45.7%	39.7%	4.12
Teachers speak American English (Q.44)	34.1%	36.1%	10.0%	6.7%	2.19
Teachers speak British English (Q.45)	36.1%	33.0%	11.8%	5.1%	2.17

Table C.10. Language problems arising from varieties

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Confusion arising from different spellings of same words (Q.41)	7.5%	11.3%	44.6%	31.5%	3.81
Different types of pronunciation (Q.42)	6.2%	11.1%	43.5%	33.5%	3.87

Table C.11. Preference for Pakistani English

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Preference for Pake (Q.46)	6.2%	9.3%	40.6%	39.0%	3.97
Interest in British English (Q.47)	25.1%	25.7%	19.7%	17.5%	2.79
Influence of American English (Q.48)	23.5%	27.5%	25.3%	12.9%	2.77

Appendix D

Tabulated Results of Questionnaires for Queen Victoria University and Bulle Shah University's Teachers

Table D.1. Status of English in universities

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English integrated with socio-politico, economic and educational life (Q.8)	3	2	18	11	.198
English essential for future development (Q.10)	4	1	12	16	.220
English signifies liberal values (Q.11)	-	4	19	8	.152

Table D.2. Policy of English medium of instruction at university level

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
EMI at university level (Q.27)	1	2	16	10	.173
EMI hinders achievements (Q.17)	2	8	17	6	.202

Table D.3. Using English for teaching in classroom

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Using English for teaching (Q.29)	2	5	21	3	.176
English for speaking in classroom (Q.31)	2	9	17	3	.190
English for reading texts (Q.29)	2	5	14	10	.203
English for writing purposes (Q.30)	2	5	13	14	.211
Discussion in English (Q.14)	5	7	15	3	.225
Using ELT methods (Q.21)	4	6	16	8	.226

Table D.4. Preference to teach in which language?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Preference to teach students in English (Q.15)	5	5	12	8	2.66
Preference to teach in Urdu (Q.16)	5	10	11	7	3.37

Table D.5. Which language in classroom?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
Allowing students to talk in Urdu (Q.32)	-	7	12	6	3.66
Permitting students to talk in Punjabi (Q.33)	14	11	2	6	2.29

Table D.6. Which language for informal conversation in universities?

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
English for informal conversation (Q. 18)	7	8	16	1	2.89
Urdu for informal conversation (Q.19)	5	12	8	10	3.34
Mother tongue for informal conversation (Q.20)	3	9	12	6	3.26

Table D.7. Views about Pakistani English (PakE)

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
PakE a variety of English (Q.25)	3	2	19	7	3.71
Varieties create language problems (Q.23)	2	6	19	5	3.54
Universities to tackle with this issue (Q.24)	3	6	10	16	3.86
Universities to develop PakE (Q.26)	5	5	16	10	3.66
Varieties of English and language policy (Q.22)	3	3	20	7	3.71

Appendix E. Transcriptions of University Teachers’ Focus Group Interviews

E1: Transcriptions of Focus Group Interview of QVU’s Teachers

**QVT1= Teacher 1; QVT2= Teacher 2; QVT3= Teacher 3; QVT4= Teacher 4;
QVT5= Teacher 5; QVT6= Teacher 6**

Question 8: Do you think that the impact of English as a medium of instruction affects students’ ability to learn effectively?

QVT1: Yes, I think that Medium of instruction affects students’ ability. The language serves as a medium of instruction and learning tool. When we talk about English, students who are deficient in English, their learning is hampered. Those who have command on English, they learn easily and comfortably. Yes, for example, when we give them test, the student can respond according to his level of understanding. Many times student is unable to understand what is being asked in the question. If we use some unfamiliar words in question, they will not be able to answer it even though they know the answer. Sometimes, they answer but they remain unable to respond accordingly due to their inability to understand that word or expression in English.

QVT2: Language definitely affects students’ performance, their ability to understand something. In my understanding, it does not affect ability, it affects the capacity of a person. A student might not good in English but he is able, he can understand his subject and not knowing a language will hinder his performance, his capacity to learn something. Obviously, the students don’t feel comfortable with English. They take it as a burden, the literature from foreign books, we give to them for reading. They take a lot of time to understand the language first and then they understand the content. Even if they are proficient in speaking, they hesitate to speak English because culture doesn’t allow them to do so. It’s not a conducive environment, if two are good in spoken English in classroom. They are not appreciated by other students. The other students will make fun of them outside the classroom. The academic writing corresponds to other two skills, if they are not good in reading and speaking, how could they be good in writing.

QVT3: I have observed that English definitely affects the learning of a student, because whatever material we consult for teaching in classroom is mostly in English. The examinations are conducted in English. They learn what they hear. If a teacher speaks English and the student hears effectively, then he can memorise and rewrite literature in that language. I think the literature we are consulting is in English so it's definitely going to affect students' ability to learn it. In Pakistani culture, we have different mediums of instruction, like some schools are Urdu medium while others are English medium. We don't have students who are very proficient in English. We don't have complete English as a medium of instruction. There are other languages which are being taught in schools. So the students can't be proficient in one language. When they join Masters, level of education in English is higher for them and goes beyond their understanding. They ask the teacher to translate it in easiest language. The literature we consult is most in American or British Englishes which are different from Pakistani English. The students hesitate and feel uncomfortable with the extreme use of English during the instruction.

