

PAKISTANI UNIVERSITY ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' COGNITIONS AND PRACTICES

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Declaration

Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic award.

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Abstract:

Due to the highly prestigious role of English language and it being a compulsory subject in education, the language teachers at Higher Education Institutes (HEIs) in Pakistan are likely to be a key contributing factor to development of the professionals graduating from universities in different fields of study. The impact of these teachers' cognitions (both idealized and situated) about the processes of teaching and learning, therefore, could be of high importance to Pakistan's attitude to English language, productivity and quality of graduates. By mainly focusing on these cognitions, this qualitative case study not only aims to provide a detailed analysis of their idealized and situated cognitions but also to seek explanations for any gaps in these cognitions if present.

Data were collected from seven English language teachers of a public sector university through interviews followed by classroom observations and then stimulated recall discussions. With the help of interpretive content analysis techniques, the professional development of language teachers, curriculum materials, and the role of first language (L1) in teaching a target language (TL), emerged as the three major themes of this study. The theoretical frameworks for analyzing these themes were the intellectual, attitudinal and behavioural components of professional development (Evans, 2014, p. 8), the concepts of curriculum transmission, development, and making (Shawer, 2010) and the virtual, the maximal, and the optimal positions of the use of TL in a language classroom (Macaro, 2001).

Results of this study are based not only on detailed and thick description from semi-structured interviews but also classroom observations to identify gaps, if any, between teachers' idealized and situated cognitions. Further, with a view to triangulate the data, stimulated recalls were employed to seek explanations for the gaps identified.

The data suggest that teachers have made significant intellectual and attitudinal development. However, the classroom observations appeared to indicate a lack of substantial behavioural development with regard to different aspects of their teaching. In the stimulated recall sessions the respondents indicated that this may have been caused by lack of resources and institutional support, and excessive workloads. With regard to curriculum materials, the teachers' idealized cognitions appeared to support curriculum 'development' and 'making'

approaches. Their classroom behaviours revealed that they also followed ‘another’ approach i.e. curriculum ‘transmission’. Some of the explanations offered by the teachers for these discrepancies between their idealized and situated cognitions included, students textbook orientations, time shortage, and lack of student English proficiency. Concerning the use of the TL, the teachers’ idealized cognitions appeared to support the exclusive use of the target language i.e. the virtual position, however, there were minor as well as major gaps. Explanations which the teachers offered for these included: the expression of their identity, their lack of self-awareness, and the fact that their idealized cognitions about some aspects of their teaching appeared to dominate others.

The study’s recommendations include a clear need for awareness-raising among the teachers about the significance and effectiveness of informal professional development. Also, the need for providing more training opportunities specifically designed for behavioural development cannot be underestimated. Further, different training sessions could be offered to enhance the teachers’ knowledge and skills regarding the appropriate use of curriculum ‘transmission’, ‘development’, and ‘making’. Moreover, awareness-raising training sessions need to be offered to teachers to enhance their judicious use of the L1 in language classrooms.

Findings from this study will enable stakeholders, including policy makers, curriculum designers, professional development planners, university management, and teachers at large, to understand issues enabling and constraining effective language teaching and learning in order to enhance this. Although one cannot claim general for findings, insights from this study may inform researchers conducting studies focused on teacher cognition in similar contexts.

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Chapter 1. **Introduction**

1.1. **Introduction of the study**

This study aims to investigate Pakistani university English teachers' idealized cognitions and their classroom behaviours. The study also intends to explore whether and to what extent the idealized cognitions of these teachers are reflected in their classroom behaviours. Moreover, the study examines the impact of contextual factors including the socio-cultural and institutional factors on the interplay of these teachers' idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours (Burns et al., 2015; Sanchez, 2010). In recent years, there has been growing interest in teacher cognition, "what teachers think, know and believe" (Borg, 2006, p. 1), and how this shapes teachers' classroom practices and is shaped by their experiences. This interest, as Borg notes, is developed partially by insights offered by the field of psychology as to how action is shaped by cognition and partially by an increasing realization of the centrality of the teachers' role in shaping classroom events. As a result, language learning contexts where educational policy and classroom practices seem to be widely divorced and students' learning outcomes appear disappointing, e.g. Pakistan (Shamim, 2008), it may be of particular significance to focus research on language teacher cognition. Such a research focus might offer benefits for both educational policy and teacher education.

1.2. **Structure of this chapter**

This chapter provides a brief background of the current teaching-learning situation in Pakistan with special focus on higher education and challenges in language teaching (the problem statement). It will also explore the rationale for the study. The research questions and significance of the study are identified, followed by a methodological overview of the current study.

1.3. **Problem statement**

The prevailing English language teaching (ELT) and learning scenario in the Pakistani context is far from satisfactory and offers numerous challenges. These challenges include English teachers' lack of competence which is reflected in, for example, ineffective and lecture-oriented teaching methods and the use of inappropriate materials in the class (Imran and Wyatt, 2015; Islam, 2013; Shamim, 2008). Researchers who have highlighted these

challenges include Hassan (2016) who suggests that teachers working in most of the Pakistani Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) lack pedagogical knowledge and skills required for the teaching of English language (Hassan, 2016). Closely connected with this, is the issue of these teachers' lack of confidence (Coleman, 2010), especially if their English language 'deficiencies' are exposed to the students, which might threaten their self-esteem and sense of identity (Tamim, 2014). This notion of 'deficit' is also highlighted by Nawab's (2012) study, in which teachers, who made an extensive use of the learners' first language (L1), "did not know how English could be taught in any other way" (p. 700).

These factors have led to a general dissatisfaction which is associated with the English language proficiency of students who graduate from the public sector universities (Shamim, 2011; Islam, 2013). With regard to the unsatisfactory condition of English language teaching in Pakistan, Hassan (2016) suggests that the scenario has not changed much since Mansoor's (2003) study, which had identified similar issues (discussed above). While confirming other previous studies (Malik, 1996; Mansoor, 2003; Shamim, 2008), Hassan also reported a lack of skilled language teachers in Pakistan.

Language teacher cognition research in Pakistan, the national context of this study, is still limited. Therefore, research needs to be conducted to throw light on the Pakistani university English teachers' cognitions, as is highlighted by Imran and Wyatt (2015). However, Shamim's (2008) study has attempted to investigate school teachers' classroom practices. This observational study highlighted that lessons were mostly dominated by teacher talk, with the teacher mainly using grammar-translation method, form-driven activities which were based on the coursebook as well as an extensive use of the blackboard. Moreover, in the Pakistani educational context, teacher involvement in the reform process is minimal and they are expected to follow the guidelines from either the Ministry of Education (MoE) or Higher Education Commission (HEC). Research is, therefore, needed to offer insights into the Pakistani English as second language (ESL) teachers' idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours, specifically at a higher education level. Without a proper understanding of these teachers' cognitions, given the cognition to action relationship highlighted above, it is not possible to improve the English teaching-learning situation in the Pakistani context. Insights gained from such teacher cognition research would also inform teacher training and development, as well as policy making. Further, since the notion of *teacher as change agent*

(Evans, 2002, p. 128) has gained widespread recognition in the world in the last few decades, it is imperative to recognize the potential which teachers bring with them to the teaching-learning situation.

1.4. **Rationale**

There are various reasons why I felt I needed to conduct the study. Firstly, any attempts aimed at understanding language teachers' cognitions i.e., the way they understand and interpret their profession, is crucial to an understanding of teaching and teachers as well as improving teacher education (Borg, 2006; Verloop et al., 2001). According to Riehl and Firestone (2005), research on teachers' cognitions, along with other stakeholders (policy makers, learners, management), has offered a wealth of insights when compared to those generated by experimental research. Therefore, it might be important to study teachers' cognitions to understand the effects of these cognitions on their pedagogical practices. It would also provide valuable insights into their beliefs about the kind of skills that teachers may need to become a more effective part of the education system. This study on teachers' cognitions will offer insights into teacher education and will help policy makers recognize the significant role that teachers and their cognitions play in educational innovations (Borg, 2006). It is now generally recognized that teaching is a cognitive activity (Farrell, 2005) and any change in teachers' classroom behaviours is preceded by change/s in their cognitions (Richards et al., 2001).

Secondly, it is important to look at this issue because English language learning (ELL) is enormously valued in Pakistani educational institutions and society in general and therefore it is considered as the language of power and prestige and a passport to success (Rahman, 2001). Since the concept of ELL and ELT cannot be divorced and teaching implies teachers, therefore, any investigations aimed at understanding English language teachers' cognitions will directly inform the field of ELT as well as improve the quality of ELL in Pakistan. Thirdly, in contrast to some of the western societies, in Pakistan the social and family ties are stronger (Hassan, 2016). This means that stakeholders within society, especially parents, are more involved in the educational development of the learners and might influence the decisions taken for such developments. Therefore, this study will focus to serve the interests of all the stakeholders including English language learners, their parents and English language teachers in the Pakistani society.

Furthermore, this study was triggered by the fact that the field of ELT in Pakistan is an under-developed and poorly-researched area, as has been highlighted by many researchers (Coleman, 2010; Hassan, 2016; Islam, 2013; Mansoor, 2003; Shamim & Tribble, 2005). In particular, language teacher cognition is relatively under-researched in Pakistan, as very few studies have been carried out to explore ESL teachers' cognitions in this context. This deficiency of research looking into language teachers' cognitions and classroom behaviours in the Pakistani context is more prevalent at university level. Although a few studies have been conducted which investigated English language teachers' perceptions and attitudes (Hassan, 2016; Shamim, 2008), it is pertinent to note that these studies: a) lacked an explicit focus on teachers' cognitions; and b) did not attempt to capture teachers' cognitions in combination with their classroom behaviours specifically at university level. This latter deficiency, i.e. investigating teachers' cognitions along with their observed practices, is not limited to the Pakistani context, rather this research deficit has been observed even in international contexts (Borg, 2006; Sanchez, 2010).

Lastly, this study was inspired by the understanding which views teachers as the real stakeholders in educational system. As a result, any change in teachers' cognitions and behaviours must impact other areas e.g., learning outcomes. Similarly, any attempts aimed at bringing educational reforms must take into account teachers' cognitions and behaviours, as they are the real agents of change. To investigate Pakistani university ESL teachers' cognitions and their classroom behaviours and to explore the contributions of the contextual factors in the interplay between their cognitions and behaviours (Sanchez, 2010), this study aims to answer the following research questions.

1.5. Research Questions

1. What are the teachers' idealized cognitions about different aspects of their teaching?
2. If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours, what are the characteristics of these?
3. How can any gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours be explained?

1.6. Significance of the study

1. Since there is a lack of teacher cognition research in the Pakistani context, this study could contribute towards improving teachers' pedagogy and students' learning outcomes.
2. The significance of this study should also be seen in the light of some of the pedagogic implications which could be drawn from it. Since there is a general lack of awareness among teachers regarding various aspects of their teaching, this study would help increase their awareness which would improve their own teaching as well as learning outcomes.
3. Moreover, as teacher cognition studies in international contexts have reported a general mismatch between language teachers' idealized cognitions and their classroom practices, this study intends to investigate teachers' idealized cognitions and their classroom behaviours, as well as exploring the reasons for any apparent mismatch between them. This would help teachers in a similar context, and perhaps beyond, to become aware of and identify such mismatches between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours and thus to improve their pedagogy. Since, teaching is a life-long learning process, this study has the potential to help teachers improve their pedagogical practices.
4. Further, the implications of this study would be useful for all the stakeholders including teachers, students, parents as well as policy makers. The research findings would offer insights to language/educational policy makers to plan and design language programmes appropriate and relevant to their own contexts and teachers. Similarly, this study would offer insights to materials designers and curriculum-makers to design materials keeping in view the ground realities of their contexts, as well as the language learning requirements of their learners. Moreover, implications drawn from this study might offer useful suggestions and recommendations for teacher training and education.
5. Lastly, since most language and educational research in Pakistan tends to rely on quantitative research methods (Coleman, 2010; Islam, 2013; Mansoor, 2003; Shamim & Tribble, 2005), this study, following a qualitative case-study approach with interpretive research framework, will encourage future studies in this area. The strength and significance of qualitative research approach for an in-depth

understanding of educational and language-related issues cannot be underestimated. Therefore, this study would contribute significantly towards understanding such issues from a purely qualitative research approach.

1.7. Overview of the thesis

This thesis is structured around 8 chapters. This introductory chapter, chapter 1, introduced this study as well as provided the problem statement, rationale, research questions and significance of the study. In chapter 2, the research context, I offer the context of the study, including the socio-linguistic profile of Pakistan, the status and role of English and local languages in Pakistan and a perspective on English Language Teaching (ELT) and teachers in the Pakistani universities. I conclude this chapter highlighting the policy related issues which affect ELT in Pakistan in general and at university level in particular.

Chapter 3, review of literature, is divided into four sections. Firstly, I offer a brief account for how the field of language teacher cognition (LTC) emerged as a field of study and present concepts such as practical knowledge, personal practical knowledge (PPK), reflective practice and pedagogical content knowledge which have contributed towards a reconceptualization of the teacher as a thinking decision-maker. Secondly, I highlight the need for LTC research to concentrate on specific curricular domains (i.e. research gap) and focus on three specific curricular areas of this study i.e. curriculum materials, TL/L1 use and continuing professional development (CPD). Drawing on Shaver's (2010) curriculum model, I then offer a review of LTC studies related to materials which highlights that language teachers follow three different approaches to curriculum i.e. curriculum-transmission, development and making. Thirdly, I offer a review of LTC studies related to TL/L1 use in the light of Macaro's (2001) model which highlights that language teachers appear to adopt three different positions with regard to their use of the learners' L1, i.e. the virtual position, the maximal position and the optimal position. Lastly, I offer a review of LTC studies in the light of Evans' (2014) professional development model which highlights teachers' professional development in relation to the three components in the model, i.e. behavioural, attitudinal and intellectual.

Chapter 4, research methodology, first offers justification for the research and discusses the key research paradigms in social sciences as well as the significance of qualitative study including a case study approach. This is followed by an account of the sampling procedures undertaken and the data collection tools (i.e. interview, observation, stimulated recall

discussions, field notes) employed to address the research questions of this study. Next, I describe the procedures for data collection including ethical considerations and piloting. Then I describe the procedures for data analysis which include inductive and deductive approaches to research and explain why, compared to other analytic techniques e.g. discourse analysis, an interpretive content analysis and thematic analysis suited this study. I conclude this chapter with a discussion of the data presentation techniques, the triangulation process and how I achieved trustworthiness through my role as a critical and reflective investigator.

Chapter 5, findings and discussions (1), reports the findings and offers discussion of the first theme that emerged from the data in this case study i.e., teachers' cognitions regarding the curriculum materials. Chapter 6, findings and discussions (2), reports the findings and offers discussion of the second theme that emerged from the data in this case study i.e., teachers' cognitions regarding their use of the learners' L1 in the language classroom. Chapter 7, findings and discussions (3), reports the findings and offers discussion of the third theme that emerged from the data in this case study i.e., teachers' cognitions regarding their continuing professional development (CPD). Chapter 8, conclusion, concludes these discussions and draws implications as well as offers recommendations for some of the issues identified through analysis of the data. Lastly, I highlight the strengths of this study and its contributions to knowledge which is followed by limitations of the study.

Chapter 2. The Research Context

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I provide the background of the current study including a brief geographical, demographic and socio-linguistics overview of Pakistan in general and of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province in particular. I then offer a detailed picture of the status of English in Pakistan especially in the higher education context. This also includes a discussion of the institutional constraints and challenges which the field of English language teaching (ELT) and teachers face. I conclude the chapter with an overview of the English language teaching and teachers at Kohat University of Science and Technology (KUST) which is the research site for this study.

2.2. Geographical and Demographic Overview of Pakistan

Pakistan, constitutionally known as the Islamic Republic of Pakistan, came into being on August 14, 1947. With five provinces or federating units i.e., Punjab, Sindh, Baluchistan, Gilgit Baltistan and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan is located in the South Asian region of the world. The Asian context offers an interesting picture for the learning and use of English as many local English varieties have emerged i.e., Pakistani English, Indian English and Sri Lankan English, as documented by Jenkins (2003), Kachru and Nelson (2006) and Mahboob (2009). With a population of over 180 million, Pakistan is the sixth most populated country in the world (Hassan, 2016). While its population can be divided into urban and rural areas, almost eighty percent of the people live in the rural areas, which lack basic facilities such as electricity and Internet access. However, improved infrastructure such as quick sources of communication and educational institutions especially universities on modern lines have been established in the rural areas in the recent past particularly so in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province. As a result, people have easy access to higher education which connects them with the rest of the country and has offered them better future prospects.

Pakistan remained a British colony (1747-1947) during the British Raj. Prior to that, the Muslim rulers in the Indian sub-continent had declared Persian as the official language along with the Arabic language. Resultantly, during the British Raj, the people of the sub-continent were divided into two extreme groups i.e., love and hate with regard to their attitudes towards

the use and learning of English (Shamim, 2011). Although the introduction of English by the British rulers in education and business enabled the Indians to understand the western scientific and educational innovations, this promotion of English at the cost of local languages in the Indian sub-continent has also been widely criticized (Phillipson, 1992; Saraceni, 2015). This spread of English had adverse effects on local languages as they became more restricted. However, the status and role of English as a language has changed since independence, especially with the emergence of local Pakistani English (PE) and the positive attitudes of the learners, as has been reported by many studies in the Pakistani context (Islam et al., 2013; Mansoor, 2005; Shahbaz & Liu, 2012). I provide an overview here and will discuss this point further in section 2.6: *The status and Role of English in Pakistan*.

2.3. Socio-Linguistics Overview of Pakistan

Pakistan is a multi-cultural and multilingual country (Shamim, 2011). Though Islam is the official religion, many sections of this religion such as Brelvi, Sunny and Shia have been the cause of serious conflicts in Pakistan. However, Islam is believed to be the unifying factor among the citizen of Pakistan, as highlighted by Islam (2013).

2.4. The Status and Role of National and Local Languages in Pakistan

There are almost 72 different languages spoken in Pakistan (Coleman, 2010). Urdu is the national language or lingua franca. However, Urdu is the native language of only 7.57 percent of the population of Pakistan. Pathan (2012) reported that Urdu is used by metropolitan based people of Karachi and Hyderabad as a native language. A list of six major languages of Pakistan along with the percentage of their speakers is offered below:

Table 2.1: The Linguistic Profile of Pakistan

| Major Languages | % of Speakers | Regions | Status |
|------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------|
| Punjabi | 44.15% | Punjab | Regional |
| Pashto | 15.42% | Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and FATA | Regional |
| Sindhi | 14.10% | Sindh | Regional |
| Saraiki | 10.53% | Southern parts of Punjab | Regional |
| Baluchi | 3.57% | Baluchistan | Regional |
| Urdu | 7.57% | Urban Sindh and some parts of Punjab | National |
| Minority languages | 4.66% | Different parts of Pakistan | Local |

Census, 2001, p. 107 cited in Islam (2013)

As can be seen from the table above, the most widely used local language is Punjabi. The second most widely used local language in Pakistan is Pashto which is also used extensively in Afghanistan.

Interestingly, the use of national and local languages in the educational institutions including universities has led to code-switching and code-mixing both inside and outside classes even by most of the teachers (Imran & Wyatt, 2015). This is despite the fact that at university level English is considered to be the sole medium of instruction across disciplines (Shamim, 2008).