QVT4: English as medium of instruction affects their learning as students are unable to understand it. I teach philosophy of education, students are unable to understand philosophical issues in English. They are able to use English for assignments and examinations, during the classroom, they can't understand. So if we use Urdu they can easily understand the subject and respond to it. Sometimes, they use both languages, little bit explain in English and then shift to Urdu. I always use both languages in classroom. The material which I give them is in English, I write notes in English but I explain in Urdu. The terminology is provided in English like pragmatism, realism, idealism but explanation is given in Urdu. If I explain using our own culture, they understand easily. Examination, books and notes are in English. During the classroom, we use both Urdu and English. The major language is Urdu to make them understand the concepts.

QVT5: I think English medium of instruction has an impact on students' ability. Those students who are not residents of Lahore, they feel difficulty to understand what we teach to them. How can they apply concepts to real life situations? Those who come from good background, they have no problem. By background, I mean family structure and schooling. The students with good family structure

and schooling have good language skills.

Q.8 (a) Can you give an example when you might use Urdu language in classroom?

QVT1: Especially, when I want to add some humour, I use Urdu language because humour should be shared in mother tongue.

QVT2: I use Urdu when I see their blank faces. It's fair keeping in view their background. My purpose is not to impress them with my language; it is to make them understand things. Whatever I say in English, I repeat that in Urdu too.

QVT3: Yes, I use Urdu in my classes because students say that philosophy is very hard for them.

QVT4: I use Urdu, for example, to make them differentiate the meaning between strategy and tactics. When I fail to explain the meanings in English, I switch to Urdu to clarify the meaning.

QVT5: I use Urdu language for making things clear to students.

Q.9 How do you think that multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity influence implementation of an effective language policy in Pakistan?

QVT1: I think cultural heritage, multilingualism and ethnicity are very important for active language policy in Pakistan. Because we have different languages and cultural heritage, we have to incorporate things in our policy to facilitate the students in our classroom.

QVT2: There are three languages in Pakistan i.e. mother tongue, national language and English language. We also learn Arabic, so there are four languages, but we are experts in our mother tongue. It is easy to learn mother tongue because child learns through hearing at home but in classroom environment learning of a language is entirely different because sometimes the teacher himself does not speak that language. For example, English teacher explaining in Urdu using GTM. Sometimes, he uses Punjabi. When a language teacher does not properly speak language in classroom for 40 minutes how can students speak it. I would like to give my personal example that my native language is Punjabi but I grew up in Multan where Seraiki is spoken and at school I had Urdu medium of instruction. Sometimes, I

felt difficulty to move from one language to other language. I think many languages confuse a child.

QVT3: I know that there is a language policy in Pakistan but I don't know what's inside that. In Pakistan, more than one languages are spoken, we are proud of our culture and we have a lot of ethnic groups. We need to consider all these factors for teaching. Our classrooms are very sensitive, we avoid talking about ethnicity. Usually, we do not raise controversial issues in classroom which can hurt other people. We are very sensitive about these issues. We have strong cultural heritage and try to highlight it while teaching. Every student has mother tongue and national language. When we want to have serious talk with them, we talk in our national language. I think these three aspects affect language policy. Since, we are born we talk about Urdu/ English controversy. Talking from academic point of view, everybody is comfortable with national language but we keep on insisting that English language should be used. It's the policy makers on the top who come from special group of people in Pakistan and they just live in Pakistan. They do not belong to this country. They try to influence what are their priorities but not the priorities of masses in general. All developed countries are teaching in their own languages.

QVT4: As far as, university is concerned, we don't follow any single language for instruction. Policy makers are multilingual, multiculturalists and belong to different ethnic groups. Politicians don't want English to be used as a language of instruction. For example, Khyber Pukhtoon Kawah wants Pushto to be medium of instruction at Primary level. This can hinder the policy of single medium of instruction at University level.

QVT5: Yes, I think multilingualism, ethnicity and cultural heritage affect the ability of a student to be effective learner in class. The policy makers should keep in view these factors while devising policies. They should train the teachers incorporating diversity so that learning process of Pakistani students could be enhanced.

Q.9 (a) What do you think the role of regional languages should be in Pakistan?

QVT1: As far as, role of regional languages is concerned, I think this is important because when you give examples from your own culture and regional language, they are much facilitated. The teacher must have background for their regional languages as well.

QVT2: In Sindh we are using Sindhi as a language of instruction. The basic education is

given in mother tongue. There is no harm if we start Punjabi in Punjab.

QVT3: In Punjab, we can't start Punjabi as a medium of instruction because there are two major languages; Punjabi and Seraiki. So, there could be problem in that province because of Punjabi/Seraiki controversy. Our national language is Urdu but our minds are not free of slavery, we feel dominance of English language. If someone speaks good English, we appreciate him because we are suffering from inferiority complex. It is seen that many advanced countries do not use English but we have complexes.

QVT4: The whole world is treated as a global village. I think uniformity and standardisation are very important. Different languages create discriminations. I prefer English should be emphasised and promoted over regional languages. It's good to have same language and understanding. In this way, we will have same literature all over the country. The regional languages should be used for spoken purposes at home but should not be used at University level.

QVT5: I would say that if you change the national language, you can change the medium of instruction. I think, English should be used as medium of instruction because most of the literature is available in English.

Q.9 (b) What do you think of the role of English in the future development of Pakistan?

QVT1: Cultural unification process is very fast and people all over the world are getting themselves connected in language, culture, education and so on. It is very important for Pakistani policy makers to take into account this aspect that English is language of politics, business and education. They have to incorporate all this in policy. *It is important to develop reading, writing, speaking and listening capacities of students and teachers as well. Sometimes, teachers also face difficulty to convey the meanings in English.

QVT2: English is global language and we should learn it. We had been through different phases. In 1978 General Zia ul Haq's period, we promoted our national language. There was Urdu science board and Wafaqi Urdu university. The purpose of these institutes was to translate the materials written in English and other languages into Urdu language. They haven't done their job, so we are still lacking in literature in Urdu language to be used for teaching. The problem is the decision of the policy

makers, if it is decided that Urdu or regional language should be used for teaching then materials can be produced in it. There are so many nations, such as, Iranians, Koreans, Chinese and Russians who are doing this. First of all, you have to decide that you will be using your own language then other issues related to that could be resolved. Development of a country is a different subject. We develop more indigenously. We can't develop on borrowed ideas because ideas are not yet finished and consultants go back. For development, you need to have human resources that understand your country. It can be done without a foreign language.

QVT3: Development doesn't depend upon a language.

QVT4: English can play a vital role in the development of the country. How can you share the knowledge of advanced countries if you don't know English? Our graduates go abroad and they have to follow English medium of instruction. We should promote English.

QVT5: The policy makers should decide what should be the medium of instruction. If English is necessary for development, then people should be trained in that language from school to university level.

Q.10 Do you believe that Pakistani English is an acceptable variety of English for use in instruction and assessment in universities? What problems might be encountered if we develop Pakistani English?

QVT1: Yes, the role of language is to convey meanings clear and to communicate effectively. If students understand your accent and expression, then it is fine, because this is what language is meant for. We have to make ourselves up to the level of world acceptability. The world accepts those things which are useful, able to be shared and can be used interchangeably.

QVT2: We might be using Pakistani English because our accent is different. We encounter a lot of problems to develop it.

QVT3: Pakistani English can be different regarding speaking skill, for instance, we say 'shopper' instead of shopping bag. We have modified English but it's not one way traffic, English has modified Urdu too. In Urdu language, many words are borrowed from English. Similarly, we construct words in Urdu that influence our way of speaking English. We try to follow the rules set by natives. We are using obsolete words but not many of them. The sentence structure is different from na-

tives but it's not intentional effort to make it different. We are confused about American and British spellings. Usually, we accept both of them e.g. 'colour' and 'color'. English is not our language, we are trying to communicate in this language as best as we can. I don't see any problem with Pakistani English because when we talk to each other, we understand what we are saying. People outside the country might have problems to understand us.

QVT4: Yes, there is no harm if we develop our own English. World Englishes like Sri-lankan English, Indian English etc. are accepted by America and Britain. Pakistani English is a rich language.

QVT5: We will require trainers to develop it.

E2: Transcription of Focus Group Interview of teachers of BSU

BST1= Teacher 1; BST2= Teacher 2; BST3= Teacher 3; BST4= Teacher 4;

BST5= Teacher 5; BST6= Teacher 6

Q.8 Do you think that impact of English as a medium of instruction affects students' ability to learn effectively?

BST1: English medium of instruction is compulsory at university level. We are a member of global society, if we will not make English language a medium of instruction, then globally wherever our students will go, they will face problems.

BST2: Our university is using English Medium of instruction at Master's level. All the books by both local and foreign authors are available in English in our library. We are instructed to teach in English but the problem is that students at Master's level don't have required proficiency in English. They are unable to follow the instructions delivered in English. We have to be bilingual and have to use Urdu language. We have to give examples in Urdu language. I have got evidence as I collected data on this aspect. When I joined UE and marked papers, I observed that only reason that students were not able to express their ability is English medium of instruction. Students ask me, 'can we take papers in Urdu?' The reason is that they are unable to write answers in English. They understand concepts but are unable to respond in English language. Personally, I agree that we should use English as a medium of instruction as research journals are available in English but practical problem is that our students lack proficiency in English. Our students have different linguistic backgrounds so they face bundles of problems resulting from English as a medium of instruction.

BST3: I think the impact of English Medium of instruction is strong on students' ability. In our situation, students are unable to understand concepts if they are taught only in English. They have to use memorisation. Therefore, national language should be used to give the equivalence of various terms in English. The students ask the meanings of the words because they come from backgrounds where they had not been encouraged to use dictionaries.

Mostly, they prefer that I should talk to them in Urdu. But if they are motivated they can improve their academic skills.

BST4: Yes, English as a medium of instruction affects students' learning ability. Normally, if we see socio-cultural background of the students, they are weak in four skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. English Medium of instruction affects their ability. When they read, they face difficulty to understand the concepts. They can't express their ideas and thoughts fluently and expressively. At higher level, we use books in English by foreign authors which are about their own context and writing style. We study till B.A/B.Sc Pakistani books, so students can't understand foreign authors' writing and thoughts exactly. English Medium of instruction and students' ability have complex relationship. They come from backgrounds where they have never encountered this situation and developed their thinking ability in English. If we keep more focus on English in class, they show blank faces. English can be used a lingua franca or a language of communication but we must necessarily confine to single language. When they start thinking in English, they feel comfortable but most of the students are reluctant to accept English as a medium of instruction.

BST5: In our university, students come from different backgrounds. There are two parallel education systems-English Medium and Urdu Medium of instruction. Some schools follow curriculum in Urdu and some in English. The background of the students affects their performance at university level. In university, they sit in the same class so teachers have to use both languages. English is very effective because books are written in English by foreign authors, such as, American, British, Indian etc. English should be the medium of instruction. Urdu can be used to quote local examples and metaphors.

BST6: Under the Constitution of Pakistan, English and Urdu are our national languages. Urdu is prominent and English is also considered as a national language but our emphasis is on Urdu language. When I deliver the lecture in English, students say, 'repeat it in Urdu'. So, I have to repeat it in Urdu when I see their blank faces because our objective is to satisfy students. Urdu and English in combination are used. At Masters' level, first year

students are weak in English. When they write answers, they use English but when they speak in class, they use Urdu language. However, my experience at UE and other university is that students like to use Urdu language but when teachers say that English is important and significance as an international and a global language, they feel encouraged. There should be training programmes to develop students' proficiency in English. I hope that in the long run English will be used as a language of communication at higher education level and material in English will be produced at international and technologically advanced level.