2.5. Geographical, Demographic and Socio-Linguistics Profile of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

The province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa is located to the North-West border of Pakistan. This is the reason that this province was formerly known as the North West Frontier Province (NWFP). Bordered with Afghanistan, the people of this province share most of their cultural and linguistic characteristics with the people of Afghanistan. The people of this province have

greatly suffered in the last 20 years due to the US war on terror and as a result there are many internally displaced peoples (IDPs).

However, in the last decade and a half, many modern educational institutions especially universities have been established in both the rural and urban-rural areas of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province. As a result, there is a significant increase in the number of both female and male students who have easy access to higher education in this province. Some of the recent studies, such as Ali et al. (2015), have reported learners' high motivation and positive attitudes towards learning and using English as an international language. This can be partly attributed to the fact that English is highly encouraged by the current provincial government and thus it has assumed a dominant role in the education sector in general and the higher education system of this province in particular. There are other reasons too which are discussed below.

Like the rest of the country, the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa is also a multicultural and multilingual province in which Pashtu and Hindku are the dominant languages. The students in this province are highly motivated for getting higher education including the field of education and English language teaching for instrumental reasons such as employment prospects. Many university teachers too are greatly motivated for pursuing their higher studies. These teachers can also avail themselves of the opportunities of attending workshops and seminars both inside and abroad for their professional developments.

2.6. The Status and Role of English in Pakistan

English is the official language of Pakistan. Hence, all official correspondence is carried out in English in all fields including education, law, trade, media, medical, engineering, army, bureaucracy and air traffic. The significant and powerful role of English in Pakistan has been highlighted by many, including Ali (2016) and Imran & Wyatt (2015). All the competitive examinations such as Federal Public Service Commission (FPSC) and Provincial Management Services (PMS) are conducted in English. Further, English is valued a great deal in the job interviews in almost every field. Interestingly, many ideals are associated with the learning of English, as have been highlighted by some recent studies (Ali et al., 2015; Islam et al., 2013). These studies found that Pakistani learners associated English and its learning with power, knowledge, global cultures, national and Islamic interests. This underscores the fact

that, compared to the local and national languages, English enjoys a powerful and prestigious position in Pakistan, as the studies mentioned above highlight.

Another interesting aspect is the rapidly changing role of English in the Pakistani context, as documented by Ali (2016). This study found that English was an important tool of communication in Pakistani society. This means that English has acquired an extended scope i.e. both official and as a communication tool. It seems that this extensive use of English has significantly contributed towards the emergence of what is popularly known as Pakistani English (PE), as has already been documented in the literature (Baumgardner, 1995; Mahboob, 2009; Samad, 2014). Therefore, it is no surprise to find that the use of English is gaining popularity among the learners, teachers and practitioners in Pakistani society. This extensive use of English in both the public and private sectors may also be linked to the fact that English is a compulsory subject throughout all schools, though not the medium of instruction everywhere. As indicated above, at the university level in particular, English is supposed to be the only medium of instruction across all subjects and disciplines (Imran & Wyatt, 2015; Shamim, 2008).

2.7. English Language Teaching (ELT) in Pakistan: The Policy Dilemma

Keeping in view the above scenario, one may assume that English enjoys prominence and is widely spoken well in Pakistan. However, there have been concerns in the past about the quality of English in schools and universities. These concerns, voiced by different scholars and researchers, such as Hassan (2016), Ali (2016), Samad (2014), Islam (2013), Pathan (2012), Shamim (2011), Shamim (2008) and Mansoor (2003), reflect some of the issues the educational policy in Pakistan suffers from. These policy-related issues contribute significantly to institutional constraints and challenges which are discussed below.

2.7.1. Policy deficiency related to English teachers' professional qualifications and training

The minimum requirement for an English teacher to be inducted at college or university level is an MA degree in English literature or language (Mansoor, 2003). However, since an MA degree in English language had not been on offer in many universities of Pakistan until recently, most of the English teachers working in the higher education institutions have their degrees in English literature. Moreover, since the current policy is not prescriptive regarding

pre-service training as a mandatory requirement for a teacher's appointment at university level (Mansoor, 2003), teachers working in most of these institutions have been found to be lacking in pedagogical knowledge and skills required for teaching the English language (Hassan, 2016). Resultantly, such educational policies have also contributed to a serious neglect of in-service professional developmental opportunities for English language teachers in Pakistan till recent times (Hassan, 2016). Therefore, it might be suggested that the policy links such development with teachers' employability and promotions. Also, in order to increase teachers' interest and motivation, fringe benefits and other incentives could be linked with these trainings. This would reduce the chances of teachers taking these trainings for granted. It must be also be highlighted here that the international donor agencies like the British Council and the USAID have been actively contributing towards English teachers' professional development by offering them a limited number of training opportunities such as the award of scholarships to teachers for overseas learning and trainings (Islam, 2013).

However, despite such developmental opportunities being offered to English teachers, the country-wide results are still considered unsatisfactory due to ineffective and lecture-oriented teaching methods and the use of inappropriate materials (Islam, 2013; Shamim, 2008). As a result of these factors, a general discontent prevails with regard to the English proficiency of students who graduates from the public sector universities (Shamim, 2011; Islam, 2013). These policy-related issues and challenges are arguably some of the major causes of declining educational standards Pakistan is faced with (Mansoor, 2003). Hassan (2016) suggests that the scenario has not changed much regarding the unsatisfactory condition of English teaching in Pakistan since Mansoor's (2003) study which had identified similar issues. While confirming other previous studies (Malik, 1996; Mansoor, 2003; Shamim, 2008), Hassan also reported a lack of skilled language teachers in Pakistan. In particular, he highlighted a lack of peer support and a culture of dialogic learning. Drawing on his research, Hassan calls for professional trainings to be offered to teachers in new teaching methods and student-centred approaches as well as teaching techniques like group and pair work. He argues that any efforts which aim to improve the English teaching and learning situation in Pakistan would require qualified and trained teachers (Hassan, 2016). This suggests that the current educational policy should be revised to make pre-service training obligatory for English teachers' appointment at the university level. Such a revised policy should also support institutions to offer to teachers opportunities for their continuing professional development (CPD).

2.7.2. Policy deficiency related to traditional modes of teaching and assessment

In Pakistan, the teacher is still considered to be an authority in the classroom even at higher education level. As discussed above, the traditional teaching methods, such as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), are still in vogue and practiced by teachers in the language education in Pakistan (Islam, 2013). Similarly, the traditional mode of assessment, which involves evaluating and assessing learners predominantly through written examination, seems to have contributed towards learners' passivity in the classroom-based learning process, as Islam suggests. As a result of these factors, as well as unrealistic and inconsistent policies, teachers seem to be helpless as they are supposed to be responding to the official and traditional requirements. Such institutional constraints resulting from deficient policies might also frustrate teachers' efforts to introduce methodological changes or adapt the top-down syllabi keeping in view their teaching style or that of learners, as Hassan (2016) highlights.

As indicated above, language in education policies have been deficient, inconsistent and divorced from contextual realities which has further complicated the issue of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Pakistan (Islam, 2013; Shamim, 2008). These authors also highlight a serious lack of commitment on the part of successive governments to address and eradicate the issues facing ELT in Pakistan. Shamim highlights the issue of, what she calls, "the quantity and quality of resources" (p. 244), which includes a lack of funds, skilled and proficient English language teachers, educational technology and effective teaching materials (Islam, 2013).

2.7.3. Policy deficiency related to curricula

In the Pakistani ESL context, curricula policies are generally perceived as inadequate and present a dismal picture (Islam, 2013). Regarding the deficiencies in English curricula and textbook policies in Pakistan, Aftab (2012) found that usually the teachers and administrators lacked critical, in-depth and practical understanding of language learning objectives, teaching techniques, syllabus design, and materials. Research has also reported that English language textbooks produced in Pakistan contain many pedagogical deficiencies (i.e. deficiencies related to the methods and theories of teaching, curriculum, assessment practices, and cultural sensitivities) which negatively impact students' learning. Some of the pedagogical deficiencies these textbooks suffer from include a lack of appeal to students' intellectual curiosity and promoting an outdated teaching methodology (Nayyar & Salim, n.d.). Other

pedagogical deficiencies for which these textbooks and teaching materials have been criticized are:

- a. challenging the students with innumerable facts without providing enough detail and that there is a lack of emphasis on the application of knowledge which results in encouraging rote learning (Aftab, 2012);
- b. containing printing errors and presenting information in an ambiguous manner (Mahmood, 2011);
- c. being outdated, i.e. their contents are regarded as having no immediate link with real life situations that the learners will come across (Rehman & Khan, 2011);
- d. not catering to the linguistic needs of the learners and hardly addressing the issue of whether or not the learners are at the appropriate level to acquire the target language structures (Warsi, 2004, p. 3);
- e. predominantly using controlled and artificial activities to teach English (Aftab, 2012);
- f. lacking conceptual clarity, logical arguments, and explanation (Nayyar & Salim, n.d., p. 6);
- g. emphasising blind deference to the authority of the teacher, the textbook and the demands of examinations (Nayyar & Salim, n.d., p. 6).

Such dismal portraits of curriculum and textbooks policy in Pakistan have provoked calls for improvements in the curriculum development, provision of training programmes to teachers and textbook writers and the designing of coursebooks which ultimately facilitate English language acquisition in the Pakistani learners (Aftab, 2012).

2.7.4. **The Higher Education Commission (HEC) Reforms Initiatives**

In 2002, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan launched an English Language Teaching Reform (ELTR) project which aimed to “bring qualitative improvement in English Language Teaching and Learning in order to build capacity for effective and sustainable development of English Language Teachers in higher education in Pakistan” (Higher Education Commission, n.d.). This project also aimed to transform universities into research hubs with a focus on bringing improvement and innovation in the area of English language teaching. In response to the dissatisfaction of university teachers and learners with ELT situation, a National Committee on English (NCE) was set up to improve the deteriorating

standards of English language at the higher education level in Pakistan. 'It was suggested that English support programmes should be set up in institutions and universities where they do not exist' (Higher Education Commission, n.d.). Six Subcommittees were constituted under NCE including Faculty Development Programs, Testing and Evaluation, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Research and Publication, Curriculum and Material Development and Reorganization of departments/Centres of English Language. However, recent studies (Islam, 2013; Samad, 2015; Ali, 2016; Hassan, 2016) conducted in the Pakistani higher education sector suggest that the results of such ambitious reforms initiatives taken by the HEC are not very encouraging, particularly with regard to teachers' professional development, as Hassan (2016) highlights. I now present an overview of English language teaching in the university where I conducted this case study.

2.8. An overview of ELT at KUST

KUST has a department of English, which offers 4-year Bachelor of Studies (BS) and 2-year Master of Arts (MA) degrees in English Language and Literature, and also supports students in other departments to develop workplace-related skills through courses such as *Functional English*, *Business Communication* and *Communication Skills*. While classes tend to be large, each containing 40-60 students, these students do generally appear to be well-motivated towards learning and using English (Ali, Wyatt & Van Laar, 2015). Though resources, for example photocopying, tend to be limited, teachers can gain access to the Internet.

As is typical in such universities (discussed in 2.7), teachers have master's level degrees in English Language and/or Literature, and lack pre-service teacher education. In the view of Mansoor (2005), a consequence of such lack of training is the prevalence of flawed, outdated and lecture-oriented teaching methods; she suggests that many teachers appear to teach in the way they were likely taught. As highlighted above, opportunities for peer support and mentoring are lacking, partly because opportunities for immersion in a culture of dialogic learning are limited (Hassan, 2016). Consequently, support for professional development can depend on opportunities to attend short training courses, such as those offered by the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan and by donor agencies such as The British Council and the US Consulate. Such courses cover topics such as teaching methods, classroom management, testing and evaluation, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), curriculum and materials development. While anecdotal evidence suggests that such courses

can be highly beneficial, they tend to be short and scarce, since the availability of places is limited (discussed in 2.7). Furthermore, informal reports provided by past participants suggest these courses are not always tailored to the specific context.

While the HEC provides curricula for courses run by English Language and Literature departments in Pakistan, it also offers a free curriculum policy, allowing the individual universities to design their own. This might be desirable since it has been suggested that there are limitations with the curricula of courses they provide, such as *Functional English* and *Pedagogical Grammar*, both BS level. Indeed, contrary to their titles, these courses appear to present a very traditional treatment of grammar, with limited focus on the functional and pedagogical aspects. Moreover, the suggested readings/resources seem outdated and are mostly unavailable. Another limitation appears to be the imbalance of local and international materials, in favor of the latter, with teachers, anecdotal evidence suggests, then complaining about culturally-inappropriate materials. A further major limitation of the HEC curricula seems to be the absence of a communicative dimension, even in courses which aim to develop students' communicative abilities. The *Communication Skills* course, for example, apparently neither anticipates teachers being able to use different kinds of activities nor offers guidelines on how to exploit the materials for different communicative purposes. Meanwhile, for teaching *Effective Oral Presentations*, the curriculum suggests delivering a lecture on the topic, and there is no advice provided on engaging students in practical activities. Anecdotal evidence further suggests that the HEC curricula are also deficient in other ways. For some courses, too little content seems to be provided for the stipulated hours, while for others there appears to be too much, which can make it very challenging for a teacher to finish the course. This might be a serious issue, particularly for a novice teacher who joins the profession without training.

2.9. Summary of the chapter

In this chapter I have provided background to the current study including the geographical and demographic overview of Pakistan. I have also discussed the status and role of national and local languages as well as of English language in Pakistan. Moreover, I have briefly highlighted some of the deficiencies the current educational policy suffers from which has led to institutional constraints and challenges the field of ELT is faced with. These policy deficiencies are then reflected in the appointment of teachers lacking in professional

knowledge and skills, the prevalence of traditional teaching practices and modes of assessment, lack of qualified and trained teachers, inadequate curricula and the failure to implement the reforms initiated by the HEC. I have concluded the chapter with an overview of the English language teaching and teachers at KUST. The next chapter (chapter 3) presents the literature review of the study.

Chapter 3. Review of Literature

3.1. Introduction

This chapter of the literature review is structured as follows. I first define the term teacher cognition and explain the various concepts which are closely connected with it. I then briefly trace the emergence of teacher cognition research particularly focusing on how it has been conceptualised by researchers in the field. Next, I identify language teacher cognition (LTC) research in different curricular domains and argue for further such research through domain-specific models. Lastly, I offer a critical review of the relevant studies in three areas of LTC, drawing on field-specific models, which I am investigating here as part of my PhD research.

3.1.1. Teacher cognition

Teacher cognition has been defined as “the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think” (Borg, 2003, p. 81). While examining the various concepts used in teacher cognition research, Borg (2006) argues that “teacher cognition refers to the complex, practically-oriented, personalised and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs language teachers draw on in their work” (p. 272). LTC research has drawn on various concepts from general education which, at times, has resulted in a conceptual ambiguity (Borg, 2006). Some of these concepts, particularly ‘knowledge’, ‘beliefs’ and ‘perceptions’, are implicit in the definition of teacher cognition and therefore deserve some explanation. While some researchers have made a distinction between knowledge and belief (e.g. Fenstermacher, 1994; Pajares, 1992), others have often used them interchangeably (e.g. Woods, 1996; Verloop *et al.*, 2001).

Woods & Çakır (2011), for example, noted that knowledge is often used to refer to what is ““objective” (i.e. “true”), universal and impersonal” and beliefs are often used to refer to what is ““subjective” (i.e. colored by personal biases), idiosyncratic and personal” (p. 383). Pajares (1992), too, highlights that *belief* refers to teachers’ subjective interpretation regarding what could be true and *knowledge* applies to more objective fact. Similarly, according to Verloop *et al.* (2001, p. 172), beliefs refer to “personal values, attitudes or ideologies, and knowledge to a teacher’s more factual propositions”. However, Richardson (1996) considers ‘attitudes’, ‘beliefs’, and ‘perceptions’ as a set of mental constructs that “name, define, and describe the structure and content of mental states thought to drive a person’s actions” (p. 102). Drawing

on the disciplines of anthropology, social psychology, and philosophy, she explained that beliefs are “psychologically-held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (p. 103).

However, Fives & Buehl (2012) note that the concepts of knowledge and belief are interconnected, arguing that “empirically these concepts are difficult to disentangle, and distinctions between them become blurred” (p. 476). Meijer *et al.* (2001) hold a similar view, in that “in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, and intuitions are inextricably intertwined” (p. 446). This PhD thesis follows the definition and understanding of ‘knowledge’ and ‘belief’ offered by Fives & Buehl (2012) and Meijer *et al.* (2001). However, with a view to avoid terminological ambiguity, this PhD thesis prefers to follow and use Borg’s (2003 & 2006) definition of language teacher cognition which encompasses the terms ‘knowledge’, ‘belief’ and ‘thinking’. Moreover, this PhD thesis follows and uses Borg’s (2006) distinction between ‘idealized’ and ‘situated’ cognitions. While the former refer to cognitions which are based on theory and related to *ideals*, the latter refer to cognitions which are based on and reflect teachers’ actual classroom behaviours.

3.1.2. **The emergence of teacher cognition research**

The emergence of teacher cognition research was a recognition of the importance of agency in driving human behaviour (Bandura, 1986), and is usually considered as a reaction to the behaviouristic model of teaching in the 1970s (Borg, 2006). This behaviouristic model, while dominating teaching and research, completely disregarded teachers’ mental lives and cognitive aspect of teaching (Burns *et al.*, 2015). Teaching was primarily viewed as what could be observed and externally documented in terms of teachers’ relation to learning outcomes; “what those interactions and behaviours meant to participants was not part of the picture” (p. 586). However, new developments in cognitive psychology effectively challenged the behaviouristic model “by insisting that humans can go beyond automatic habit-formation and learn by conscious study” (Allwright & Hanks, 2009, p. 41)

Drawing on these perspectives, new concepts appeared in teaching and research including *practical knowledge* (Elbaz, 1981), *personal practical knowledge* (PPK) (Clandinin and Connelly, 1987) and *reflective practice* (Schön, 1983). According to Elbaz (1981, p. 5), teachers possess practical knowledge in five significant areas including knowledge of self, milieu, subject matter, curriculum development, and instruction. Clandinin and Connelly

(1987) argued “that a cognitive and affective understanding of the PPK of teachers will help produce more living, viable understandings of what it means to educate and to be educated” (p. 499). Likewise, Schön (1983) argued that teachers engage in a reflective dialogue with the materials of their situations and hence called for a focus on the knowledge teachers create and use ‘in action’.

Despite having similar perspectives, there are subtle differences in these researchers’ viewpoints, as Fenstermacher (1994) notes. While Elbaz and Clandinin & Connelly seem to believe that teacher knowledge can be deduced from narratives and stories, Schön and his followers seem to believe that teacher knowledge can be deduced from action. Likewise, the former group appears to be willing to grant the status of knowledge to teachers’ statements and stories, the second group appears more careful in granting the status of knowledge to teachers’ stories. It is significant to highlight that the notion of PPK values teacher’s prior knowledge and acknowledges the influence of contextual factors (Clandinin and Connelly, 1987). Various researchers (e.g. Borg, 2006; Burns et al., 2015; Fenstermacher, 1994; Golombek, 1998; Woods, 1996; Wyatt, 2008) have drawn on this concept since then and have made useful contributions to the field of teacher cognition.

With regard to the conception of teacher knowledge, Shulman (1987) attempted to explore the nature of knowledge required for teaching profession and argued for “the content, character, and sources for a knowledge base of teaching” (p. 4). His concept of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) i.e. knowledge “[which] goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge *for teaching*” (Shulman, 1986, p. 9), focused on two categories related to content and pedagogical knowledge and argues that, unlike other categories, they have not been well understood (Fenstermacher, 1994). Comparing the work of Shulman with that of Elbaz’s, Fenstermacher observes the former is prescriptive as it requires “what teachers should know and be able to do ... to achieve this state of competence” (p. 14). Elbaz’s conception, on the contrary, is “more descriptive”, as it expects teacher knowledge to become known following his training, experience and reflection (p. 14).

This reconceptualization of teacher capable of thinking and decision-making not only required taking account of wide-ranging contextual information while teaching but also highlighted the significance of *learning to teach* (Calderhead, 1988). With regard to teacher learning,

Calderhead argued for research focusing on complex cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects of teaching to inform policy and practices of teacher educators.

As an established research domain, LTC has been investigated using different methodologies. While some studies (e.g. Aftab, 2012; Hassan, 2016; Huong & Yeo, 2016; Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2012; Watkins & Wyatt, 2015; Wyatt & Ager, 2016), drawing on questionnaire and/or interviews, have tended to elicit language teachers' idealized cognitions i.e. cognitions closely related to *ideals* than actual realities (Borg, 2006). Other studies (e.g. Ashraf & Rarieya, 2008; Banegas, 2011; Hanks, 2015; Kuzborska, 2011), drawing on observations and sometimes followed by stimulated recall interviews, have captured language teachers' situated cognitions i.e. cognitions based on actual classroom practices. A third group of studies have used a combination of the above (of observation and pre and post observation interviews) while investigating teachers' cognitions. These studies (e.g. Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Li & Edwards, 2014; Mohamed, 2006; Sanchez, 2010; Shower, 2010; Walsh & Wyatt, 2014; Wyatt, 2010, 2011) have elicited language teachers' idealized as well as situated cognitions. However, very few studies have explicitly focused on identifying the gaps between language teachers' idealized and situated cognitions. Such a focus is needed to offer us insights into the interplay between teachers' cognitions and practices as well as highlight contextual influences on them (Burns et al., 2015).

Research informs us that language teachers' practices are informed by their cognitions related to the institutional culture, their personal beliefs about language, learners, learning and instructional tasks and materials (Burns, 1996). However, this interrelationship between cognition and practice is not necessarily consistent and convergent as it is not always possible to claim direct relationships (Burns et al., 2015). Such inconsistencies between belief systems and practices are vulnerable to "interconnecting and interacting" classroom and institutional contextual influences, meaning that belief working at one point might converge, interrelate with and dominated by beliefs system working at another point (Burns, 1996, p. 158). Such influences particularly teachers' educational biographies and their PLLEs have significant impact on their initial and subsequent thinking (Sanchez, 2010).

So far, I have highlighted how teacher cognition has emerged as a separate domain of inquiry prioritising the active and crucial role of teachers which determines the nature of classroom-based decision-making and actions. I have also highlighted the different perspectives from

which LTC have been investigated using different research methodologies. However, there still exists a lack of such research in relation to specific curricular domains which I discuss below.

3.1.3. **LTC research in different curricular domains**

Despite a growing interest in LTC research in the last few decades, little of such research endeavours have focused on specific curricular domains. Borg (2006) highlighted emerging trends, e.g. in grammar teacher cognition (Borg, 2005; Farrell & Lim, 2005) and reading comprehension (El-Okda, 2005). In his own work since, he has looked at teacher cognition regarding research (Borg, 2009; Borg & Liu, 2013) and supporting learner autonomy (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012). Other researchers have focused on other areas, such as communicative language teaching (CLT) (Nishino, 2011; Wyatt, 2009), teacher identity (Tsui, 2007; Trent, 2013) and teaching speaking skills (Webster, 2015). However, detailed analysis of research in specific curricular areas, drawing on domain-specific models that help us understand those areas in more depth, is still limited.

With a view to address this gap, I am investigating LTC in relation to three specific curricular domains (i.e. curriculum materials, L1 use and continuing professional development (CPD) in an under-researched Pakistani university context. Underpinned by three models, which include Shaver's (2010) concept of curriculum-transmission, development and making, Macaro's (2001) concept of the virtual, the maximal and the optimal positions regarding TL/L1 use and Evans' (2014) professional development model. The following three sections offer a critical review of the relevant studies in these specific domains. I first discuss curriculum materials below.

3.2. **LTC regarding curriculum materials**

Language teaching materials refer to “anything that can be used to facilitate the learning of a language, including coursebooks, videos, graded readers, flash cards, games, websites and mobile phone interactions” (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 143). They could also be DVDs, emails, YouTube, dictionaries, grammar books, workbooks, photocopied exercises, newspapers, food packages, photographs, live talks by invited native speakers, instructions given by a teacher, tasks written on cards or discussion between learners (Tomlinson, 2011, p. 24).

3.2.1. **Critical perspectives regarding the use of published materials**

Concerning the role of published materials in the classroom, there are two views, as Allwright (1981) explains. While the *deficiency view* argues teaching materials safeguards learners from teachers' deficiencies as materials designers and ensures covering the syllabus well and planning the exercises appropriately, the *difference view* argues the nature of expertise required of materials writers is significantly different from that required of teachers and, therefore, teachers should only focus on utilizing their interpersonal skills to promote learning in the classroom. These critical perspectives were reflected in the arguments presented by Allwright (1981) against the mode in which textbook materials were delivered and in the forceful defence with which O'Neil (1982) responded. Subsequently, many researchers have contributed to this debate, including those who argued against the ways published materials are used (Dangel & Guyton, 2004; Littlejohn, 1992; Tomlinson, 2001, 2010), and those who supported the use of published materials (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Tomlinson, 2012).

Researchers who are against the use of published materials argue they deskill teachers and deprive them of their ability to think creatively and professionally and address their students' needs (Crawford, 2002). Some argue that textbooks are "designed primarily to satisfy administrators and teachers but in doing so often ignore the needs and wants of learners" (Tomlinson, 2010 cited in Tomlinson, 2012, p. 158), while others assert that textbooks 'reduce the teacher's role to one of managing or overseeing preplanned events' (Littlejohn, 1992, p. 84).

However, those who support the use of published materials argue they can be a rich source of professional development for teachers as well as promoting autonomous and independent learning strategies in students (Tomlinson, 2012). Some believe "they support the teacher, complement the teacher and support the learners" (McGrath, 2013, p. x) and consider them a cost-effective means of offering the learners security, system, progress and revision, as well as saving valuable time and providing teachers the required resources to base their lessons on (Tomlinson, 2012). These arguments supporting the use of published materials clearly reflect an enormous attention being given to learners and how to better serve them with appropriate materials.

Over recent decades, this growing interest in learning and learners is reflected in different teaching approaches and the quest for designing better materials (Richards & Rodgers, 2001;

Tomlinson, 2012). This great interest in materials design has perhaps partly contributed to the neglect of teacher cognition in this area and, therefore, it is not surprising to find that most research has focused on learners and materials (and methods), with the assumption that the teacher, as a mechanical implementer simply ‘delivered’ the materials as the textbook authors had planned. This is despite a recent increase in research on teacher cognition which recognizes the significant role of the teachers in determining classroom events (Borg, 2006). Indeed, there is still fairly limited number of studies on teacher cognition in relation to language teaching materials, a research deficiency which is highlighted by others (for example, Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Tomlinson, 2012; Watkins & Wyatt, 2015).

This lack of focus on LTC about materials has led to an unfortunate situation in language learning contexts around the globe where “many teachers are asked to work with books which are inappropriate or inadequate in work environments which mitigate against... critical creative teaching” (McGrath, 2013, p. 188). Likewise, teachers are often not consulted in the evaluation of materials (Al-Senaidi & Wyatt, 2014; Banegas, 2011). This is despite the fact that, compared to materials designers, teachers spend more time observing the language-learning process and hence are more familiar with the contextual profile of their learners (Tomlinson, 2011), this necessitates their involvement in the materials selection and evaluation process. However, the extent to which teachers can get involved in the materials evaluation process depends on the curriculum policies within the context, as I discuss below.

3.2.2. **Curricula development in ESL/EFL contexts**

The top-down nature of curricula development and implementation in many ESL/EFL contexts (Banegas, 2011; El-Okda, 2005) offers teachers little or no freedom to design and select their classroom materials. This might lead to inconsistency between official and observed curricula, which impacts negatively on students’ learning outcomes (Banegas, 2011; Kuzborska, 2011), as well as results in teachers’ sense of alienation and frustration. As a result, such curricula are not fully appreciated and employed in the classroom by teachers (Banegas, 2011). Such curriculum policies do not allow teachers to translate their cognitions into practices (Holliday, 1994), which are determined by forces outside the classroom i.e. curriculum, government education policies and the availability of materials (Zacharias, 2005), with the assumption that teachers are no more than merely implementers of the external curriculum.

Nevertheless, teachers as professionals might shape curricula in significant ways. For example, their understanding of the materials, their beliefs about what is important, and their ideas about students and their own roles, are all suggested as strongly shaping their practice (Ball & Cohen, 1996). Teachers might choose from and adapt materials to suit their own students and learning situation (Torres, 1994). Tomlinson (2012, p. 151), citing Madsen and Bowen (1978), asserts that:

good teachers are always adapting the materials they are using to the context in which they are using them in order to achieve the optimal congruence between materials, methodology, learners, objectives, the target language and the teacher's personality and teaching style

This congruence requires ways of personalising, individualizing, localising and modernising materials (Tomlinson, 2012). Others propose making materials more interactive (Nunan, 1999) and increasing student participation, for example, when using listening materials (White, 1998). Concerning the principles and procedures of materials adaptation, literature suggests on adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying and reordering materials (McDonough & Shaw, 2003).

However, in order to be able to develop and adapt materials, teachers should be trained. Some recent research studies (e.g. Banegas, 2011; Kuzborska, 2011), while drawing attention to the gap between policy and practice, recommend empowering language teachers through professional trainings on how materials might be developed, adapted or exploited, thus creating spaces for their participation in the curriculum development process (Banegas, 2011; Tomlinson, 2012). Research is, therefore, needed to inform us about how the teacher transform written or official curriculum into a more personalized and localized curriculum as they plan and teach (Wette, 2009, p. 340). However, it is imperative to first understand as to how the curriculum might look in an ideal world.

3.2.3. **Curriculum materials in an ideal world**

Effective materials draw the learners' attention to linguistic features of the input, maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement and provide learners opportunities to use the target language for communicative purposes (Tomlinson, 1998, pp. 8-23). They are contextualized, flexible to address individual and contextual differences as well as enable learners to deal with written as well as spoken genres. Further, they engage learner in purposeful language use, both affectively and cognitively, and

include an audio visual component and seek to foster learner autonomy (Crawford, 2002). Crawford argues that materials should be realistic and authentic i.e., “any materials which have not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching” (Nunan, 1989, p. 54). The positive impact of technology-driven authentic materials on learners and their motivation has been well documented (Hargreaves, 1994). Information Technology (IT) can be exploited as a resource “for the freeing of teachers and learners alike from the constraints of the coursebooks” and offer “rapid and flexible access to unlimited information resources” (Maley, 2011, p. 390). However, the focus here is to understand the cognitions of teachers in relation to materials and how they implement the official curriculum in their classes.

3.2.4. **Shawer’s (2010) curriculum framework**

Regarding teachers’ involvement in curriculum, there are three approaches to the curriculum highlighted by Shawer (2010): curriculum-making, curriculum-development and curriculum-transmission. In Shawer’s qualitative case study of ten college EFL teachers in a Western context, employing classroom observations and interviews with the teachers and their students, several teachers’ practices corresponded with each of the three categories. The curriculum-makers avoided textbooks, distinctively generating themes and topics at the start of each semester in consultation with their students, after conducting needs analyses with them. They treated the curriculum as a living, evolving thing, reflecting on what seemed to work with particular groups of students, what seemed worth emphasizing, and designing the curriculum accordingly.

Unlike these curriculum-makers, the curriculum-developers in Shawer’s (2010) study tended to follow a textbook, but they did so critically, being prepared to use it as a skeletal framework but only in so far as they found the material engaging; they were quite prepared to explore other resources if the textbook material did not appeal to them personally or if they felt it would not interest their students. In contrast, the curriculum-transmitters in Shawer’s (2010) study followed the sequencing of their textbooks closely, adhered to the teacher’s guides and enacted their lesson plans, as was evident in numerous observed lessons. The materials these teachers used were exclusively from the textbook, with variation very rare, for example to add a mock exam, and students confirmed that the textbook was the single source of input.

I now present a critique of relevant studies in the light of Shaver's (2010) curriculum approach classification.

3.2.5. **LTC research regarding curriculum materials**

I have identified 22 relevant studies, presented in tabular form below, will consider their significance and relevance and will discuss them closely.

Table 3.1: LTC studies regarding curriculum materials

| Source | Focus / Nationality | Methods | No of teachers / Experience | Subject taught |
|--------------------------------|---|--|-----------------------------|----------------|
| Aftab (2012) | English language textbooks evaluation in Pakistan / Pakistani | Surveys, Interviews, Document analysis | Unstated / Unstated | English |
| Banegas (2011) | Curriculum evaluation and development / Argentinean | Focus group interviews and participants' personal diaries | 30 / Unstated | English |
| Chandran (2003) | Teachers' beliefs and practices about coursebooks / Malaysian | Interviews | 60 / Unstated | English |
| Gray (2000) | Teachers' beliefs about cultural content in ELT coursebooks / Native speakers of English with majority from Britain | Questionnaires | 12 / Unstated | English |
| Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) | The relationship between materials and the totality of classroom experience / Native speaker of English from USA | Semi-structured interviews & Observation, | 1 / Unstated | English |
| Johnson (2003) | How specialists and non-specialists design pedagogic tasks | Interviews & observation | 8 / Over 5 Years | English |
| Katz (1996) | Teaching styles as a way to understand instruction in the classroom / Chinese, Indonesian, Arabic, Spanish and Farsi | Interviews, observations, journal notes | 4 / Unstated | English |
| Kiai (2012) | Biography of an English language textbook in Kenya / Kenyan | Interviews & observations | 16 / Unstated | English |
| Kuzborska (2011) | teachers' decision-making processes when designing EAP reading materials / Lithuanian | Observation, stimulated recall, Document data analysis | 8 / 8-24 Years | English |
| Lee and Bathmaker (2007) | Teachers' beliefs in the use of English textbooks / Singaporean | Semi-structured questionnaire | 23 / Unstated | English |
| Mangubhai et al. (2004) | Teacher's practical theory / German | Semi-structured interviews, Observation & stimulated recall | 1 / Over 30 Years | German |
| Pelly and Allison (2000) | Teachers' views on assessment of English language learning / Singaporean | Questionnaire and semi-structured interviews | 58 / Unstated | English |
| Richards and Mahoney (1996) | Teachers and textbooks / Hong Kong | Questionnaires & Observation | 7 / 4-5 Years | English |
| Sanchez (2010) | The relationship among experience, teacher cognition, context and classroom practice in EFL grammar teaching / Argentina | Semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall, autobiographical accounts | 2 / Over 30 years | English |
| Shawer (2010) | Teachers' curriculum approaches / Mixed nationalities in USA | Interviews & observations | 10 / 3-20 years | English |
| Stillwell et al (2010) | Teachers' and students' reflections on teaching materials / Japanese | Online surveys & interviews | 13 / Unstated | English |
| Tomlinson (2003) | Humanizing the coursebook / Indonesian | Observation | 1 / Unstated | English |
| Tsui (2003) | Knowledge base of teachers / Hong Kong | Interviews, Observations, Field notes | 4 / 2-8 years | English |
| Walsh and Wyatt (2014) | Contextual factors, methodological principles and teacher cognition / English | Interviews, Observations, Stimulated recall interviews | 3 / 2.5 to 30 years | English |
| Watkins and Wyatt (2015) | Evaluating material designed to support trainee English language teachers / England-based CELTA-type trainees with different L1 backgrounds | Interviews, Questionnaires, Reading and reaction protocol, Lesson plan analysis | 22 / None | English |
| Wyatt (2011) | Teacher's growth as a do-it-yourself designer of English language teaching materials / Omani | Interview & observation, Assignment | 1 / 10 Years | English |
| Zacharias (2005) | Teachers' beliefs about internationally-published materials / Indonesian | Questionnaire, Interview, Classroom observation | 100 / Unstated | English |

An analysis of the table above reveals that many of these studies used questionnaire and/or interviews to elicit teachers' idealized cognitions regarding materials which might provide insights into the inner workings of teachers' minds. However, in the absence of an observational element, it is hard to know how far teachers' idealized cognitions are translated into their actual classroom practices. The impact of research methodology is evident in some studies e.g., Walsh & Wyatt (2014) and Richards & Mahoney (1996). Surprisingly, even though a teacher in Walsh and Wyatt's study supported CLT methods as part of her idealized cognitions, her situated cognitions revealed she largely followed non-CLT methodology. Similarly, although the teachers in Richards and Mahoney's study believed in the value of teaching from textbooks, none of the teachers they observed taught entirely from the textbooks. Therefore, as these studies demonstrate, data elicited through and in collaboration with observation might best capture teachers' cognitions alongside their actual classroom practices (Borg, 2006).

Idealized cognitions might also reflect the impact of institutional requirements, matching them out of loyalty perhaps or being seen to be loyal or politically correct, depending on the elicitation method, as Walsh & Wyatt (2014) suggest. It might also be the result of teachers' lack of knowledge and expertise about materials development and implementation and, resultantly, report positive attitudes towards their textbooks (Aftab, 2012).

3.2.6. **There are teachers who follow a curriculum-transmission approach**

Many teachers indicate following a curriculum-transmission approach i.e. using textbooks as scripts rather than as resources in the classroom. Shaver (2010) highlights two curriculum-transmitters, who strictly adhered to the textbook, following it lesson-by-lesson and task-by-task, making their textbook use up to 90% to 92%, as their observation revealed. Interestingly, Shaver offers no explanations as to why these teachers approached curriculum in this particular way. The college curriculum policy seemed to have no bearing on their approach, as it significantly differed in case of both the teachers i.e. restricting policy in one case while free policy in another case. Similarly, good training and experience seemed to have no influence on their curriculum approach, since both of them were trained and experienced, as Shaver reports.

A curriculum-transmission approach is also evident in John's classroom, the teacher in Guerrettaz & Johnston's (2013) study, who referred to materials outside textbook as "extracurricular" and while feeling free to "deviate from ... the so-called party line", he described this as a "pretext". It is significant to note that terms like "extracurricular," "deviate," and "pretext" strongly suggested a sense of semilegitimacy about the supplementary materials, implying the textbook alone constituted the legitimate curriculum of the class, as Guerrettaz and Johnston suggest.

Similarly, the two teachers in Sanchez's (2010) study adhered to their textbook strictly or the teaching of grammar. Since the textbook seemed to exert a significant influence on the selection and organisation of content and tasks as well as the type of input the learners were exposed to, Sanchez (2010) concluded that textbook materials seemed to represent a crucial contextual factor which determined the character of their grammar teaching practices. Such a preference for explicit grammar instruction was also reported by CELTA-type trainees in Watkins & Wyatt's (2015) study, though it might have reduced the participants' anxiety about the knowledge of grammar, they suggested.

A transmission approach followed by two teachers can be found in Kuzborska's (2011) study, who, despite official requirement to create their own materials to support students in their mainstream classes, taught from commercial textbooks. However, this belief was driven by a concern for their students. Contrary to this, teachers following a transmission approach in other contexts were influenced by mode of assessment (Chandran, 2003; Kiai, 2012; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007; Pelly & Allison, 2000), as well as time shortage and constant migration to different faculties (Kuzborska, 2011).