Q.8 (a) Can you give an example when you might use Urdu language in classroom?

- BST1:** It is seen foreign authors write books from perspective, context and culture. They use the terminology where they live. We use Urdu where we think that this is necessary to explain the things which are not related to our culture. We have to transfer the knowledge in accordance with our cultural, religious, social and economic backgrounds. This helps the students to comprehend and understand what is taught to them. We shouldn't impose English language on ourselves. This is not a language for speaking purposes. We can explain the background of the things which don't belong to our culture in Urdu.
- BST2:** I present the concepts using power point presentations in English but there are certain students who don't understand/follow my instruction. For them, I have to use Urdu language. When I engage them in discussion so that they can express their ideas and thoughts to clarify concepts, they are unable to communicate in English as they hesitate to speak English. Then I ask them to use Urdu. We use brainstorming, questions and discussion to teach them. We have to use Urdu keeping in view students' prior background and lack of proficiency in English. In our university, students have different backgrounds.
- BST3:** Many students have not studied subjects in English in their earlier programmes. But those students' performance who have studied subjects in English is better than those who come from Urdu medium institutions.
- BST4:** I use Urdu to clarify the concepts. We write the words in English on the board but explain them in Urdu. For example, I clarified the meanings of words 'ethics', 'mo-

rality' and 'values' using Urdu language.

BST5: I give the examples in Urdu from daily life to explain the concepts.

BST6: I use Urdu language to explain the words given in English. Sometimes, we use regional language Punjabi so that students can understand the terminology presented in English.

Q.9 How do you think that multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity influence implementation of an effective language policy in Pakistan?

BST1: We are still unable to decide 'what should be the medium of instruction - Urdu or English? When we do not have one medium of instruction in the country, how can we devise effective language policy? We are multilingual because we have various languages such as Sindhi, Punjabi, Pushto, Balochi etc. as we have four provinces. We also have ethnicity, such as Sunnism, Shaism etc. in Pakistan. We can't teach without national language as this is our cultural heritage, without it we will restrict ourselves and kill the creativity of young people because creativity comes from your first language. You think in your mother tongue. You feel close to community who speak your language. We are social animals so we like to interact with our own people. At university level, we receive students from different regions but can't use MT i.e. Punjabi with them because we don't have ample literature in Punjabi language. We don't have even ABC book in Punjabi. Our speaking fluency in Punjabi is stronger than written ability.

BST2: As far as my analysis and response to this question is considered, I think multilingualism, ethnicity and cultural heritage don't influence language policy in Pakistan. We have many languages. Millions of people speak Punjabi, Pushto, Sindhi and Balochi. English language policy is uniform throughout the country. A few years ago, English was a compulsory subject from grade 6 to grade 14 and now it is taught from grade 1 to graduation level. You can't get a certificate unless you qualify English paper. This is a case everywhere in the country. Though, English is taught as a compulsory subject, our graduates are unable to write and speak good English. Are multilingualism, ethnicity and cultural heritage the reasons for poor proficiency in English? These have nothing to do with ineffective implementation of

language policy. I have 30 years teaching experience. I taught 20 years in school and noticed that English is not taught in schools as it should be. We are doing nothing to develop proficiency in spoken English. We are teaching our students through GTM (Grammar Translation Method). We make students learn by heart and think that through the memorisation of essays, stories, letters and applications, English can be learned. This strategy is not working. The problem lies in teacher education. We can't blame teachers because they are not trained well. They make effort but are unable to develop learners' proficiency in English. The regional languages have nothing to do with poor proficiency in English. English is taught at every level and examinations are taken in English. The problem is with teachers, the way they teach English and the ultimate responsibility lies on teacher education.

BST3: Multilingualism, ethnicity and cultural heritage are three dimensions which have affected language policy. Multilingualism is a political agenda, we have Islamic, Hindu and regional cultural heritage. Ethnicity is found in Pakistan. Four provinces speak different languages. In this situation, there is need of one language i.e. to make people to communicate with each other. So, Government of Pakistan made compulsory two languages i.e. Urdu and English. The problem is that much work is to be done by teacher education programmes. The teachers should be trained to teach with strong will, zeal and zest. There is need of one medium of instruction in Pakistan.

BST4: There are many languages in Pakistan, such as, mother tongues, national language and English as foreign language. We have got cultures based on regions, religions and civilisations. There are different ethnic groups i.e. caste based, income groups and social classes. All these practices, laws, values and norms affect language policy. It is a complex situation.

BST5: I think in classroom, multilingualism, ethnicity and cultural heritage do not matter because we have same curriculum for everybody.

BST6: We have different regions where people speak their own languages and are emotionally attached to them. Culturally, English is a foreign language. Language policies and planning focus on English in higher education but we are still facing cultural and ethnic problems. In higher education, students have accepted the fact that English has a status and those who want to

go abroad, they have to pass the test conducted in English.

Q.9 (a) What do you think the role of regional languages should be in Pakistan?

BST1: Our national language is Urdu and our official language is English but regional language is the only way to preserve culture, traditions and customs. The regional languages are optional in institutions. The cultural heritage is being weakened by making regional languages 'optional languages'.

BST2: There are folk music and stories in regional languages. Regional languages should be promoted as much as possible. Languages are a part of culture not just a medium to preserve culture. It is seen that Sindhi are making more efforts than Punjabis. In Punjab, Punjabi and Seraiki are not patronised by Government of Punjab but in Sindh, Sindhi is patronised by the Government of Sindh.

BST3: I think regional languages should be taught because they are helpful to understand the concepts of various subjects. We should promote regional languages according to global standards.

BST4: Regional language should be promoted. It should be introduced as a literature/ philosophy course that includes thoughts of various authors which might develop the thoughts of students.

BST5: Regional languages should be promoted because it is the only way to transmit culture. But in higher education, in classroom, these languages do not matter. The regional languages should be promoted keeping in view the cultural values.

BST6: Regional languages and national language Urdu should be promoted.

Q.9 (b) What do you think of the role of English in the future development of Pakistan?

- BST1:** The role of English is important because economic and technological advancements could not be possible without English. We can move to advanced countries if we know English. Moreover, print media, electronic media are in English.
- BST2:** As far as, English is concerned, it has an important role to play in the development of Pakistan. We should learn and teach English rigorously and properly. If we teach English in classroom and students start thinking in global perspective then social justice can be realised. Through English we can build our identity as a progressive and democratic nation. It is observed that younger generation is more receptive towards learning English.
- BST3:** English is very significant for future development of Pakistan as knowledge reservoirs for various subjects are in English. There are no more imperialistic connotations associated with learning English.
- BST4:** As far as, English is concerned our future development depends on English. Regarding trade, commerce, foreign affairs, political relations and technological advancements, we must rely on English. Therefore, it should be taught for better future of Pakistan. We need to develop English right from the beginning. If our students want to go abroad, they have to pass English tests like TOEFL, IELTS etc.
- BST5:** A strong culture gives confidence to nation. It isn't necessary that English can bring about development. Examples of other advanced countries can be taken.

Q.10 Do you believe that Pakistani English is an acceptable variety of English for use in instruction and assessment in universities? Q.10 (a) What problems might be encountered if we develop Pakistani English?

BST1: We are not primary users of British and American English. We are using English as a foreign language. We use our own English that is Pakistani. Pakistani English is more acceptable than British or American English. In order to enhance learning, we should use Pakistani English. Pakistani English is accepted because articles written by Pakistani authors are read by Pakistani community. The measures should be taken if we want to standardise and classify it. There should be mentors who should promote Pakistani English. It should be taught and used as a medium of instruction. The problem is that Pakistani English is a new concept. It is taking place in education system but people will take time to adjust to it and lean towards it.

BST2: We are using Pakistani English as a medium of instruction and assessment. Although there is discussion about World Englishes i.e. Australian English, American, UK English but do we have sufficient knowledge/ literature in Pakistani English. But, we have English newspapers and we can say that Pakistani English is different.

BST3: Pakistani English for use in assessment and instruction is acceptable. Pakistan has its own English literature. Literature written in Pakistani English depicts our culture and remains a reality. It will take some time to promote it in accordance with international standards. Pakistanis think that British and American Englishes are standard Englishes and best in the world. They fear that Pakistani English is of no value at an international level/ scenario.

BST4: Accent in Pakistan changes at every 20 miles. Even in Pakistan, we have varieties of English i.e. Punjabi English, Sindhi English, Seraiki English etc. The problem is that we lack funding and experts to develop Pakistani English.

BST5: We face multiple and diversified problems to develop Pakistani English. People still believe that English is a colonial language and if we promote English, we try to promote colonialism. It's kind of neo-colonialism which is imposed by their agents. Secondly, we lack writers in Pakistani English. Thirdly, the major problem is its acceptance at a global level. We are using

varieties of English for instruction and assessment at university level. Only solution is teacher education.

BST6 Both spoken and written English is different. The written English used by media is totally different from English written in books and used for teaching. Pakistani society is rapidly turning to Islamisation and fundamentalism that might act as a resistance to the development of Pakistani English. They might consider it a conspiracy against Muslims and Islam if we promote English in this society. These problems should be dealt with if we want to promote Pakistani English.

Appendix F

F1: Transcription of Focus Group Interview of QVU's Master of Business Education Students

QVS1= Student 1; QVS2= Student 2; QVS3= Student 3; QVS4= Student 4;
QVS5= Student 5; QVS6= Student 6

Q.6 Do you think students face language problems regarding English as a medium of instruction? Q.6 (a) Can you give any examples of language difficulties?

QVS1: I think English medium of instruction is a problem because students have to face many difficulties like vocabulary, pronunciation and tenses regarding English as a medium of instruction. At Matriculation level, I studied all science subjects in Urdu but in F.Sc (Intermediate level), I had to study subjects in English. I feel that I can't express myself and learn in English as I can in Urdu. The students have problems because they speak Punjabi at home and national language Urdu at school. They start learning English in grade 6, speaking a foreign language is a problem for them.

QVS2: Yes, students face language problems regarding English as a medium of instruction. We have writing and comprehension problems in English. Mostly, many students are from rural background so they are not acquainted with English language so they face social problems. The students are confused to choose the appropriate pronunciation of the words.

QVS3: First of all, there are basic communication problems. The language is a culture as a whole so it has to be transmitted and communicated. The Grammar translation Method is used for teaching. Moreover, we lack professional teachers who can satisfy students. We have emphasis on translation of a language rather than developing it as a communicative skill. Second problem is non-friendly society. We need social atmosphere to practice a foreign language. Most of our friends would criticise rather than appreciating us.

QVS4: Most of the students are not well-equipped in basic English skills. This problem can be overcome if enough exposure to language is provided. The

students take the language problems as a stress. They try to do their best but can't do so because of language difficulties.