3.2.7. **There are teachers who follow a curriculum-development approach**

Some teachers can be noticed following a curriculum-development approach. Shaver (2010), for example, highlights five curriculum-developers whose approach was characterized by both macro and micro strategies to implement curriculum in their classes. While the former involved following some general steps to adapt curriculum to their contexts, the latter included following specific steps to put macro-strategies into action. Their macro-strategies included curriculum-change, curriculum development, curriculum planning, and curriculum-experimentation.

Surprisingly, Shower provides us no explanations as to why these teachers followed one approach and why not others. More surprising is the fact that only one teacher out of these five enjoyed curriculum freedom in his college. However, the possibility that training and experience might have some bearing on their approach cannot be ruled out as all five of them were trained and experienced as is obvious from their demographics.

A curriculum-development approach followed by teachers can also be noticed in Kuzborska's (2011) study. These teachers simplified and adapted materials to facilitate their students' reading comprehension, which included making longer texts and sentences short, text selection from the internet and changing difficult words. Surprisingly, the only justification these teachers offered was that the shortened text was more appropriate to be included in the textbooks. Teachers adapting materials for cultural reasons has been reported by Gray's (2000) study, in which at least half of the teachers reported to have censored the cultural contents they felt uncomfortable with or deemed inappropriate for their students, although Hyde (1994) argues against censorship and suggests that it deprives students of the ability to protect themselves against the "possibly harmful concepts and pressures" (p.302).

3.2.7.1. Some teachers change approaches over time

Some of the studies, while reporting on teachers' curriculum-development approaches, also provide insights into how teachers' approaches change over time, highlighting that as teachers grow experienced and develop expertise their use of textbooks also changes. Teachers in different contexts have reported initially following the curriculum closely, in line with the curriculum-transmission approach, but then increasingly adapting materials, i.e. as curriculum-developers, for reasons such as becoming disenchanted with the curriculum and developing self-confidence in adapting (Gray, 2000; Wyatt, 2011). While three teachers in Gray's (2000) study initially used the coursebooks closely but gained confidence to drop or adapt materials as they proceeded in their careers, the teacher in Wyatt's (2011) study followed the teachers' book, the procedures and the instructions for two years after which "[he] discovered that there is a problem with these materials" (p.15).

Likewise, in Kenyan context, teachers' use of materials was influenced to some extent by their colleagues with these either more experienced with a particular textbook or with more professional exposure (Kiai, 2012). This relationship between teachers' expertise and the way they approach curriculum is evident in Zacharias's (2005) study. In the sample of teachers

(13) observed, whose selection criteria included experience as one of the components, and who had demonstrated a marked preference for internationally published materials, Zacharias found many cases in which the teachers modified the materials to suit their learners. It is significant to note that for teachers in this particular context adapting for cultural and linguistic reasons was more important than adhering to the provided materials. Research into the knowledge base of teachers suggests that less experienced teachers differ from their more experienced counterparts in that while the former tend to depend a great deal on a core textbook as a curricular guide, the latter make a distinction among materials, the curriculum, and instruction (Tsui, 2003). Curriculum-development requires knowledge, experience and sometimes expertise developing over time, as is evident in Johnson's (2003) study. Teachers with more knowledge and experience tend to be more selective in using published materials including textbooks and called upon a wide range of material resources.

3.2.7.2. There can be conflicts between curriculum policies and practices

Some of the studies offer insights into the presence of a perceived conflict between curriculum policies as they are prescribed in the official documents and the way they are translated by teachers into their classroom practices (see the grid below).

Table 3.2: Educational policies versus teachers' idealized cognitions

| Educational policy/ teachers' idealized cognitions | <i>Curriculum- transmission</i> | <i>Curriculum-development</i> | <i>Curriculum-making</i> |
|---|--|---|-----------------------------|
| Curriculum- transmission | 1 teacher in Shawer (2011) | One teacher (in the eyes of one inspector) in (Wyatt, 2011) and 4 teachers in Shawer (2010) and Katz (1996) each and teachers in Lee & Bathmaker (2007) and Banegas (2011) | |
| Curriculum- development | 1 teacher in Guerrettaz & Johnston (2013) | Waleed (according to official policy) | |
| Curriculum-making | 1 teacher in Shawer (2010) and Two teachers in Kuzborska (2011) | 1 teacher in Shawer (2010) | 3 teachers in Shawer (2010) |

Teachers in Banegas's (2011) study, for example, felt the curriculum had been imposed on them and, therefore, they were not obliged to follow it, this leading to lack of communication between teachers and authorities which resulted in negative evaluation for each action taken by the Ministry. In contrast, two teachers in Kuzborska (2011), despite official requirement to develop their own materials, taught from commercial textbooks. Teachers in Katz's (1996) study, despite having similarities in terms of syllabus, student population, goals and approach, appeared quite different in their classes. However, such mismatches were found because of their different pedagogical needs and goals.

Furthermore, such gaps between policies and practices might lead to a conflict between educational authorities expecting teachers to conform to curriculum fidelity and teacher's actual classroom practice (Wyatt, 2011). The teacher in Wyatt's (2011) study attempted to

teach his self-developed materials to enhance learners' motivation. However, the inspector observer rejected his adaptation and wanted him to follow the teachers' book. Curiously, the official policy allowed teachers to adapt if they attained the curriculum aims. Unlike this, four of the five curriculum-developers in Shaver (2010) served in colleges where curriculum policy was restricting. However, as is clear from their profiles, training and experience seem to have impacted their approach. In contrast, one of the two curriculum-transmitters in the same study served in a college where curriculum policy was free. The possibility that good training and experience had some bearing on their approach seems implausible as both were equally trained and experienced.

Such discrepancies between curriculum policies and the way teachers translate them inside the classroom might result from many factors including lack of teachers' engagement in policies, a mismatch between policies and teachers' idealized cognitions, disconnect between education authorities and teachers and teachers' concern for students' needs, to name only a few.

3.2.7.3. There can be conflicts between teachers' idealized and situated cognitions

Some of the studies provide insights into the presence of a gap between teachers' idealized and situated cognitions. This is particularly the case in studies in which teachers classroom practices have been observed after first eliciting teachers' idealized cognitions (see the grid below).

Table 3.3: Teachers' idealized cognitions and practices

| Teachers' idealized cognitions/ practices | <i>Curriculum-transmission</i> | <i>Curriculum-development</i> | <i>Curriculum-making</i> |
|--|---|--|--------------------------|
| Curriculum-transmission | 2 curriculum-transmitters in Shawer (2010) and 1 teacher in Guerrettaz & Johnston (2013) and two teachers in Kuzborska (2011) | Teachers in Richards & Mahoney (1996) and Zacharias (2005) | |
| Curriculum-development | Emma and Sophia in Sanchez (2010) & 1 teacher in Walsh and Wyatt (2014) | 5 curriculum-developers in Shawer (2010) and One in Wyatt (2011) | |
| Curriculum-making | | | |

There are various reasons for these gaps, for example pleasing the students. A teacher in Walsh & Wyatt's (2014) study supported CLT methods as part of her idealized cognitions. However, her classroom observation revealed she appeared driven by mainly non-CLT methodology. Later on, she explained she wanted to address the needs and wants of her students. Challenged by contextual realities, her "politically correct" support for CLT (Waters, 2013) collapsed and methodological principles relating to pleasing the students, which she might have held back during interview despite her preference for them, came to the surface, Walsh and Wyatt comment.

Similarly, such a gap between teachers' idealized cognitions supporting a transmission approach and their classroom practices seemingly supporting a development approach can also be found in Richards & Mahoney's (1996) study. Reporting the teachers' critical use of textbooks, they claim that teachers' decisions both prior to class and during class involved a high level of cognitive skills. Likewise, teachers also modify materials to suit their learners, even though they might report a clear preference for internationally-published materials. Such a gap between teachers' idealized and situated cognitions has been highlighted by Zacharias' (2005) study.

To summarise, the presence of gaps between teachers' idealized and situated cognitions in these studies highlight: first, the former might surrender to the latter when seriously challenged by contextual realities e.g. a concern for learner needs and wants; second, teacher's practical and cognitive skills might dominate their theoretical beliefs when it comes to actual teaching; third, cultural and linguistic considerations might prioritize teachers' situated cognitions over their idealized cognitions.

3.2.8. **There are teachers who follow a curriculum-making approach**

Some of the teachers can be noticed following a curriculum-making approach (Shawer, 2010). Shawer highlights three curriculum-makers who, unlike the curriculum-transmitters and curriculum-developers, conducted a needs analysis at the start of each semester to generate themes and topics to be taught. They used content-sequencing and material-evaluation strategies to organize the developed themes and selected topics in consultation with their students and arranged them in line with their previous knowledge. They also used curriculum-design, curriculum-change, curriculum-development and material-writing strategies. These teachers used skipping, adaptation and supplementing strategies in relation to curriculum rather than curriculum materials. Their classroom observations revealed they adopted a non-use of textbook strategy and provided all the topics, lessons and materials.

A noteworthy point is that the colleges where these curriculum-makers taught had a free curriculum policy which might have contributed towards their curriculum approach. Similarly, training and experience might have made significant contributions in shaping their approach as all three of them had good training and experience, as their demographic profiles revealed.

To summarise, this sub-section highlighted that there are teachers who follow a curriculum-making approach. Unlike curriculum-developers or transmitters, these teachers made no use of the textbook. They conducted needs analysis at the start of each semester start and developed materials in consultation with their students. However, a free curriculum policy in their colleges, their trainings and experience seem to have contributed towards their curriculum approach.

3.2.9. **Key points**

Some of the key points in section 3.2 (LTC regarding curriculum materials) are:

Teachers follow three different approaches to curriculum i.e. curriculum-transmission, development and making. While the transmitters followed the textbooks as scripts rather than as resources (Shawer, 2010; Guerrettaz and Johnston, 2013; Sanchez, 2010; Kuzborska, 2011), the developers used textbooks critically, adopting strategies like curriculum planning, adaptation and experimentation to implement curriculum in the classroom (Shawer, 2010; Wyatt, 2011). In contrast, the curriculum-makers completely relied on designing their own materials, which followed a needs analysis of and consulting their students (Shawer, 2010). Teachers who followed a transmission approach appeared to have been influenced by a top-down curriculum policy (Guerrettaz and Johnston, 2013), their own beliefs (Watkins & Wyatt, 2015), mode of assessment (Chandran, 2003; Kiai, 2012; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007) and learners' needs and wants (Kuzborska, 2011). Unlike the curriculum-transmitters, teachers who followed a development or making approach seemed to have been influenced by a free curriculum policy, their experience, professional trainings and personal interests, as Shawer (2010) and Wyatt (2011) highlight.

Moreover, teachers' approaches to curriculum revealed that curriculum policies could not be reflected in teachers' practices because: teachers were not engaged in policy making which led to their sense of deprivation and alienation; teachers' idealized cognitions appeared to be in conflict with policies/authorities and that their approaches were driven more by a concern for students' needs and wants, as previous studies highlight (Banegas, 2011; Wyatt, 2011; Kuzborska, 2011). Likewise, in some cases teachers' idealized cognitions were not reflected in their situated cognitions. When seriously challenged by contextual realities, teachers' situated cognitions might dominate their idealized cognitions, as the studies of Walsh & Wyatt (2014), Sanchez (2010) and Zacharias (2005) highlight. Similarly, in some cases teachers' practical skills appeared to take over their theoretical beliefs leading to gaps between their idealized and situated cognitions, as the studies of Richards & Mahoney (1996) and Walsh & Wyatt (2014) highlight.

I now discuss below language teacher cognition in relation to their use of the learners' L1.

3.3. LTC regarding their use of the learners' L1

This section focuses on teacher cognition with regard to their use of the learners' L1 as it can be seen as a controversial issue in the Pakistani context, as elsewhere. Indeed, in numerous countries this practice has been viewed by many, including administrators and politicians,

entirely negatively as a “skeleton in the cupboard ... a taboo subject, a source of embarrassment” (Prodromou, 2002, p. 6). This is despite research evidence that suggests using the L1 can help teachers contribute to learning, either directly, e.g. to explain complicated concepts, or indirectly, e.g. to develop positive relationships with students (Littlewood & Yu, 2009). Accordingly, if they are not allowed to use L1 but find it hard to conform to this and worry they are not using the target language (TL) enough, language teachers are likely to feel guilty (Butzkamm, 2003). The pressures are likely to be particularly acute in the field of *English* language teaching, given the hegemonic role of English in a post-colonial world (Phillipson, 1992), and, in contexts politically unfavourable to L1 use such as Pakistan, I suggest tensions between cognitions and practices might be more likely to arise.

3.3.1. LTC research regarding L1 use

There is a relative scarcity of teacher cognition research as far as this relates to L1 use. This is highlighted by Littlewood & Yu (2009), who, given this deficit, conducted their own study that first asked students to recollect the extent of their former teachers’ L1 use in class and secondly (on the basis of their recollections) to identify what these teachers’ purposes were in using L1 (in as far as they could interpret them from memory). Obviously, this is asking a lot of students!

Other studies have sought to access teachers’ cognitions more directly, e.g. through eliciting their cognitions through questionnaires or interviews, sometimes in conjunction with classroom observations, a combination that allows teachers’ actual classroom practices to be compared with their reported beliefs and behaviour. This can provide insights, e.g. into whether there is a gap or fit. A number of studies have been conducted since Macaro’s (2001) influential work that identified three broad theoretical positions adopted by teachers: the virtual (using the TL exclusively), the maximal (using the TL as much as possible, with L1 use viewed prejudicially) and the optimal (using the L1 purposefully and ‘judiciously’ for benefit).

Following Macaro’s (2001) distinction, the virtual position argues there is no pedagogical value in L1 use and that we should completely exclude it from the foreign language classroom (p. 535). Like the virtual position, although the maximal position sees no pedagogical value in L1 use, this position holds that perfect teaching and learning conditions do not exist and, therefore, teachers have to resort to L1 use (p. 535). Unlike the virtual and maximal positions,

the optimal position sees some pedagogical value in L1 use and argues that some aspects of learning may be improved by L1 use. Therefore, we should constantly explore pedagogical principles regarding different situations in which L1 use can be justified (p. 535). A selection of studies on TL/L1 use (subsequently discussed) is presented in tabular form below.

Table 3.4: LTC studies regarding L1 use

| <i>Source</i> | <i>Focus</i> | <i>Context</i> |
|------------------------------|--|--|
| Al-Alawi (2008) | Teachers' <i>observed</i> classroom uses of L1, beliefs about this use and ascribed influences (elicited through <i>interview</i>) | 5 English teachers of varying experience (1-13 years) and nationalities (Omani and Indian) at a lower secondary school in Oman (learners' L1 = Arabic) |
| Al-Buraiki (2008) | Teachers' <i>observed</i> classroom uses of L1 for different purposes and their rationale for these (elicited through <i>interview</i>); teachers' reported beliefs and practices regarding L1 use (elicited through <i>questionnaire</i>) | 6 in-service English teachers at primary schools in Oman participated in observations/interviews; 40 returned questionnaires (learners' L1 = Arabic) |
| Al-Hadhrani (2008) | The frequency of teachers' <i>observed</i> classroom uses of L1 for different purposes and their beliefs about the value of L1 (elicited through <i>interview</i>) | 4 Omani teachers of English, each with over 10 years' experience, at a lower secondary school in Oman, teaching Grade 5 (learners' L1 = Arabic) |
| Al-Jadidi (2009) | The extent and purposes (<i>observed</i> and elicited in <i>interview</i>) for which L1 was used, and pedagogical differences if L1 was not used | 10 experienced university teachers of English in Oman (5 Arabic-speakers from Arabia and North Africa, and 5 non-Arabic-speakers including 3 native-speakers of English) (learners' L1 = Arabic) |
| Al-Shidhani (2009) | Teachers' self-reported beliefs about using L1, self-reported frequencies of use and self-reported reasons (elicited through <i>questionnaire</i>) | 150 teachers of English (from primary to secondary schools) in one region of the country (teachers' and learners' L1 = Arabic) |
| Barnard et al (2011) | The extent of teachers' code-switching in <i>observed</i> lessons and their attitudes towards this (elicited through <i>interview</i>) | 4 university teachers of English in Timor-Leste (where the learners speak mostly Tetum and Indonesian, with some Portuguese, languages the teachers can also speak) |
| Chimbutane (2013) | Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding code-switching in L1 and L2 classroom contexts (based on <i>observations</i> and <i>interviews</i>) | 3 native-speakers of Changana (an African language and the learners' L1) who taught both this language (as a school subject) and the learners' L2 (Portuguese) to Grade 4/5 learners in Mozambique. In experience, they ranged from novice to 12 years |
| Hobbs et al (2010) | Teachers' <i>observed</i> uses of the TL/L1 and their rationale for code-switching (elicited through <i>interview</i>) | 3 novice (with experience of 1-3 years) teachers (including 2 native-speakers, the other British) of Japanese at secondary schools in the UK |
| Macaro (2001) | The quantity of teachers' <i>observed</i> L1 classroom use, as well as their reflections on and beliefs about code-switching (elicited subsequently through <i>interview</i>) | 2 pre-service teachers of French (learners' L1 = English) at secondary schools in the UK |
| McMillan and Rivers (2011) | Teachers' feelings about their use and their learners' use of the learners' L1 in class, and their knowledge and beliefs regarding the relationship between CLT and use of the TL (elicited through qualitative <i>questionnaire</i>) | 29 native-speaker university teachers of English in Japan, with varying levels of in-country teaching experience (1-15 years) and varying levels of Japanese language proficiency (beginner – advanced) |
| McMillan and Turnbull (2009) | Teachers' beliefs and attitudes regarding TL/L1 use (elicited through <i>interview</i>), their <i>observed</i> code-switching practices, and influences on their beliefs, attitudes and practices | 2 French immersion teachers (each with 10 years' experience) of Grade 7 in Canada (learners' L1 = English) |
| Trent (2013) | Teachers' reported beliefs and practices regarding use of the learners' L1 in relation to school policy; changes noted during the practicum that helped shape their identities (elicited through <i>interview</i>) | 6 Chinese pre-service teachers of English undertaking their 8-week practicum at secondary schools in Hong Kong (learners' L1 = Cantonese) |
| Wang and Kirkpatrick (2012) | Teachers' attitudes towards using English as a lingua franca in Chinese language lessons, their reported purposes for this use and factors they identified as influencing their attitudes (elicited through <i>interview</i>) | 24 native-speaker university teachers of Chinese in China, with varying levels of teaching experience (1 - 20 years) and varying levels of English language proficiency (limited – good) |
| Yavuz (2012) | Teachers' reports (elicited through <i>interview</i>) on the place of L1 in their teaching of English | 12 experienced teachers of English at primary schools in Turkey (teachers' and learners' L1 = Turkish) |

3.3.2. Idealized cognitions in questionnaire/interview studies

Having briefly presented these studies, I now analyse them. My first observation is that the research methodology used is likely to have impacted the results. Five of the studies listed above used questionnaires or interviews but did not include an observational element, and this omission allows for the possibility that some cognitions that related much more closely to *ideals* than actual realities were elicited. Borg (2006, p. 280) reminds us: “data based on and elicited in relation to observed classroom events may better capture teachers’ cognitions in relation to actual practice”.

As to what idealized cognitions with regard to the proportion of TL/L1 used in teaching might look like, one possibility is that they might support the exclusive use of the TL, partly since this is mandated by many educational authorities worldwide. In Hong Kong, for example, Littlewood & Yu (2009, p. 66) report, teachers are directed to create “a language-rich environment [which involves] the use of English in all English lessons and beyond: teachers should teach English through English and encourage learners to interact with one another in English”.