QVS5: English is a difficult language and students coming from villages can't perform their best. First is the background of students. Most of them belong to rural areas. If a student tries to speak English, he is discouraged by other students. At school level, teachers are still using Grammar Translation Method for teaching.

QVS6: The main reason is that our mother tongues are either Punjabi or Urdu. It's difficult to speak English fluently. We can't express our ideas because we hesitate to use English. The problems are vocabulary, pronunciation and social atmosphere. Our education system is a major problem.

Q.7 How do you think that multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity influence implementation of an effective language policy in Pakistan?

QVS1: Yes, these influence the implementation of effective language policy in Pakistan because provinces don't want their languages to die. In Sindh, Matriculation papers can be taken in Sindhi. Our Moulanas (religious leaders) say that foreign literature is not good for us, we should read only Pakistani literature.

QVS2: By birth, we are Punjabi but in schools we use Urdu and English for teaching and learning purposes so that is multilingualism. The culture, religious education and ego of different ethnic groups like Sindhis, Balouchis, Punjabis become hurdles in the implementation of effective language policy.

QVS3: The creation of Pakistan started the dispute over languages. The policies were dominated and tilted towards the interests of Punjabis. There was a language problem which led to breakage of Pakistan. It was not acceptable to make Bengali as a national language. Dancing around the fire is not the solution to any problem, we have to see underneath. The government has to take concrete steps to resolve cultural and ethnic differences and eliminate discrimination so that we can live in a stabilised language society.

QVS4: These factors create disconsolation among new generation.

QVS5: Each province in Pakistan has its own language and people love to speak their own language and think they are superior to others. Though, mostly

people speak many languages, they are not proficient in any language. This is because of Pakistan's language policy.

Q.7 (a) What do you think the role of regional languages should be in Pakistan?

QVS1: The regional languages should be used for communication purposes only.

QVS2: The regional languages represent our culture and values. The role of regional languages should be on the basic level. They can't take the place of official languages or languages which are fulfilling our needs.

QVS3: It's the age of English not of regional languages.

QVS4: We should introduce dictionaries and newspapers in mother tongues because it's very important for our next generation.

QVS5: Yes, regional languages should be promoted because they promote our culture and traditions.

Q.7 (b) What do you think of the role of English in the future development of Pakistan?

QVS1: English language is a source of extensive knowledge and huge discoveries. Through internet we get different types of knowledge and information. English is important to move to other countries, to communicate with people and to get a good job.

QVS2: English is an international language and a lingua franca. It's a key to success for Pakistan. It can help Pakistan to progress.

QVS3: If we analyse the situation, for the past 63 years we are pursuing a policy of friendly attitude towards English. We are producing an elite class of CSP officers who have fluency in English. If today, we change the policy to boost Urdu language, that would destroy our institutions and what we have achieved until now. The role of English is indispensable for the progress of Pakistan. So, we should move in a positive direction to create a more friendly English culture. Without English, we can't get good job opportunities in Pakistan.

QVS4: English is very important for future development. It is an international language and a language of inventions and technology. We need to be well-

equipped in English language. We can't pass interviews and public service examinations in Pakistan without good English.

QVS5: English is an international and a business language so is a necessity for progress and development of Pakistan. I think English language should be promoted but not English culture, it's not necessary for us.

QVS6: English is Pakistan's official language and has a role to play in Pakistan's development. Everybody needs to learn English. We Seraiki speakers don't perform well in English because we have not been taught English in earlier stages of education.

Q.8 Do you find the varieties of English used in Pakistan confusing?

QVS1: Yes, the varieties of English are confusing. English is not Pakistanis' mother tongue, they speak English with their own dialects and accents.

QVS2: There are varieties of English which are used in Pakistan.

QVS3: The students are confused of different spellings and pronunciation.

QVS4: The varieties create confusion, for example, the different pronunciation of word 'onion' and intonation changes the entire meaning of the word.

QVS5: The different accents of British and American Englishes confuse us at Master's level.

QVS6: Yes, British and American pronunciations of the same words e.g. 'often' confuse us.

Q.8 (a) Do you believe that Pakistani English is an acceptable variety of English for use in instruction and assessment in universities? 8(b) What problems might be encountered if we develop Pakistani English?

QVS1: Yes, Pakistani English is an acceptable variety in Pakistan and our university and is helpful to students.

QVS2: Yes, Pakistani English can be used to teach students as it is in accordance to their cognitive and psychological level. But we need to develop it from grassroots level.

QVS3: We can call a variety acceptable if we are able to communicate in it with foreigners. I predict that language develops itself and we need to have rich literature in it to teach it to students. We need to have readers and writers of

Pakistani English.

- QVS4:** The problems are that Pakistani English may not be of international standards and secondly, resources are required to develop and use it at the secondary and higher levels of education.
- QVS5:** We talk and think in Pakistani English.
- QVS6:** Pakistani English is being used for teaching in schools and universities. It is easy for Pakistani students. **It should be used in curricula and syllabi.** British and American varieties confuse us. There should be one English.

F2: Transcription of Focus Group Interview of BSU's M.A Education students

BSS1= Student 1; BSS2= Student 2; BSS3= Student 3; BSS4= Student 4; BSS5= Student 5; BSS6= Student 6

Q.6 Do you think students face language problems regarding English as a medium of instruction? 6(a) Can you give any examples of language difficulties?