In the purely questionnaire/interview studies listed above, there is significant support for exclusive use of the TL. In Al-Shidhani’s (2009) survey of 150 English teachers in Oman, only 40% agreed with the statement: “The teacher should be allowed to use Arabic” (their own first language and that of their learners) (p. 187). Likewise, a similar proportion (41%) of the 29 native-speaker teachers of English in Japan, surveyed by McMillan & Rivers (2011), felt positively about using their learners’ L1 (Japanese) in class, even though about half this number reported being able to communicate with some effectiveness in the language. An even higher proportion (over 60%) of 24 native-speaker teachers of Chinese, in Wang & Kirkpatrick’s (2012) study, supported a monolingual approach that excluded the use of English as a lingua franca. One of them told the authors:

Our school has a very strict rule prohibiting the use of English. Every teacher knows it. As you can see along the corridors, posters and banners are plentiful on the walls reminding our students about speaking Chinese only. It’s our responsibility to hold to the rule and help students to obey it (Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2012, p. 6).

3.3.3. The monolingual principle reflecting exclusive TL use

The ‘monolingual principle’ (Howatt, 1984) is well-established in language teaching. It originally gained widespread recognition more than a hundred years ago, as language teaching specialists rejected the *grammar-translation* approach and embraced alternatives, such as the *direct method*, which was characterized by the avoidance of translation and exclusive TL use in foreign and second language classrooms. The ‘monolingual principle’ has continued to dominate language teaching approaches since, e.g. through *situational language teaching* and *audiolingualism* that were popular until the 1960s (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

More recently, it was a tenet of Krashen and Terrell’s (1983) *natural approach*, central to which are the *acquisition/learning hypothesis*, which holds that acquisition of a second language parallels first language development, and the *input hypothesis*, which holds that a sufficient quantity of comprehensible input is required for acquisition to take place (Richards & Rodgers, 1986); it has also been argued that the TL can be more motivating to learn if it is required actively for classroom communication (Littlewood & Yu, 2009). Supporters of the ‘monolingual principle’ thus have second language acquisition theory to draw upon, even though Krashen’s views on the *acquisition/learning hypothesis* have subsequently been challenged, e.g. by Butzkamm (2003), who suggests that a more appropriate model than the monolingual baby would be the young developing bilingual, using one language as support while learning the other.

Despite such reservations, the ‘monolingual principle’ has drawn support from western countries furthering the spread of dominant languages in a post-colonial world, as well as educational administrators in different international contexts, particularly those who, as part of the establishment, might possess conservative views about language, dislike code-switching and gravitate towards ‘inner circle’ norms (Phillipson, 1992). Schools, too, often tend to endorse the ‘monolingual principle’. In Hong Kong, Trent (2013) reports, the parents may complain if the TL is not used exclusively.

Accordingly, it might not be surprising if teachers are influenced by arguments supporting the ‘monolingual principle’. Idealized cognitions, elicited through questionnaire/interview studies, might reflect this, with their results determined partly by the research methodology

used as well as the broader context in which the study was conducted. Interestingly, for example, Yavuz's (2012) research in Turkey, drawing on interviews with primary school teachers, reported that only one of 12 claimed not to use the L1 at all. However, Yavuz suggests that Turkish teachers are under less pressure to use the TL exclusively. Furthermore, the research question used: "What is the place of L1 in your teaching?" (p. 4342), which Yavuz describes as 'neutral', actually seems to imply that teachers would have found some place for L1.

The influence of the research methodology used is also evident in Al-Buraiki's (2008) study of primary school teachers in Oman. While a majority of the 40 surveyed agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "English teachers should use English all the time because pupils do not hear English out of class" (p. 15), all 6 of those from a similar population observed did in fact use some L1. This underlines the need, articulated by Borg (2006), that cognitions need to be elicited in relation to observed classroom practices. Accordingly, we now turn to studies that have drawn upon observational data.

3.3.4. **Some teachers follow the virtual position**

Four of the 9 observational studies introduced above (Table 3.5) include examples of teachers who adopted the virtual position, i.e. who made exclusive use of the TL through choice. One of the five Omani English teachers in Al-Alawi's (2008) study, for example, appears to have been convinced about the need to provide plenty of comprehensible input for his lower secondary learners. He "felt that learners should be surrounded with the L2 [second language] in order to develop proficiency in it" and maintained: "Using the L1 might hinder the process of learning the target language" (p. 5). Similarly, one of the four teachers in Barnard et al.'s (2011) study and one of the three in Chimbutane's (2013) study maintained exclusive TL use. In each case, these teachers positioned themselves as a 'model' for their learners. For the teacher in Chimbutane, maintaining the 'purity' of the Changana language (the TL) was also important. For the teacher in Barnard et al.'s (2011) study, an important consideration was that the learners were of a high proficiency and were training to be English teachers, so there was no possible justification for using L1 (in this case, Tetum). Interestingly, a teacher in Al-Jadidi's (2009) study, called 'Jasmine', said almost the same thing about the Omani pre-

service English teachers she was tutoring. Like the teacher in Al-Alawi's study, another bilingual teacher in Al-Jadidi's study, called 'Jihad', was committed to using the TL exclusively to increase the comprehensible input available. In fact, Jihad went so far as to not answer his students' questions in L1 (Arabic) until they were reformulated in English.

In the 9 observational studies, though, the teachers adopting a virtual position were in the minority. In fact, only 5 of the 39 bilingual teachers in these studies used no L1 at all in class, for reasons given above, e.g. to increase exposure to the TL or in line with their identity as 'models' to emulate. However, there were also non-L1 speakers in these studies, who did not simply because they could not, but may have done if they were able to, e.g. an Indian teacher in Al-Alawi's (2008) study who was favourable to the practice but could not speak Arabic.

3.3.5. **Some teachers follow the maximal position**

Besides revealing proponents of the virtual position using no L1 on principle, these 9 observational studies also showcase another 7 teachers who pragmatically took the maximal position. This view holds no pedagogical value lies in L1 use, but recognises that "perfect teaching and learning conditions do not exist" (Macaro, 2001, p. 535), and therefore some L1 might be necessary. An example of these teachers is 'Frank', working on a French immersion programme in Canada with Grade 7 learners, who had been instructed in English in Grades 4-6 (apart from 30 minutes French per day), but were now expected to learn Maths, Science and other subjects in French (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). Frank supported the virtual position, i.e. he aimed for total exclusion of the L1, on the grounds it would lead to interference and confusion and cause learners to ignore TL input. However, given the language level of the learners, he acknowledged a need to use minimal L1, e.g. for administrative issues, in September, at the beginning of the academic year, while trying to use as much French as possible to increase the comprehensible input available. By October, he was using virtually 100% French, as observational evidence confirmed. Only very rarely did he subsequently use English, e.g. a word or two to remind learners of a key concept they had studied in Grade 6. One can assume that had he been teaching a higher grade he would have excluded the limited L1 he used.

Like Frank, a teacher in Chimbutane's (2013) study wanted to keep the TL and L1 separate, allowing code-switching only as a last resort when her instructions were not understood. Similarly motivated was a pre-service secondary school teacher in Macaro's (2001) study, who wanted to teach entirely in the L2 (French), as instructed by the National Curriculum. However, concerned with learners' occasional frustration on being unable to follow her instructions, she felt forced to switch to the L1 (English), experiencing this as a kind of defeat. A teacher in Al-Hadhrami's (2008) study also described using the L1 as a last resort.

Teachers adopting a maximal position may be influenced by the way dominant methodological approaches, e.g. *communicative language teaching (CLT)* and *task-based language teaching (TBLT)*, are presented. According to Vivian Cook (2001, p. 404), while proponents of these approaches might accept some L1 use, these approaches "have no necessary relationship with the L1. . . the only times the L1 is mentioned is when advice is given on how to minimize its use".

3.3.6. **Some teachers follow an optimal position**

A third position is the optimal, which holds that some pedagogical value lies in L1 use, with some aspects of learning consequently enhanced (Macaro, 2001). This should allow teachers to explore how best to use the L1 in a principled way, exploiting it 'judiciously' to support the three key dimensions of pedagogical communication identified by Littlewood & Yu (2009, p. 69): "establishing constructive relationships, ensuring understanding, and maintaining a disciplined environment". Key to this, though, is how the concept 'judicious use' is understood. Al-Hadhrami (2008), for example, was concerned as one of the four teachers in his study had a very relaxed attitude to L1 use, arguing it should constitute approximately 60%. In the observed lesson, "learners had little exposure to English and, mirroring the teacher, they spoke out in Arabic rather than attempting to do so in English" (p. 25). Hobbs et al (2010) noted a similar phenomenon in the observed lessons of two Japanese teachers in the UK. 70-75% of their teacher talk was in the learners' L1 (English), a source of embarrassment to one of these teachers in the subsequent interview, when the focus of the observation was brought to her attention; her learners also used considerable L1. Commentators concerned

about learners gaining sufficient exposure to the TL and encouragement to use it, e.g. Turnbull (2001), tend to regard such high proportions of teacher talk in L1 as excessive.

However, some teachers might have deeply-held convictions they feel justify their use of the L1. A teacher in Barnard et al.'s (2011) study argued against "the monolingual policy of the institution and department", claiming teachers' needed to "avoid linguistic imperialism by promoting and developing Tetum (the learners' L1), which is an index of [the] national identity". In this teacher's observed 80-minute lesson, teacher talk was dominant (91%) and most of this was in Tetum. Only 36% was in the TL (English). In this case, ideology and concerns about national identity may have trumped other considerations in influencing L1 use. Contrast this with an Indian teacher in Al-Alawi's (2008) study, who used the learners' L1 (Arabic) mostly to joke with them!

Issues of identity also concerned 6 pre-service Chinese teachers of English in Hong Kong in Trent's (2013) longitudinal study. Initially, at the start of their practicum, influenced by school principals who insisted on 'English only' policies, these teachers adhered. "That's what I did", one reported, "I was just a follower of the Hong Kong education policy. But it's really difficult, in reality, in the classroom" (p. 228). Gradually, though, contact with experienced teachers helped these novices realize that this exclusive TL policy could be implemented more flexibly, though there was some guilt and secrecy involved in using the L1. Over time, they then developed more confidence in the belief that "Cantonese can function as a valuable tool for both learning and classroom management" (p. 235), their identities gradually shifting as they moved closer to the optimal position.

Evidence of L1 being used effectively to support learning by proponents of the optimal position is provided by the studies of Macaro (2001) and McMillan & Turnbull (2009). In the former, a pre-service teacher of French uses L1 to promote "a deeper understanding of semantic and syntactic equivalents", reduce the danger of confusion and avoid communication breakdowns (Macaro, 2001, p.544). Although there had been some awareness-raising on the teacher education course, her use of the L1 appeared largely intuitive, based on her own language learning experiences and reading of the classroom situation. However, it was also consistent with her understandings of CLT; in Macaro's view,

her judicious use of L1 (it was never very extensive) supported the learners' engagement in authentic, learner-centred tasks. Similarly, 'Pierre', a French immersion teacher in McMillan & Turnbull (2009), used the L1 (English) judiciously to increase comprehension and "scaffold TL production" (p. 24); he was very concerned about the learners getting frustrated and confused, and accordingly used more L1 at the beginning of the year, gradually reducing this. His approach here, developed through extensive teaching experience, was carefully self-monitored. McMillan and Turnbull suggest that in the observed lessons Pierre's use of English led "to further TL exposure, intake and use of French by students" (p. 33), supporting his aim to provide "rich exposure" to the language (p. 24). They suggest his L1 use was not above 15%, beyond which, they cite Macaro (2005) as arguing, it can begin to have a negative effect on learning. Like the code-switching teacher in Macaro (2001) and, regardless of institutional requirements that mandated exclusive TL use, Pierre was comfortable with the way he used L1.

3.3.7. **Key points**

Some of the key points in section 3.3 (LTC regarding L1 use) are:

The review of studies in this section revealed that language teachers appear to follow three different positions with regard to their use of the learners' L1 i.e. the virtual position, the maximal position and the optimal position. Teachers following the virtual position made exclusive TL use for different reasons, for example, to increase exposure to the TL, present themselves as a 'model' for their students, maintain purity of the language and to promote learners' high proficiency, as previous studies highlight (Al-Alawi, 2008; Barnard et al., 2011; Chimbutane, 2013). Some teachers who followed the maximal position tend to believe that L1 has no pedagogical value. However, since an ideal environment for language teaching and learning was not possible, therefore, they believed some L1 use was necessary. Their maximum use of the TL was the result of the way the dominant teaching methodologies, e.g. CLT and TBLT are presented, as the studies of Macaro (2001), McMillan & Turnbull (2009) and Chimbutane (2013) demonstrate. Teachers who followed the optimal position tend to believe that some pedagogical value lies in L1 use, consequently enhancing some aspects of learning (Macaro, 2001). Their use of the L1 might range from using it judiciously to support

the three key pedagogical communications identified by Littlewood & Yu (2009), i.e. building positive relationships, facilitating comprehension and creating a disciplined environment to over-using it carelessly or fearfully leading to compromise their sense of identity as teachers, as the studies of Al-Hadhrami (2008) and Hobbs et al. (2010) highlight.

In the section below, I discuss LTC regarding continuing professional development (CPD).

3.4. LTC regarding CPD

LTC research suggests that cognition is not fixed and could be mediated over time through professional development and learning as well as other educational experiences (Johnson, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Kiss, 2012). Such a process of professional development and learning can be positive in terms of supporting change in teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs as well as informing policy and practices. This can also facilitate teachers in making complex cognitive, affective and behavioural changes (Calderhead, 1988); this interconnectedness of teacher cognition and teacher education is evident in their parallel development since the emergence of LTC as a field.

Since change constitutes a major aspect of teachers' professional lives, both pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes are usually planned around the need to offer opportunities for thoughtful and positive change (Richards et al., 2001). The notion of change, as Freeman (1989, in Richards et al., 2001, p. 5) highlights, implies that: it does not necessarily involve doing something differently, it can be a change in awareness or an affirmation of current practice; it is not necessarily immediate or complete; some changes are directly accessible by a collaborator whereas others are not; and some changes can come to closure while others are open-ended. Moreover, change can refer to many things including knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, understanding, self-awareness, and teaching practices. Several assumptions regarding the nature of teacher change or development that underpin current approaches to teacher professional development are:

- Teachers' beliefs play a central role in the process of teacher development;
- Changes in teachers' practices are the result of changes in teachers' beliefs;

- The notion of teacher change is multidimensional and is triggered both by personal factors as well as by the professional contexts in which teachers work.

(Richards et al., 2001, p. 1)

These assumptions draw on a bottom up view of teacher change as opposed to a top down view which is usually found in traditional models of innovation, which consider change as the transmission of information from educators or policy makers to teachers (Darling-Hammond, 1990). A bottom up view, on the contrary, holds that it is locally-situated with sufficient teachers' involvement in contents and processes (Wyatt & Ager, 2016). It is also regarded as collaborative and relies on mentoring and support from school leadership; a bottom up approach can function effectively when organizational support is provided (Mann, 2005). Bottom up processes are regarded as effective and recommended to replace or at least act in tandem with top down processes in educational programmes (Borg, 2012; Mann, 2005), these entailing various types of supervisors, colleagues, teacher trainers and normally groups of students lead to changes (Richards et al., 2001).

However, the challenge to precisely understand the nature of language teacher learning and development following their formal and informal professional development and how far such developments facilitate their classroom behaviours is far from being over (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Furthermore, moving on into this area (teacher CPD) necessitates interaction with field-specific models. I present below Evans' (2014) professional development model and explain its main and sub-components.

3.4.1. **Evans' (2014) professional developmental model**

Evans (2014) has identified three main constituent components of professional development: behavioural, attitudinal and intellectual (see figure 5.1 below). Each of the three incorporates further elements or dimensions in which she has identified a total of 11 sub-components. The *behavioural* component of professional development refers to what practitioners physically do at the workplace. Evans identifies its four sub-components as the *processual*, *procedural*, *productive* and *competential* dimensions of professional development. They refer respectively to: processes and procedures that people apply to their work; output, productivity and

achievement (how much people ‘do’ and what they achieve); and their skills and competences (Evans, 2014, p. 189).

The *attitudinal* component of professional development refers to attitudes held by practitioners. Evans identifies its three sub-components as the *perceptual*, *evaluative* and *motivational* dimensions of professional development. They refer respectively to: perceptions, beliefs and views held by practitioners (including those relating to oneself, hence, *self*-perception and identity); people’s values; and people’s motivation, job satisfaction and morale (Evans, 2014, p. 189).

The intellectual component of professional development refers to practitioners’ knowledge and understanding and their knowledge structures. Evans identifies its four sub-components as *epistemological*, *rationalistic*, *comprehensive* and *analytical* dimensions of professional development. They refer respectively to: the bases of people’s knowledge; the nature and degree of reasoning that they apply to their practice; what they know and understand; and the nature and degree of their analyticism (Evans, 2014, pp. 189-190).

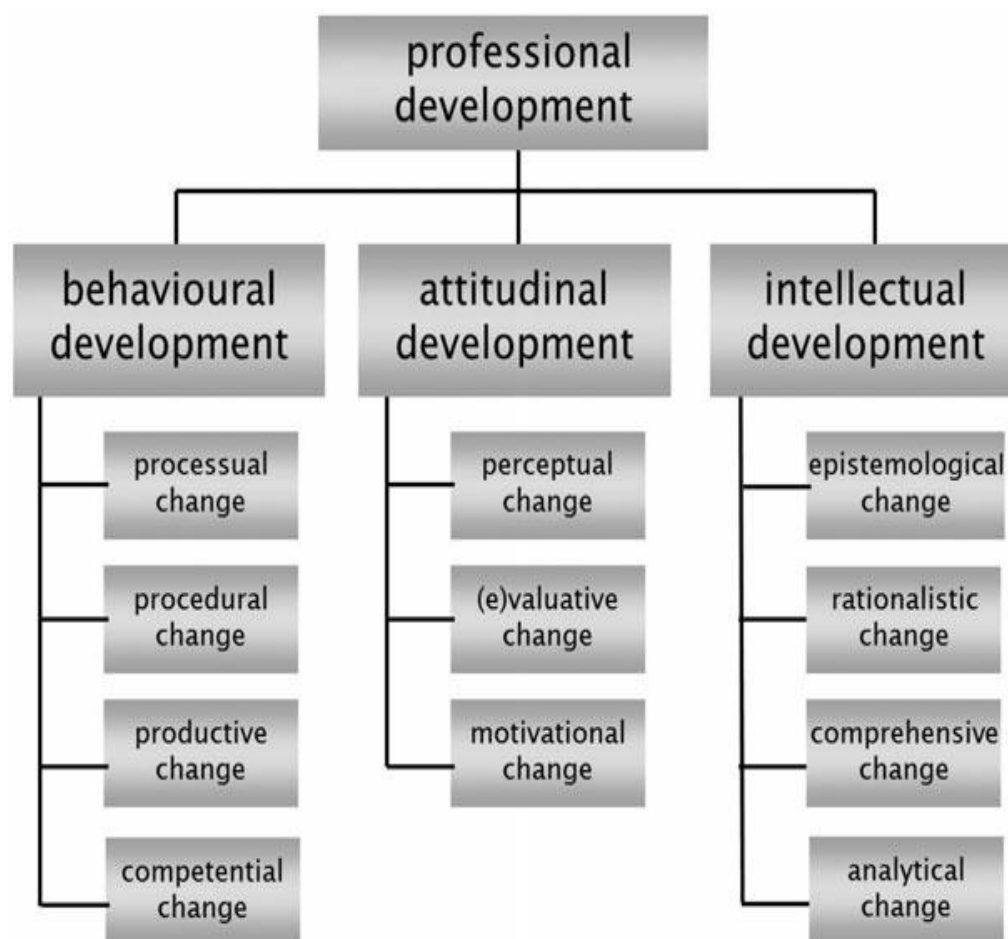


Figure 3.1: The componential structure of professional development (Evans, 2014)

3.4.2. Idealized cognitions in questionnaire/interview studies

As LTC studies focusing specifically on CPD are rare (Wyatt & Ager, 2016), a list of thirteen relevant studies (presented in tabular form below) has been developed with a view to understand LTC in different contexts. Since not all these studies drew on Evans' model, a re-examination of LTC in the light of this model will help us evaluate how comprehensive the model is. It will be useful to look into language teachers' intellectual, attitudinal and behavioural development and how far these three components of the model inform each other.