- BSS1:** Most of the students have studied in Urdu medium or mother tongue till Matriculation level. **Students face language problems because B.A Course was in Urdu but in M.A all syllabus is in English.** Most of the languages spoken in Pakistan are in Arabic script. I remember when I studied sciences in English, the students said, the concepts of Physics and Chemistry are not problems but the problem is to understand the English of these books.
- BSS2:** The students can't speak English in universities because most of the courses are in Urdu till graduation level. The students face language problems because teachers in schools talk to them in their mother tongues.
- BSS3:** Yes, students face language problems because their previous education was either in Urdu or in mother tongue. **There are a lot of language difficulties such as reading, writing, speaking and vocabulary. Students find it difficult to understand lecture in English. Most of the students come from Urdu medium schools and colleges.**
- BSS4:** We face language difficulties in writing, listening and speaking skills. **The teachers deliver lectures in English and their and our mental levels are not same.** I can't understand the difficult words spoken by some teachers.
- BSS5:** English is an international language. It is not our mother tongue. Most of the students live in villages, when they join universities they face language problems. In my opinion, pronunciation and vocabulary are two major problems. **If teachers prefer to teach in Urdu, we can perform better in Urdu language than in English language.**
- BSS6:** Mostly students can't communicate in English language. I think reading, writing, speaking, grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. **We hesitate to communicate with others because of our poor pronunciation.**

Q.7 How do you think that multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity influence implementation of an effective language policy in Pakistan?

- BSS1:** Multilingualism affects language policy. There are so many languages such as Punjabi, Seraiki, Sindhi and Balochi etc. No one is ready to give up these languages and to adopt Urdu and English.
- BSS2:** We fail to obtain educational aims because of multilingualism. Multilingualism is a problem because many languages are spoken in our country.
- BSS3:** Yes, multilingualism, cultural heritage and ethnicity influence implementation of effective language policy.

Q.7 (a) What do you think the role of regional languages should be in Pakistan?

- BSS1:** The role of regional languages in Pakistan should be very limited because the religious books are mostly in Arabic and modern sciences are in English.
- BSS2:** My opinion is that regional languages should be limited to the particular regions and should only be used to preserve culture.
- BSS3:** The regional languages are our identity. They play a great role to preserve cultural heritage.
- BSS4:** We should speak regional languages in our areas but not in universities. Most of the books and knowledge is available in English.
- BSS5:** We should promote English as a national and international language rather than regional languages because they don't play role in the development of the country.
- BSS6:** We feel good when our teachers give examples in Punjabi or Pushto.

Q.7 (b) What do you think of the role of English in the future development of Pakistan?

- BSS1:** Those students who have studied in Urdu medium, they hesitate to speak English. The role of English in the future development of Pakistan is very important because English is a language of knowledge and technology. So we must improve our English language skills.
- BSS2:** English is necessary if we want to progress. Those who speak English impressively get good jobs as compared to those who are not fluent in English though they have knowledge and ability as well. The world is a global village. English is necessary to cope with the international world.
- BSS3:** English is a language of science, technology and communication. It is a requirement because interviews for jobs are held in English.
- BSS4:** English is needed to get good jobs.
- BSS5:** English plays a vital role in the development of Pakistan. It's a language of education, trade, computer and travelling etc. English is a global language. So we should read and understand English.
- BSS6:** English is used in schools, colleges, universities, offices and courts. We need English for various purposes. We make assignments in English, use computers to work in English and use English for communication.

Q.8 Do you find the varieties of English used in Pakistan confusing?

- BSS1:** There are three varieties of English which are spoken in Pakistan. These are American, British and Pakistani English. Different varieties cause confusion in students' minds.
- BSS2:** Most of the students are upset because of British and American pronunciation.
- BSS3:** Yes, varieties of English confuse us.
- BSS4:** We are confused because we read mostly British books but T.V channels are mostly American in Pakistan. The American and British pronunciation of the same word confuses us.
- BSS5:** The varieties create problems in reading, writing, vocabulary and pronunciation. We can't understand which one is the best variety.

BSS6: If we can't understand Pakistani English well, how can we understand the other varieties of English?

Q.8 (a) Do you believe that Pakistani English is an acceptable variety of English for use in instruction and assessment in universities? 8(b) What problems might be encountered if we develop Pakistani English?

BSS1: Pakistani English differs from British and American Englishes in accent and pronunciation. There are many examples of Pakistani English, such as 'policewallah', 'railgari' etc.

BSS2: Pakistani English is acceptable for instruction and assessment purposes and we should make it acceptable at an international level. **Policy makers and politicians should be convinced of developing Pakistani English.**

BSS3: **I think for assessment we need standard English.** Pakistani English is a mixture of Urdu and English words.

BSS4: We are not much aware of Pakistani English.

BSS5: We should use Pakistani English in our courses then it can be introduced to world.

BSS6: The problem is its acceptance at international level.

Appendix G. Plain Language Statement



The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

PROJECT TITLE: Impact of English Language Policies on Postgraduate Students' Attitudes towards the use of English in Pakistani Universities

Investigator: Humaira Irfan Khan

Ph.D Candidate

Supervisors: Prof. Vivienne Baumfield email: v.baumfield@educ.gla.ac.uk

Dr. Beth Dickson email: bd42e @exchange.gla.ac.uk

This study is being undertaken as a requirement for completion of the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) from the Faculty of Education at University of Glasgow, United Kingdom. You are invited to take part in this study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why this research is being done and what it will involve. Please take your time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish so. Ask, if there is anything unclear or if you would like more information. Take your time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Thank you for reading this.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This research will explore the impact of English language policies on postgraduate students' attitudes towards the use of English in Pakistani Universities. The data from the questionnaires and the focus group interviews will be used to interpret and understand the problems of first year M.A Education students concerning English as a medium of instruction.