Table 3.5: LTC studies regarding continuing professional development (CPD)

| Source | Focus | Methods | Number of teachers | Subject taught | Experience | Nationality |
|----------------------------|---|--|--------------------|----------------|--------------------------------|---|
| Ashraf & Rarieya (2008) | Teacher development through reflective conversation | Reflective conversation, classroom observation, reflective memos & field notes | 2 | English | 0-2 years | Pakistani |
| Banegas (2011) | Curriculum evaluation and development | Focus group interviews and participants' personal diaries | 30 | English | Not stated | Argentinean |
| Freeman and Johnson (2005) | Linking teacher knowledge and student learning | Not stated | 1 | French | Not stated | Not stated |
| Hanks (2015) | Language teachers' understanding of exploratory practice | Planning meetings & interviews | 2 | English | Not stated | English |
| Hassan (2016) | Education changes in HEIs: English teachers' perceptions & practices | Questionnaire, Interviews, Document Analysis | 28 | English | Not stated | Pakistani |
| Huong and Yeo (2016) | Evaluating in-servicing training of primary English teachers (PET) | Questionnaire & Interviews | 60 | English | Not stated | Vietnamese |
| Li and Edwards (2014) | English language teaching and educational reform | Questionnaire, Semi-structured interviews, Focus group discussions, Observations | 229 | English | Not stated | Chinese |
| Mohamed (2006) | An exploration of the interplay between teachers' beliefs, instructional practices & professional development | Questionnaires, Interviews, Observations Document analysis | 14 | English | Not stated | Maldivian, Indian, Sri Lankan, French and Pakistani |
| Richards et al. (2001) | Teachers' beliefs and change processes | Survey | 112 | English | 1-39 years | Southeast Asians |
| Wyatt and Ager (2016) | Teachers' continuing professional development | Questionnaires | 30 | English | Majority had at least 10 years | Macedonian |
| Wyatt (2009) | Practical knowledge growth in CLT | Observations, Interviews and Reflective writing | 1 | English | 12 | Omani |
| Wyatt (2010) | An English teacher's developing self-efficacy beliefs in using group work | Observations, Interview and Assignments | 1 | English | 8 | Omani |
| Wyatt (2011) | Teacher's growth as a do-it-yourself designer of English language teaching materials | Interview, Observation and Assignments | 1 | English | 10 | Omani |

An analysis of the table above reveals that majority of the studies report teachers' idealized cognitions i.e. cognitions closely related to their ideals rather than based on their actual classroom behaviours (Borg, 2006). Seven out of thirteen studies drew on questionnaire and/or interview sometimes in combination with document analysis without employing an observational element. Such idealized cognitions, for example, would reflect teachers' intellectual and/or attitudinal development without offering insights into their behavioural development. The remaining six studies which elicited teachers' cognitions through observation along with other methods are likely to offer insights into teachers' behavioural as well as intellectual and attitudinal development. Further, these studies involved in-service teachers with undergoing some training when data were collected from them. This allows for the possibility that teachers might have responded in a way to please the researchers, as Richards et al.'s (2001) study highlight. I now offer a detailed analysis of the studies in relation to the main as well as sub-components in Evans' model.

3.4.3. **There are teachers who highlight their intellectual development**

Many teachers indicate benefiting intellectually from courses that appear top-down in nature (Hassan, 2016; Huong & Yeo, 2016; Richards et al., 2001; Wyatt & Ager, 2016). Teachers in Richards et al.'s (2001) study, for example, indicated that in-services courses, seminars/conferences and student feedback were the top three sources for what can be referred to as their intellectual development (Evans, 2014). As highlighted above, while this response evidence for in-service courses may partially be attributed to the teachers' social desirability response bias to gratify the researchers, the teachers' explanations suggested they had grown intellectually (Evans, 2014) specifically in relation to teaching methods and materials as well as how to adapt them contextually.

If teachers are aware they need CPD, they are aware of needing to support their intellectual growth i.e. to learn and change (Evans, 2014). However, such awareness seems to be driven by a conceptualization of CPD as a top down process, as Hassan's (2016) and Wyatt & Ager's (2016) studies demonstrate. Drawing on data elicited through interview and/or questionnaire, as these studies highlight, such awareness might contribute only to their intellectual development with limited or no effect on their attitudinal and behavioural development.

Teachers in Wyatt & Ager's (2016) study, for example, articulated their wish to be engaged in workshops, short courses, and webinars. Similar to Hassan's (2016) study, a minority appeared to conceptualize CPD as a life-long learning, corresponding to the *journey* and *growth* metaphors, as one of them wished to do collaboration with experienced researchers. This is a clear departure from the narrow conception of CPD, with emphasis only on the intellectual aspect, and reflects their attitudinal as well as behavioural development which might spread over the entire span of their career (Evans, 2014). I now look at specific aspects and processes of teachers' intellectual development including materials, role of teacher/learners, Sharing experiences/discussions/collaboration, learners' feedback and lack of practical orientation.

3.4.3.1. Materials

Many teachers indicate their growing intellectuality related to materials (Ashraf & Rarieya, 2008; Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Wyatt, 2011). There is evidence in Wyatt's (2011) in-depth qualitative case study of a teacher's intellectual development during an in-service course in relation to all the four sub-components i.e. epistemological, rationalistic, comprehensive and analytical. For example, his indication of what he learned from the BA programme shows the base or source of his knowledge (epistemological), his ability to reason and explain the nature of knowledge (rationalistic), his ability to analyse and adapt materials (analytical) and his knowledge and understanding about materials design and use (comprehensive). A similar development of teachers has been reported by Freeman & Johnson (2005) and Ashraf & Rarieya (2008). The teacher in the former study reportedly changed from following a textbook strictly to almost non-use of the textbook.

3.4.3.2. Role of teacher/learners

There are teachers who indicate their growing intellectuality in relation to their own roles and learners, as highlighted by Wyatt's (2010) qualitative case study. There is evidence in this study of one teacher's intellectual growth related to his own role and learners which occurred over time. This led him to have a clearer insight into children's minds which seemed to have empowered him to tackle their psychological issues. There is also evidence of his growing

self-confidence in researching and reflecting on his own practice, particularly focusing on the problems of the pupils and the effects, like participation and motivation.

3.4.3.3. Sharing experiences/discussions/collaboration

Many teachers indicate they have grown intellectually resulting from the processes of sharing experiences, discussions and collaboration (Ashraf & Rarieya, 2008; Banegas, 2011; Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Huong & Yeo, 2016; Li & Edwards, 2014; Richards et al., 2001). The teachers in Richards et al.'s (2001) study, for example, suggested their conversation and sharing with more experienced colleagues sparked off fresh ideas, increased their learning regarding how to handle a task, led them to discover and adopt better teaching methods, offered them opportunities to exchange ideas, methods and teaching materials. A similar experience of interaction with colleagues leading to the epistemological, rationalistic, comprehensive and analytical dimensions of her growth has been reported by a teacher in Freeman & Johnson's (2005) study.

Reflective conversations with colleagues leading teachers to develop a variety of teaching and classroom management strategies has been highlighted by Ashraf & Rarieya's (2008) study. This experience appeared to enable these teachers to find gaps in the three components i.e. intellectual, attitudinal and behavioural of their professionalism (Evans, 2014), which are identified in this study as knowledge, attitudes and skills that hampered improvement of their practices. Ashraf & Rarieya's study, while demonstrating reflective practice as an effective and useful tool of teachers' professional development, underscores the significance of offering awareness to teachers regarding a bottom-up perspective which would help support them to take charge of their own professional development.

3.4.3.4. Learners' feedback

Some teachers indicate they have developed intellectually which resulted from their learners' feedback (Richards et al., 2001; Wyatt & Ager, 2016). A significant number of teachers (41%) in Richards et al.'s (2001) study, for example, reported that learners' feedback contributed to their intellectuality, suggesting that teachers learn and subsequently change in response to their learners' feedback as they spend most of their time with learners and consider them their best sources of feedback. Similarly, a majority

of the teachers in Wyatt & Ager's (2016) study reported to have learnt from their learners' feedback on teaching.

3.4.3.5. Lack of practical orientation

Many teachers indicate their dissatisfaction regarding the theory-driven nature of CPD courses with little or no focus on how they can be implemented in the classroom (Hassan, 2016; Huong & Yeo, 2016). Teachers in Hassan's (2016) study, for example, articulated their discontent with part/s of the trainings, which indicates they seemed to acknowledge their growing intellectuality, however, they pointed towards the need for the HEC-sponsored courses to focus on their behavioural development. This implies that any developmental efforts which fail to address teachers' behavioural component would hardly succeed, as Evans (2014) argues, further suggesting that teachers with significant intellectual and attitudinal input are more concerned about their behavioural development so as to improve their classroom-based practices. Therefore, in-service trainings should include more teaching demonstrations and follow-up activities, such as regular and focused workshops for professional development, observation of teaching, and feedback.

So far, the discussion highlights the significance of teacher intellectual development. However, this may be the starting point of the process of professional development which may or may not lead to their attitudinal and behavioural development. The next section offers an analysis of the relevant features of teachers' attitudinal development.

3.4.4. There are teachers who reflect on their attitudinal development

Many teachers indicate they have developed their attitudes as a result of courses that appear top-down in nature (Hanks, 2015; Huong & Yeo, 2016; Li & Edwards, 2014; Mohamed, 2006; Richards et al., 2001; Wyatt, 2009, 2010). Such an attitudinal growth of teachers, for example, can be identified in Li & Edwards's (2014) study. Teachers in this study found their knowledge of language and learning theories e.g. constructivist learning and language acquisition and the content knowledge very useful, implying that the pedagogical knowledge they had acquired on their course in the UK contributed towards their attitudinal development (Evans, 2014). I now look at some relevant and specific aspects of teachers' attitudinal

development including CLT/group work/teacher role, materials and learners and grammar teaching.

3.4.4.1. CLT /group work/teacher role

Many teachers indicate they have acquired what can be referred to as attitudinal growth (Wyatt, 2009; Richards et al., 2001; Huong and Yeo 2016). There is evidence in Wyatt's (2009) qualitative case study of one teacher's practical knowledge growth in CLT. Her view about her own role as a transmitter of knowledge with a focus on accuracy changed as she got exposure to various modules during an in-service course. Her developing attitudes and intellectuality (Evans, 2014) were reflected in her cognitions regarding the role of teacher, the nature of learning and the importance of CLT methodology.

Such attitudinal growth of teachers related to their teaching philosophy has also been highlighted by Richards et al.'s (2001) study. These teachers suggested using a mix of methods and strategies when teaching and turning from a structural to a communicative approach, while several had adopted a more interactive teaching style. They reportedly used communicative activities, group work and role play as well as introduced cooperative learning, and the role of teacher was as a guide, facilitator, motivator, counselor, resource person and consultant for learning (Richards et al., 2001).

3.4.4.2. Materials and learners

Many teachers indicate their attitudinal development related to materials and learners (Richards et al., 2001; Wyatt, 2011; Hanks, 2015). Teachers in Richards et al.'s (2001) study, for example, reported change and using a variety of materials and resources as against complete reliance on textbooks. This included using authentic texts, teacher created and other creative materials as well as information technology. Wyatt's (2011) study highlighted a similar attitudinal growth of one teacher who was able to evaluate materials (evaluative development) (Evans, 2014). There is also evidence in Hanks's (2015) study of the two teachers' motivational dimension of attitudinal development (Evans, 2014), as they learnt from their students during exploratory practice (EP). Resultantly, one of the teachers changed her position, shifting away from the 'knower' towards 'co-researcher' to make possible working together with her learners to explore their questions on a more equal ground. This

suggests that, as part of her attitudinal development, her identity had also changed (Evans, 2014), as well perception about her students as a result of exploratory practice work; she started viewing them as active and independent individuals who could take responsibility for their own learning.

3.4.4.3. Grammar teaching

Some teachers indicate they have acquired attitudinal growth related to grammar teaching (Mohamed, 2006; Richards et al., 2001). Two teachers in Mohamed's (2006) study, for example, changed their beliefs, i.e. attitudinal development (Evans, 2014), regarding inductive grammar instruction following a CPD programme. Although initially being sceptical regarding the significance of inductive tasks, they found them effective tools for drawing learners' attention to grammar and developing their confidence to explore grammar rules. This seems to be lending credibility to those who argue that change in beliefs can occur after successful change in practice (Richards et al., 2001). Such changes related to grammar instruction were also reported by teachers in Richards et al.'s (2001) study. As opposed to their earlier focus on grammar rules, drilling and accuracy, these teachers shifted their focus to fluency and communication.

To summarize, teachers' attitudinal development seems to result from top-down CPD courses; however, in the absence of observational evidence e.g., as in Huong & Yeo (2016), it is not possible to see how far teachers have translated their new learning to classroom. Teachers' cognitions based on theory and in relation to ideals, Borg (2006) argues, are not used as evidence of the practically-oriented cognitions which inform their actual classroom practices. This aspect of their professionalism, i.e. how far teachers' behavioural growth occurs following their education and development, is discussed below.

3.4.5. There are teachers who highlight their behavioural development

Some of the studies offer insights into what can be referred to as teachers' behavioural growth which seems to result from top-down courses (Li & Edwards, 2014; Mohamed, 2006; Wyatt, 2009, 2010, 2011). Li & Edwards (2014), for example, found substantial evidence that the teacher participants were engaged in knowledge creation in their classrooms, mainly taking the form of experimenting with or integrating pedagogical ideas from their course in the UK.

This indicates, what Evans (2014) refers to as the behavioural component of their professional development. They enhanced the process of students' learning through: developing English language environment; motivating students; encouraging the use of language learning strategies; and promoting learner autonomy, thus putting into practice the newly acquired knowledge as part of their intellectual and/or attitudinal development. I now look at specific aspects of teachers' behavioural development including CLT, group work/learning/learners, materials and grammar teaching.

3.4.5.1. CLT

Teacher behavioural development resulting from professional development course has been reported by Wyatt's (2009) qualitative case study. This study suggests that the teacher's practical knowledge of CLT developed significantly during a BA (TESOL) course. As well as reporting her growing intellectuality (i.e. her cognitive development in planning communicative tasks) and attitudes (i.e. the development of her thoughts, feelings and beliefs), this study offers insights into her behavioural development (Evans, 2014). Compared to her first two observed lessons which were teacher fronted, her third observation revealed her meaningful interaction with students while she remained mainly in a facilitative role. This implies that multiple contextual realities mediate (Sanchez, 2010) when a teacher attempts to translate his/her intellectual and/or attitudinal development into behavioural development which is apparent in the teacher's case, as reported by Wyatt's (2009) study. Her practical knowledge growth in CLT included her exposure to public theory, this prompting her to challenge her long-held beliefs as well as classroom practices, and, resultantly, her beliefs seemed to grow internally consistent.

3.4.5.2. Group work/learning/learners

Some studies highlight teachers' behavioural development related to group work, learning and learners (Mohamed, 2006; Wyatt, 2010). Wyatt's (2010) qualitative case study, for example, highlighted one teacher's developing beliefs in group work, though unevenness was observed in his development across various dimensions of his practical knowledge which seemed to affect his developing self-efficacy in using group work in various ways. However, his practical knowledge related to learners, learning and self seemed to have developed

significantly. There is also evidence in Mohamed's (2006) study of eight teachers' behavioural development (Evans, 2014) specifically in relation to group work. Contrary to their expected behavioural growth related to grammar instruction, which was the focus of their professional development project, their classroom observations revealed their behavioural growth in the use of group work, encouraging learners to self correct their errors and involving students in classroom decision-making.

3.4.5.3. Materials

Some of the studies highlight teachers' behavioural growth related to materials (Li & Edwards, 2014; Wyatt, 2011). The teacher's staging of the materials in Wyatt's (2011) qualitative case study, for example, increasingly incorporated more variety of interaction and offered the learners more practice, a procedural dimension of behavioural development (Evans, 2014). Secondly, significant development of such behaviour was also observed in the teacher's grading and sequencing of materials. Moreover, there is evidence in this study of, what Evans (2014) refers to, productive dimension of behavioural development, as he was able to prepare his students more for English language use outside the classroom. The way this teacher structured his lessons seemed to support his "strong belief" he reported developing through the course. This means his attitudinal development (i.e., his belief in favour of the communicative approach) led to his behavioural development (i.e., his actual use of CLT approach in the class) which had occurred following his trialing and experimenting with a variety of materials (Evans, 2014).

Teachers in Li & Edwards' (2014) study, too, introduced a range of innovative ways of teaching which they had been exposed to during their course in the UK. These included teachers' adapting materials to their own context, despite the widely textbook-oriented approach prevalent in Chinese education and experimenting with a range of ideas e.g. using activities, stories and songs to invite learner involvement and make their classes more learner-centred.

3.4.5.4. Grammar teaching

Insights into teachers' behavioural development related to inductive grammar instruction have been reported by Mohamed's (2006) exploratory study. This study highlights the behavioural

development (Evans, 2014) of only 2 out of 14 teachers, following their in-house professional training which aimed at developing their awareness about inductive grammar teaching. However, it is not clear as to what extent these teachers, who adopted the innovation, continued the process of implementation and integrating it into their regular classes, as the study highlights.

3.4.6. **Key points**

Some of the key points in section 3.4 (LTC regarding CPD) are presented below.

Studies that have identified intellectual development of teachers include Hassan (2016), Huong & Yeo (2016), Richards et al. (2001) and Wyatt & Ager (2016). In these studies, teachers' intellectual growth seems to have resulted mostly from their top-down courses. This intellectual development may be the starting point of their professional development, as teachers still needed to apply this in practice by changing their attitudes and behaviours while teaching in the classrooms. In contrast, studies that have identified attitudinal development of teachers include Hanks (2015), Huong & Yeo (2016), Li & Edwards (2014), Mohamed (2006), Richards et al. (2001) and Wyatt (2009 & 2010). These studies suggest that teachers' attitudinal development resulted mostly from top-down courses and that they found the newly acquired knowledge useful, leading them to change their perceptions and beliefs, and resultantly contributed towards their attitudinal growth. However, in the absence of observational evidence it is difficult to imagine teachers translating and/or adjusting their newly acquired knowledge and beliefs into classroom behaviours, as highlighted by the studies of Hanks (2015) and Richards et al. (2001).

Unlike the studies discussed above, the few studies which identified teachers' behavioural development include Li & Edwards (2014), Mohamed (2006) and Wyatt (2009, 2010 & 2011). These studies offer evidence that teachers can translate their intellectual and/or attitudinal growth into their behavioural development to change their practices. This includes teachers promoting learner autonomy, encouraging learners' engagement with materials and using different teaching strategies, as the studies of Li & Edwards (2014) and Wyatt (2009 & 2011) highlight. However, the number of these studies stands in sharp contrast to those which have identified teachers' intellectual and/or attitudinal development. This suggests that more

research is needed to inform us about how teachers might translate their newly acquired knowledge and beliefs into classroom behaviours i.e. their behavioural development. This also suggests that the prevailing CPD courses, which seem to draw on top-down models, tend to develop only the intellectual and attitudinal dimensions of teachers' professional development, as the studies discussed above suggest. These two dimensions of professional development are significant in themselves, but there is a need for more bottom-up models to support teachers in developing their behavioural dimension.

In the section below, I provide a conclusion for the chapter on literature review.

3.5. Conclusion

This chapter explained the term teacher cognition and briefly accounted for how the field of teacher cognition emerged as a reaction to the behaviouristic model of teaching. The first section presented concepts such as practical knowledge (Elbaz, 1981), personal practical knowledge (PPK) (Clandinin and Connelly, 1987), reflective practice (Schön, 1983) and pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) which have contributed towards a reconceptualization of the teacher as a thinking decision-maker. It concluded with a brief discussion of different methodologies used to investigate LTC, with questionnaire and/or interviews eliciting idealized cognitions and observations situated cognitions.

The section on curriculum materials, after highlighting that LTC research needs to focus on specific curricular domains (i.e. research gap), showing a focus on three specific curricular domains (i.e. curriculum materials, L1 use and CPD), introduced Shawer's (2010) curriculum model and reviewed studies highlighting that teachers follow three different approaches to the curriculum i.e. curriculum-transmission, development and making. While transmitters appeared influenced by curriculum policy, their own beliefs, mode of assessment and learners' needs and wants, developers and makers appeared influenced by a free curriculum policy, their experience, professional trainings and personal interest. It argues that curriculum policies may not be reflected in teachers' practices due to lack of teachers' engagement in policies, a mismatch between policies and teachers' idealized cognitions and teachers' concerns for students' needs. It also highlighted that teachers' idealized cognitions may not be reflected in their situated cognitions as the former appeared to surrender to the latter when

seriously challenged by contextual realities. Moreover, the gaps between idealized and situated cognitions appeared when teachers' practical skills dominated their theoretical beliefs.

The section on teachers' use of TL/L1 demonstrated that language teachers appear to adopt three different positions with regard to their use of the learners' L1, i.e. the virtual position, the maximal position and the optimal position. Teachers following the virtual position used the TL exclusively to offer students more exposure to the TL and present themselves as model for learners. Teachers following the maximal position believed L1 has no pedagogical value. However, being aware that perfect language learning environment does not exist, they thought some L1 use was necessary. Their maximum TL use was the result of the way the dominant methodologies, e.g. CLT and TBLT are promoted. Unlike teachers following the virtual and maximal positions, teachers who followed the optimal position believed in pedagogical value of L1 to enhance some aspects of learning. Their use of the L1 ranged from using it judiciously to address their learners' needs to over-using it carelessly or fearfully leading to compromise their sense of identity as teachers.

The section on CPD introduced Evans' (2014) professional development model which was followed by a review of studies highlighting teachers' professional development in relation to the three components in the model, i.e. behavioural, attitudinal and intellectual. It argues that although intellectual development may initiate the process of professional development, it may not then lead to attitudinal and/or behavioural development. It also argues that attitudinal development is significant but without observational evidence it is unlikely to translate into behavioural development. The conclusion highlighted that since the current CPD courses appear to draw mostly on top-down models which contribute only towards teachers' intellectual and/or attitudinal growth, bottom-up models of CPD are needed to support teachers in their behavioural development.

In the next chapter (chapter 4), I present the research methodology of my case study.

Chapter 4. **Research Methodology**

4.1. **Introduction**

This chapter presents the research methodology of my case study. First, I briefly discuss the nature and significance of qualitative research and a case study approach and their relevance to my study. Second, I explain the context and participants of my case study. Third, I briefly describe the data collection tools (semi-interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recalls and field notes) as well as the data analysis procedures which were used in this case study. Finally, ethics related issues are discussed.

The aim of this case study was to explore the idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours of practicing/in-service ESL teachers at one of the newly-established public sector universities, i.e., Kohat University of Science and Technology (KUST), in Pakistan. This case study also attempted to investigate the extent to which contextual factors (including the socio-cultural and institutional factors) explain the gaps between these university ESL teachers' idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours.

4.2. **Research Questions**

1. What are the teachers' idealized cognitions about different aspects of their teaching?
2. If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours, what are the characteristics of these?
3. How can any gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours be explained?

4.3. **Justification for the Research**

The primary motive of this research endeavor was to investigate Pakistani ESL teachers' idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours at university level as well as to explore the extent to which their behaviours reflected their idealized cognitions. I became deeply interested in this topic when reading (in particular the works of Simon Borg, 2003; 2006), discussing and reflecting on my context. Since teachers reflect the norms, values, expectations

and realities of the particular socio-cultural contexts they are operating in, it is imperative to take into account the potential role of these various contextual factors on their cognitions. Therefore, this study also attempted to explain how far various contextual factors (including socio-cultural and institutional) intervened and mediated between these teachers' cognitions and classroom behaviours. This interrelationship between teachers as *agency* and the various socio-cultural realities shaping their work as *structure* is significant in the sense that it offers insights into how understanding could be developed about these phenomena (Elder-Vass, 2010).

While explaining the concepts of *agency* and *structure*, Elder-Vass (2010) notes that the former refers to the capabilities that enable humans to act according to their own *free will* and the latter refers to the social factors, also known as social *structure*, that shapes our behaviour. The nature of human *agency* and its relationship with *societal structure* has led to a philosophical debate between two different schools of thought i.e., the determinists and the voluntarists. Human *agency*, according to the determinists, is the result of external forces which operate mechanically on action or that human behaviour is conditioned by the societal *structure* (Burrell & Morgan, 1979: 2). As Émile Durkheim argued “the individual is dominated by a moral reality greater than himself: namely, collective reality” (Durkheim, 1952 [1897] cited in Elder-Vass, 2010, p. 1). Karl Marx presented a similar argument in that “it is not the consciousness of men that determines their being, but, on the contrary, their social being that determines their consciousness” (Marx, 1978 [1959] cited in Elder-Vass, 2010, p. 1).

In contrast, the voluntarists hold that human *agency* is autonomous and it is reflected when we are making conscious decision about our own actions or that humans exercise their *free will* and create their own societies (Burrell & Morgan, 1979: 2). However, Bandura (1989) argues that humans are neither autonomous in their actions nor mechanically influenced by the environmental forces. On the contrary, humans contribute to their own motivation and action “within a system of triadic reciprocal causation” which involve their action, cognitive and affective factors, and environmental events functioning together as determinants (p. 1175). In the next section, different research paradigms are discussed to help establish understanding of the socio-cultural structures and how individuals tend to operate within these structures.

4.4. Key Research Paradigms in Social Sciences

In order to carry out a research study, the researcher needs to make decisions regarding the research design which may explicitly or implicitly be informed by philosophical assumptions with regard to how knowledge is created and what could be regarded as objects of knowledge (Kezar & Dee, 2011, p. 275). These philosophical assumptions inform different research paradigms. Burrell & Morgan (1979, p. 1) have identified four sets of assumptions which could guide different philosophical choices while carrying out research. The first set of ontological assumptions, which is concerned with the philosophy of existence of the object of our investigation, focuses on whether the object of our inquiry is internal to the social and cognitive domain of human life i.e. reflected in an anti-positivist approach or is it a phenomenon found outside with no human influence i.e. a positivist approach. The second set of epistemological assumptions, which is concerned with the bases on which knowledge could be acquired and shared with society, usually results from the first set of ontological assumptions (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

The third set of assumptions is concerned with the relationship of human nature with its environment; it focuses on the relationship between individuals and their respective societies. This philosophical argument divides those who believe that every human action is influenced by the environment or the societal structure i.e. determinism, and those who believe that humans are independent in their action and that they create societies out of their free will i.e. voluntarism (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p. 2). The fourth set of assumptions is related to what would be the appropriate methodology for carrying out research. These assumptions are based on the ontological, epistemological, and nature related assumptions discussed above (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

According to positivists, for example, reality is '*out there*' and researchers need to find this reality. Following the positivists' ontological assumption, social constructs are real in ways similar to scientific facts (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 10). Consequently, knowledge about these social constructs could be gained by following empirical processes (an epistemological assumption). A deterministic view of society, following the positivists' stance, argues that all human actions are determined by the society they represent. Drawing on these assumptions,

positivists argue that social knowledge could only be found through experience or a scientific hypothesis testing of a phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 11).

In sharp contrast to the positivists' view, the interpretivists argue that different people have different realities. A person, who believes that there is a mouse under the table, will act as if there is a mouse under the table, as Morrison (2009, p. 170) argues. Whether or not there is a mouse under the table would not change the way he interprets the situation as well as the reality in his mind. Therefore, the interpretivists believe that "reality is socially constructed" which follows that there is not a single reality out there being observable, rather a number of different realities or different interpretations of the same phenomenon are possible (Merriam, 2009, p. 8). Moreover, this line of inquiry "is sensitive to context" (Neuman, 2003, p. 80) which offers an opportunity to the researcher to have comprehension of more than one reality which is subjectively constructed, within a specific social context (Cohen et al., 2007).

Nevertheless, there are some inherent limitations associated with the use of the interpretive paradigm. For example, the researcher's subjectivity, bias and world-view may impact the interpretation of the issue (Holliday, 2007; Robson, 2011). Also, the context-specific nature of this approach makes it hard to generalize the findings (Robson, 2011). Moreover, the reliability of the data may be questioned (Creswell, 2013). However, these issues can be addressed by the use of triangulation and ensuring the reliability and validity of methods (Cohen et al., 2007).

This study aims to explore Pakistani ESL teachers' cognitions which refer to the unobservable cognitive dimensions of their teaching – what they know, believe and think (Borg, 2003, p. 81). Therefore, reality will not be 'out there', rather it will be subjective, multi-faceted and constructed in the teachers' minds. Furthermore, it might significantly be affected by the socio-cultural milieu in which these teachers live and which exert significant influence in shaping their cognitions (Burns et al., 2015). Therefore, an interpretive paradigm is considered suitable for this study because it offers an insider view (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) and an opportunity to understand the participants' own experience and interpretation of their own context. Since many researchers (Cohen et al., 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) recommend using an interpretive approach for exploring participants' individual perceptions with regard to educational issues, it was considered the most appropriate choice for investigating the

reality which the research questions aimed to explore because “at the heart of interpretive inquiry is a passion to understand the meaning that people are constructing in their everyday situated actions” (Walsh et al., 1993, p. 465). This research paradigm helped offer valuable insights into the participants’ world and how they made sense of an array of issues in their own setting. Therefore, I was drawn to it from the outset.

4.5. **Research Design**

This section discusses the research design of this study including the nature of qualitative study and a case study approach.

4.5.1. **Qualitative study**

Qualitative research aims to focus on the meaning of people’s lives in the real world and represents their views and perspectives as well as takes into account the real world contextual conditions (Yin, 2015). It is based on descriptive data which rarely involve statistical procedures (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 63). Mason (2002) points out “qualitative research – whatever it might be – certainly does not represent a unified set of techniques or philosophies, and indeed has grown out of a wide range of intellectual and disciplinary traditions” (p.3). Qualitative research aims at understanding individual perceptions (Stake, 2010) and is “distinguished by its emphasis on holistic treatment of phenomena” (Stake, 1995, p. 43).

Moreover, qualitative research has the following key features:

1. Its underlying assumptions and principles are an evolving design, the presentation of multiple realities, the researcher as an instrument of data collection, and a focus on participants’ views.
2. It begins with a single idea or problem that the researcher tries to comprehend. Relationships or comparisons might emerge later in the study.
3. It shows a rigorous approach to data collection, data analysis and report writing. The researcher is accountable for confirming the accuracy of the account given.
4. Data are analyzed using multiple levels of abstraction. Usually, researchers present their studies in stages (e.g. multiple themes that can be combined into larger themes or perspectives) or layer their analysis from the particular to the general.

5. The writing is lucid, appealing and helps the readers to experience ‘being there’. The story and findings become believable and realistic, accurately reflecting the complexities of real life.

Adapted from Robson (2011, p. 132)

Many researchers in the field of applied linguistics and teacher education have strongly argued in favour of qualitative methods which offer an in-depth understanding of such complex phenomena as teachers’ cognitions (Borg, 2006; Golombek, 1998). Therefore, the research approach which was used in the present study is qualitative in nature. The main motive of this study is to explore, understand and recognize Pakistani university ESL teachers’ idealized cognitions, the gap between their cognitions and classroom behaviours and the influences of contextual factors on both their cognitions and behaviours. The use of qualitative research is, therefore, appropriate and would better serve the purpose of this case study.

4.5.2. Case study approach

Case study has been defined as the examination of a phenomenon in its natural context (Cohen et al., 2007), generally using multiple kinds of data (Robson, 2011). Stake (1995, p. xi) terms it as “the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances”. Stake (1995) differentiates between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* or *instrumental* case study. The former case (a student, a class, a group etc.) is itself of high significance and interest for the researcher and not to represent other cases or explain a particular problem. The latter refers to a case where the researcher wants to offer insight into an issue or verify a generalization. The nature of this case study is intrinsic as I was interested in exploring Pakistani university ESL teachers’ cognitions (both idealized and situated) without any predetermined notions or theories to prove, verify or confirm (see my first and second research questions). Moreover, as contextual factors are of key significance in intrinsic case studies (Stake, 1995), therefore, I also focused on the role of contextual factors on these teachers’ cognitions (see my third research question).

Furthermore, Merriam (2009) believes that the ‘case’ in a case study has to be a “bounded system” (p. 40). One technique to assess the ‘boundedness’ of a case, Merriam explains, is to

see whether there is a limit to the number of people who could be interviewed or a time limit for observation. Without having such limits, a phenomenon cannot qualify to be treated as a case (Merriam, 2009). The case, then, according to Merriam could be “a single person who is a case example of some phenomenon, a program, a group, an institution, a community, or a specific policy” (Merriam, 2009, p. 62). The case under observation was a group of teachers teaching in the department of English, Kohat University of Science and Technology. Therefore, this group is bounded by a place, i.e. the English department. “Typically, case study researchers study current, real-life cases that are in progress so that they can gather accurate information not lost by time” (Creswell, 2013, p. 98). The intention behind designing this current study was in-depth investigation of the cognitions of the teachers of English Department, KUST within a limited period of time. Case study was, therefore, considered a suitable method for conducting this study because the unit of analysis was bounded by place and the target time period for collecting data was less than six months (bounded by time).

Moreover, according to Cohen et al. (2007), one of the potentials of case study is that it acknowledges context as a forceful element of causes and effects and hence leads to the examination of effects in actual contexts. Based on the distinctive and flexible nature of context, Cohen et al. maintain, case studies analyze and present the complicated and uncovering interplay of events, human affairs and other factors in a rare instance. Sturman (1999, p. 103) points out the distinctive characteristic of case studies where an in-depth analysis requires that human systems be treated in their entirety and with honesty. Robson (2011) states that case studies select analytic instead of statistical generalization so as to build a theory which might facilitate researchers in comprehending other relevant cases, phenomena or situations. A qualitative case study design was therefore preferred because this study did not intend to generalize the findings to any other contexts. The reason for selecting the case study approach was based on my interest “in insight, discovery, and interpretation rather than hypothesis testing” (Merriam, 2009, p. 42). However, a detailed description of the data and the context of the research may guide other researchers working in similar contexts.

It might also be worth mentioning that a case study approach could be coupled with other types of research, e.g., narrative, ethnography or phenomenology etc. (Merriam, 2009, p. 42). However, the main focus of the study was not on the cultural and societal variables as is

mostly done in ethnographies (Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 2009). The “intent in ethnography is to determine how the culture works rather than to either develop an in-depth understanding of a single case or explore an issue or problem using the case as a specific illustration” (Creswell, 2013, p. 97). Moreover, since this case study is not bounded by culture, it may not be considered as an ethnographic case study. Although being an insider (see detail in 4.10) and studying the research context in depth over a period of more than five months might bring this study close to being an ethnographic case study, a deliberate effort was made to minimize personal biases and subjectivity and the study was conducted with every possible effort to offer a more critical and objective picture.

4.6. Sampling procedures

Sampling refers to the procedures undertaken for the selection of participants and events which the researcher chooses to collect data from or include as processes for their research purposes (Mason, 2002). Before we select our cases, we need to ask ourselves, as Silverman (2009) points out, do we have justifications other than convenience or accessibility to explain our participants’ selection? Although ‘convenience’ sampling is usually followed in qualitative research (Cohen et al., 2007), some researchers argue it leads to participants’ selection which may not offer rich data in terms of offering insight into a phenomena or an issue (Silverman, 2009). Such a limitation arises from the fact that, since ease of obtaining the sample rather than expert judgement is the selection criteria in convenience sampling, the issue of sample representativeness is usually less accounted for. The sampling criterion which I initially followed can be termed as ‘convenient’ keeping in view the case study design of my research. Initially, all the ten teachers in the department of English, KUST were contacted for the purpose of this study. However, only seven out of ten teachers agreed to participate.

The seven teachers who were the focus of this study (Hasan, Maria, Murad, Raheem, Sana, Waseem, Zarfan, all pseudonyms) participated voluntarily, giving informed consent which guaranteed their anonymity and right to withdraw (Table 4.1, below). Hasan and Murad were in their early-thirties, Maria and Raheem were in their late-thirties, Sana and Waseem were in their mid-twenties while Zarfan was in his early-fifties. Though all the seven teachers had similar qualifications (MAs in English language and literature), their professional experience varied (Table 4.1). Hasan and Murad had 5 and 7 years’ university teaching experience

respectively, Maria and Raheem had 13 and 14 years' experience respectively, Sana and Waseem had 2 years and 6 months respectively while Zarfan had 27 years' teaching experience. All these seven teachers shared with most of their learners a Pashtun ethnic background, i.e. their mother tongue was Pashto.

These teachers taught across different faculties of the university besides the English department, where they taught at undergraduate and postgraduate level. The courses they taught included English literature, communication skills, research methods and ESL. The reason for focusing on the whole range of their work is that English teachers do not teach only dedicated ESL classes in such Pakistani universities, as evidenced also by other studies (e.g. Mansoor, 2003; Shamim, 2008). Moreover, the objective of this case study research i.e. exploring these teachers' cognitions and behaviours demanded that sufficient data related to their profession should be collected which was not possible without taking into account the whole range of their professional work.

Table 4.1: Classification of the teachers according to qualification, age, gender and experience

| No. | Name | Qualification | Age | Gender | Experience |
|-----|--------|---------------|----------------|--------|------------|
| 1 | Hasan | MA | Early-thirties | Male | 05 years |
| 2 | Maria | MA | Late-thirties | Female | 13 years |
| 3 | Murad | MA | Early-thirties | Male | 07 years |
| 4 | Raheem | MA | Late-thirties | Male | 14 years |
| 5 | Sana | MA | Mid-twenties | Female | 03 years |
| 6 | Waseem | MA | Mid-twenties | Male | 06 months |
| 7 | Zarfan | MA | Early-fifties | Male | 27 years |

Given the limitations of convenient sampling (Silverman, 2009), I also followed other sampling procedures, as I explain below. Without any prior assumptions about what to focus on and which themes would emerge (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015), I started the data collection with the interview protocol as a guide (see appendix A) but supplementing this freely to follow-up points of interest (Cohen et al., 2007). Accordingly, the first round of interviews (see for details 4.7.1) helped me develop individual profiles of these seven teachers which included their educational histories and professional experiences as well as their perceptions, attitudes and beliefs about different aspects of English language teaching and learning.