BENEFITS OF THE STUDY

The outcome of the research will offer advice on improvements in Pakistani universities' English language policy and practice and this will, in the long run benefit students. Further, the participants will benefit from the opportunity to reflect on their attitudes to English as a medium of instruction in higher education.

WHY HAVE YOU BEEN CHOSEN?

You have been chosen because you are university teachers and M.A Education students of University of Punjab and University of Education.

WHAT WOULD BE EXPECTED OF YOU?

You will participate in a questionnaire survey and the focus group interview. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

Questionnaire:

You will be distributed a questionnaire. You should record a response which best represents your opinion as there is no right or wrong answer. You will have 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Focus Group Interview

You will also be invited to participate in the focus group interview. Time for the focus group interview is one hour and it will be recorded. The participants for the focus group interview will be selected randomly.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your participation in both questionnaire and focus group interview will be kept anonymous by the researcher. The data will be kept in a secure location and after the announcement of final dissertation result by the Faculty of Education, the data will be destroyed. Paper files will be shredded and the computer files will be deleted. You will be identified by a pseudonym in any publications arising from the research.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

A summary of the results of the study will be available in the PhD thesis, which will be available from the university library.

Who is organizing and funding the research?

This research project is fully funded under the faculty development program of University of Education sponsored by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan and is being supervised by the Faculty of Education, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom.

Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been reviewed by my supervisors and the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom.

PERSONS TO CONTACT

If there is an emergency or if you have any concerns regarding the conduct of the research project before commencing, during, or after the completion of the project, you are invited to contact the Faculty of Education Ethics Officer Dr Georgina Wardle, via email: g.wardle@educ.gla.ac.uk or my supervisors Professors Vivienne Baumfield, via email: v.baumfield@educ.gla.ac.uk and Dr Beth Dickson, via email: bd42e@exchange.gla.ac.uk

If you decide to participate, please fill in the consent form which is attached with this letter. Irrespective of your decision of being part of this study, thank you for devoting some time to reading the information provided, and considering its contents.

This information sheet is yours to keep.

Appendix H. Consent Form



The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

Title of Project: Impact of English Language Policies on Postgraduate Students' Attitudes towards the use of English in Pakistani Universities.

Name of Researcher: Humaira Irfan Khan

- (1) I confirm that I have read and understood the Plain Language Statement for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask the questions.
- (2) I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
- (3) As a student, I understand that my participation in this study is not related to my university course and will not have any effect on my examination or grades.
- (4) I understand that paper files will be shredded, computer files will be deleted, audiotapes will be destroyed and my real name will be kept anonymous. I will be identified by a pseudonym in any publications arising from the research.
- (5) I agree to take part in the above study.

<i>Name of Participant</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Signature</i>
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<i>Researcher</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Signature</i>
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Appendix I. Ethical approval for piloting the questionnaires



School of Education

Ethics Committee for Non Clinical Research Involving Human Subjects

EAP4 NOTIFICATION OF ETHICS APPLICATION OUTCOME

Application Type: New *(select as appropriate)*

Application Number: EA 1670

Please add R to the end of the application number if this review is for a resubmitted application.

Applicant's Name: Humaira Irfan Khan

Project Title: Impact of English Language Policies on Postgraduate Students' Achievement in Pakistani Universities

Date Application Reviewed: 14th July 2010

APPLICATION OUTCOME

(A) **Fully Approved**

(select as appropriate)

Start Date of Approval: 14/07/10 **End Date of Approval:** 30/12/10

If the applicant has been given approval with amendments required, this means they can proceed with their data collection, with effect from the date of approval. The Faculty Ethics Committee expects the applicant to act responsibly in addressing the recommended amendments. **The amendments should be submitted to the Ethics Office** for completion of the applicant's ethics file. An acknowledgement that all requested amendments have been made will be made within three weeks of receipt.

(B) **Amendments Accepted. Application Complete.**

(select as appropriate)

This section only applies to applicants whose original application was approved but required amendments.

(C) **Application is Not Approved at this time**

Please note the comments below and provide further information where requested.

The full application should then be resubmitted to the Ethics Office via e-mail to

T.Hume@educ.gla.ac.uk.

Major Recommendations

Not applicable.

Minor Recommendations

Not applicable.

Appendix J. Ethical approval for field study



School of Education

Ethics Committee for Non Clinical Research Involving Human Subjects

EAP4 NOTIFICATION OF ETHICS APPLICATION OUTCOME

Application Type: Amendments to check (*select as appropriate*)

Application Number: EA1683 - 2

Please add R to the end of the application number if this review is for a resubmitted application.

Applicant's Name: Humaira Irfan Khan

Project Title: Impact of English Language policies on postgraduate students' attitudes towards the use of English in Pakistani universities

Date Application Reviewed: 1st September 2010

APPLICATION OUTCOME

(A) **Approved**

(select as appropriate)

Start Date of Approval: 11 August 2010 **End Date of Approval: 31 January 2014**

If the applicant has been given approval with amendments required, this means they can proceed with their data collection, with effect from the date of approval. The Faculty Ethics Committee expects the applicant to act responsibly in addressing the recommended amendments. **The amendments should be submitted to the Ethics Office** for completion of the applicant's ethics file. An acknowledgement that all requested amendments have been made will be made within three weeks of receipt.

(B) **Amendments Accepted. Application Complete.**

(select as appropriate)

This section only applies to applicants whose original application was approved but required amendments.

(C) Application is Not Approved at this time

Please note the comments below and provide further information where requested.

The full application should then be resubmitted to the Ethics Office via e-mail to

Terri.Hume@glasgow.ac.uk.

Major Recommendations

Not applicable.

Minor Recommendations

Not applicable.