Subsequently, drawing on my theoretical understanding as well as keeping in view my specific research questions, I selected cases or participants for collecting additional data in relation to emerging themes (Mason, 2002). These sampling decisions to select teachers to be interviewed or events to be observed were made for collecting (additional) data to generate conceptual categories. Such a sampling procedure is called ‘theoretical sampling’ in which the participants are selected, either interviewed or studied otherwise, to contribute towards formulating theory (Robson & McCartan, 2016).

Following the theoretical sampling procedures, I reviewed sampling decisions at different points during data collection; these decisions were based on data analysis at successive stages and emerging themes across the participants (Mason, 2017). I was able to do this as the research involved three rounds of data gathering over five months, carried out from December, 2011 to May, 2012, and incorporated 23 interviews (55-60 minutes each), 19 classroom observations (45-60 minutes each) and 18 stimulated recall discussions (35-50 minutes each). For example, the initial data analysis, after the first round of data collection, helped me develop a focus on the theme of L1 use, as I came across rich data in relation to some teachers.

However, prior to exploring this theme (L1 use) in depth, I narrowed down my focus on three teachers (i.e. Hasan, Murad and Waseem) to further understanding about this particular issue. This decision was informed by the fact that these teachers appeared to reflect very different applications of theory related to L1 use (Macaro, 2001). Such a sampling procedure, which involves us to “think critically about the parameters of the population we are interested in and choose our cases carefully on this basis” (Silverman, 2009, p. 141), is called ‘purposive’

sampling. This offered me the opportunity to “seek out groups, settings and individuals where ... the processes being studied are most likely to occur” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 202 cited in Silverman, 2009, p. 141).

I was thus able to choose participants who, according to my judgement, were representatives of some typical features I wanted to explore (Robson & McCartan, 2016). In order to explore the theme of continuing professional development (CPD), for example, I decided to focus on four out of the seven teachers i.e. Hasan, Murad, Raheem, and Zarfan. The rationale or purpose behind this decision was that these four teachers had received exposure to different forms of in-service professional development programmes which had significantly shaped their cognition. In contrast, Sana and Waseem, who were less experienced (Table 4.1), reported to have received no exposure to such professional development trainings. Maria’s case was not considered, as her initial interviews did not offer rich data related to the impact of her in-service professional development on her cognition.

Furthermore, I used ‘purposive’ sampling, with balance, variety and intuitions about what could be learned from the different individuals, important considerations. While focusing on participants in relation to themes, I wanted to achieve balance and variety, both in terms of their contributions to specific themes and other factors which appeared relevant e.g., gender and experience. For example, gender was an important consideration while focusing on Maria and Sana for the theme of curriculum materials because women have been predominant in studies in other contexts (Kuzborska, 2011; Sanchez, 2010; Shower, 2010; Walsh & Wyatt, 2014). Similarly, lack of experience was an important consideration while focusing on Waseem and Sana for the themes of L1 and curriculum materials respectively; the significance of experience has been highlighted in studies in other contexts (Trent, 2013; McMillan & Turnbull (2009); Kiai, 2012; Shower, 2010; Tsui, 2003; Wyatt, 2011; Zacharias, 2005) . These considerations e.g., gender and experience, contributed towards the purposive sampling procedures and enabled me to generate rich data related to specific themes which could be presented as narrative accounts of the participants.

Following theoretical as well as purposive sampling procedures, which often overlapped, I frequently changed my focus across the participants during data collection which led to further data generation as well as analysis. In other words, instead of equally focusing on all

the seven participants, I focused on either three or four out of the seven participants keeping in view their contributions to specific themes as well as other important considerations discussed above. Accordingly, while data related to four teachers (i.e., Hasan, Murad, Raheem, Zarfan) informed the theme on continuing professional development (CPD), data from another four teachers (i.e., Maria, Raheem, Sana and Zarfan) helped in developing the theme on curriculum materials and data belonging to three teachers (i.e., Hasan, Murad and Waseem) helped me develop the theme on L1 use. However, while ensuring that I kept this process of sampling, data collection and analysis dynamic and interactive, I was aware when to stop further sampling (Mason, 2017). This meant when theoretical saturation was reached (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2006) i.e. when fresh data could not contribute to the analysis, I stopped further data collection.

4.7. Data Collection tools

To address my three research questions, I used semi-structured interviews, observations and stimulated recall discussions in the following ways:

4.7.1. Interviews

Interview has been defined as “a flexible tool for data collection, enabling multi-sensory channels to be used: verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 349). Bryman (1988) explains that interview provides an outlet to the participants which can ultimately lead to proper exploration of the issue. Kvale (1996) states that qualitative research interviews attempt to understand the world from the subjects’ points of view, to unfold the meanings of peoples’ experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations. Kvale also terms it as a construction site of knowledge. Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 173) differentiate three types of interview: structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Structured interviews are similar to verbal questionnaire where the researcher can compare and contrast responses from various respondents (p.79). In semi-structured interviews, the researcher while keeping written questions as guide still have the freedom to extract further information from the participants (p.79). Unstructured interviews are quite similar to natural conversation where the researcher generates responses from participants by asking questions (p.79).

The first round of semi-structured interviews (see for detail 4.6), which involved using written questions as a guide (see appendix A) but supplementing these freely to follow-up points of interest (Cohen et al., 2007), helped develop a picture of the teachers' educational background, teaching experiences, and perceptions, attitudes and beliefs about English language teaching and learning in the Pakistani context. The depth of teachers' responses to the questions included in the interview guide as well as to the follow-up questions reflected their varying interest in various aspects of their teaching English language, literature and other courses such communication skills and research methods. The analysis of the first round of interviews was instrumental in establishing a direction for further data collection as I further investigated these teachers.

While eliciting these teachers' cognitions in the subsequent interviews, their contributions to specific subject areas or themes (during the first round of interviews) played a vital role and enabled me to narrow down my focus on individual teachers while collecting further data. Drawing on their individual contributions to specific subject areas, as well as the common threads which I identified in the cognitions of some of these teachers, I was able to group these teachers into sets of three and four as I further elicited their cognitions. Following the purposive as well as theoretical sampling procedures (see for detail 4.6), I had to restructure the subsequent interviews keeping in view the specific themes (see for detail 4.9.3) I wanted to explore. As well as collecting data relevant to the other questions, I was thus eliciting idealized cognitions (Research Question 1), which might, of course, have little semblance to reality (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). These interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed and subsequently checked with the teachers for verification (Stake, 1995). Further, in order to ensure that the participants did not come under any pressure, I provided them a friendly environment e.g., conducted interviews at their preferred places/locations and used non-threatening language and also I worded/phrased my questions carefully.

Moreover, I tried to be reflective on my role as researcher as well as participants' responses during and after the data collection procedure, particularly after interviews. To this end, I maintained a reasonable gap between the first and second round of interviews in order to allow for the adequate reflections on my role as researcher as well as participants' nature of responses. This strategy proved useful as proper reflection helped me in structuring and

restructuring the interview questions especially their wording. During the post-observation interviews I tried to be non-judgemental, neutral and impartial.

4.7.2. Observations

Observations are usually used as qualitative research techniques which aim at observing the participants in their actual, natural and professional context to determine the extent to which the participants' reported behaviours, beliefs and assumptions are in congruence with their actual and naturally occurring actions (Cohen et al., 2007; Robson, 2011). Observations are also the most suitable technique for exploring the *real life* in the real world (Robson, 2011). After each round of interview with participants, I conducted classroom observations as a second data collection technique. Through observation, I sought to identify the possible gaps between these ESL teachers' idealized cognitions and teaching behaviour. The purpose of observation was also to help triangulate the data.

As I was "ultimately . . . interested in understanding teachers' professional actions, not what or how they think in isolation of what they do" (Borg, 2003, p. 105), I used classroom observations in combination with interviews. These observations were unstructured to gain "the advantage of serendipity: significant discoveries that [are] unanticipated" (Whyte, 1984, p. 27). To minimize the 'reactivity' of these observations (Holliday, 2007), I was a 'non-participant' (Robson, 2011), shared only the main aims and objectives of my study with the teachers, as a full disclosure could have encouraged unnatural behaviour (Cowie, 2009) and recorded data unobtrusively, audio- but not video-recording and keeping a narrative record (Cohen et al., 2007). Later on, I developed narrative pictures of the classroom observations with a particular focus on the class occurrences in a sequence so that to report clearly and exactly when and for how long the teacher went to lecture mode and when he or she engaged the students in tasks/activities. I tried to provide adequate rationale/explanation for reporting the teacher's in-class activities. Similarly, I tried to provide sufficient evidence/cause for reporting the responses/reactions of the students to the teacher's various aspects of teaching e.g. *As the lecture seemed organized and even Hasan maintained a great eye-contact with the students, therefore, the students seemed to be attentive and taking interest in the lecture.*

Moreover, following the first observation, I tried to avoid labeling the teacher's method/s in the narrative picture of observation i.e., labeling it either the communicative method or the direct method. To help me maintain a critical distance, each time I observed I requested one of my senior colleagues, from the Institute of Education and Research (IER), to sit in the classroom with me, as Padgett (2008) suggests. This permitted 'investigator triangulation' (Stake, 1995), as I spoke afterwards about the lesson with my fellow observer, before I discussed it subsequently with the teacher. Analyzing observational data in relation to interview data helped me address Research Question 2.

4.7.3. **Stimulated recall discussions**

Along with interviews and classroom observations, in this case study I also employed stimulated recall discussions as a data collection technique "to prompt participants to recall thoughts they had while performing a task or participating in an event" (Gass & Mackey, 2009, p. 13). According to Bloom (1954, p. 25), stimulated recall is used to allow a subject "to relive an original situation with great vividness and accuracy if he is presented with a large number of the cues or stimuli which occurred during the original situation." As stimulated recall sessions are used for cognitively oriented things (Gass & Mackey, 2009), therefore, it helped better serve the purpose of my case study as it deals with teachers' thinking/cognitions. While recognizing the potential of stimulated recall in understanding teachers' cognitions, Calderhead (1981) also warns us about its limitations as it cannot offer a comprehensive description of cognitions and needs to be supported by other research techniques. Therefore, this case study used, apart from stimulated recall discussions, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations to help triangulate data from multiple sources. In order to elicit information from the participants during stimulated recall interviews, I used the detailed notes which I had developed during observation and stimulated their recall on specific events/occurrences during lecture and also I tried to conduct it immediately (not later than two to three hours) after the class was finished. Based on their relevance and significance to the overall aim of the study, I chose certain episodes from the transcription of the observation and highlighted each of them or wrote them on a separate card (Denley & Bishop., 2010). During the stimulated recall interviews I brought in those episodes, one at a time, to ask for participant's explanation. Much depended on having already

established a positive rapport and sense of trust (Holliday, 2007), which was crucial to my research.

As I went on eliciting the teacher's perspective on his/her classroom/observed behaviours and to focus on the issues involved, I also tried to avoid reactivity (Holliday, 2007) while collecting further data (i.e. by ensuring that I was not prompting interviewees to respond in particular ways. Though, I tried to focus on what the interviewees were saying during follow-up questions, I also followed a critical approach (responding to how and why questions) while developing the teacher's case (Holliday, 2007). Insights from the stimulated recall sessions helped me address Research Question 3.

4.8. Procedures for Data Collection

This section discusses the procedures which were carried out for the data collection of this study including ethical issues and a pilot study.

4.8.1. Ethical issues

Although I did not anticipate any serious ethical issues related to the conduct of this study, the fact of getting human subjects engaged in this study required me to take into account certain ethical considerations. This included protecting the research subjects from any detrimental and unwanted consequences which might emanate from their participation in this study. To serve this purpose, the following ethics-related steps were taken in line with the requirements of the University of Portsmouth:

- a. All the research participants informed explicitly that their engagement in this study was completely voluntary and that they could withdraw from this study at any stage and time. For this purpose, oral as well as written information regarding the research was shared with them prior to seeking their permission for interviews, observations and stimulated recalls. The research participants were handed over information sheet on which a detailed synopsis of the study was given.
- b. The purpose of the study was clearly and explicitly explained to the research participants before their consent and responses were sought.
- c. To ensure that identity of the research participants are protected, pseudonyms were used instead of their actual/original names throughout the write up of the study.

- d. I was aware of the fact that I had this responsibility to keep the responses of the participants confidential and to use them for the research purposes of this study.

Moreover, since ethics-related issues also included complying with the code of ethics for researchers approved by the University of Portsmouth, I had sought ethical approval from the Ethics Committee of the University which was granted to me (See: Appendix E attached).

4.8.2. **Piloting**

This study was also preceded by a pilot study with the intention of pre-testing or ‘trying out’ my proposed research methods or instruments i.e., interview, observation and stimulated recall (Baker, 1994 cited in Chenail, 2011, p. 257). The significance of conducting a pilot study includes getting a prior awareness about (a) the possible challenges which a researcher might face while carrying out research, (b) where a researcher might not be able to follow the research protocols, and (c) whether the proposed research methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002).

The pilot study was conducted in the University of Science and Technology (UST), Bannu, taking into account certain considerations in mind. First of all, UST, Bannu, like KUST, was a newly established university in the public sector. Secondly, similar to KUST, the geographical location of UST, Bannu happened towards the southern part of the province, approximately 135 kilometer away from KUST towards the south. Thirdly, UST, Bannu had been put in the category of General Small University as well as declared among the top ten universities, along with KUST, by the HEC, Pakistan in 2011/12. This university is surrounded by tribal agencies along the border with Afghanistan. The researcher arranged a personal visit to the UST, Bannu. Some personal acquaintances facilitated meeting with 4 of the faculty members from the department of English over there. After briefly explaining the purpose of my study, I requested them to volunteer for my pilot study. Three out of 4 showed their willingness and availability for my pilot study. The pilot study engaged each participant for one interview lasting for 30-35 minutes, one classroom observation lasting for almost 50 minutes and one stimulated recall discussion.

4.8.2.1. Findings of the pilot study

The pilot study helped in improving certain aspects related to research instruments. For example, the interview time increased to 45-50 because the interview protocol could not easily be covered in 30-35 minutes. Moreover, certain ambiguities from the interview protocol were removed and further clarity and simplicity was brought in to the protocol. Further, the initial idea of video recording of the classroom observations was dropped due the discomfort of students (especially female) and faculty members. This was replaced with taking detailed notes of the classroom observations. Lastly, field notes, which were not included in the pilot study, were added as a data collection tool as the pilot study revealed that certain significant aspects related to teachers' cognitions could be captured during informal talk with the participants.

4.8.3. Final data collection

For the final data collection of this study, the head of the English department at KUST was contacted and requested for permission to collect data. His approval, which was received on a written application, allowed me to collect data over a period of one complete semester i.e. from December, 2011 to May, 2012. After this, 10 teachers in the department of English were accessed and handed over informed consent form (See: Consent Form – Appendix D) and broader objectives of the study (Participant Information Sheet – Appendix C). These 10 teachers were guaranteed confidentiality and the right to withdraw at any stage of the study. As noted above, seven (7) out of the ten (10) teachers gave consent and agreed to participate in the study. Keeping in view the busy schedule of the teachers, they were contacted individually and requested to suggest dates, times and places of their own choice for the first round of interviews. While the majority of them proposed that the interviews be conducted on-campus after the official working hours of the university, two teachers extended invitations to be interviewed at their respective homes. To be able to conduct the interviews in a friendly and relaxed environment, I followed their suggestions and made myself available at the times and places of their choices.

Before starting the interviews with each teacher, I reiterated objectives of the study and made sure that they understand that their participation is completely voluntary and that they can

withdraw at any stage of the study. Moreover, it was again conveyed to them that their identities will be kept strictly confidential and the data will only be used for academic purposes without reporting their original names in the thesis. Before starting the interviews formally, their permissions were sought to start recording using a digital recorder.

As qualitative interviews studies are often conducted with small samples (Silverman, 2006), therefore, the researcher interviewed seven Pakistani university ESL teachers for 50 minutes to one hour each in order to explore their idealized cognitions. The researcher then arranged for a second round of interviews with the participants which were based on the participants' first interview analysis. In two cases, where it was felt that further exploration of certain issues was required, a fourth round of interviews were also conducted. All of the interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed later on, which provided a rich source of data. This allowed the researcher to revisit the responses of the participants for finding hidden and relevant meanings/themes very easily (Robson, 2011).

4.9. Procedures for Data Analysis

4.9.1. Induction and Deduction

Generally, there are three techniques of reasoning available to make sense of the world around us or to offer inferences about a phenomenon i.e., inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and a combination of both these techniques (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 6). The starting point in deductive reasoning is a theory from which a hypothesis or a research question is built. This hypothesis could be tested by reasoning, or collecting data from the respondents. After analysis, the hypothesis may be confirmed or rejected or a new hypothesis could be offered based on newly developed assumptions (Carey, 2012, p. 36). While in inductive reasoning, the researcher records observations or conduct interviews. Identification of "trends" or "patterns" from the data is done next. These patterns and trends are used to create "summary of statements". These statements are used to develop or propose a theory which in turn deepens understanding about the newly discovered knowledge (Carey, 2012, p. 35).

Qualitative studies may also employ inductive-deductive methods simultaneously for content analysis (Galli & Vealey, 2008; McCarthy & Jones, 2007; Vigil, 2007). Galli & Vealey (2008), for example, changed their initial plan of deductive content analysis as they felt that

new themes could emerge by using inductive content analysis while they were analysing the data. Therefore, they included the inductive technique of content analysis to analyse the data. Qualitative research rarely involves the simultaneous use of induction and deduction techniques. The researchers usually make sense of the data “from the data itself” through induction with limited or no prior assumptions regarding the concepts or themes that may emerge (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015, p. 260). However, Carey (2012, p. 36) believes that:

Generally, most qualitative research is a ‘messy’ and unpredictable business and it is also possible, therefore, that inductive approaches may draw from core aspects of the deductive tradition, such as if referring to established theory when undertaking observations. Also long established deductive cultures of research increasingly look to integrate some components more commonly utilized as part of inductive traditions.

In some cases a researcher might develop an in-depth understanding of the topic, through his/her previous research experience and/or literature review, which might lead him/her to anticipate some general themes and/or concepts (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015). In such cases, interpretive content analysis in qualitative studies might first draw on generalized (deductive) themes followed by inductive procedures of linking various concepts within themes to amend or identify new sub themes from the data (p. 260). This case study, too, involved the analysis of data through the use of both deductive and inductive techniques of content analysis. Following an extensive literature review, some of the significant aspects of ESL/EFL teaching were identified which were found appropriate to start with (See: Appendix A - Interview Protocol). Some of the concepts related to these aspects of teaching or themes in the data were ultimately grouped together and through inductive techniques sub-themes were created.

This case study, then, ultimately presented a narrative analysis (Cortazzi, 1993) of seven Pakistani university ESL teachers’ idealized cognitions, the gap between their cognitions and teaching behaviour and the extent to which contextual factors (including the socio-cultural and institutional factors) explained any gap between their cognitions and teaching behaviour. As a widely-used research technique in education, narrative inquiry attempts to explore participants’ life experiences and employ the strategy of storytelling (Kim, 2015). With a focus on the lived experiences of these teachers (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Clandinin, 2007), I acknowledged the complex nature of their teaching and learning context. Also, I

attempted to understand through links and constant engagement in reflection and consideration (Kim, 2015), as I developed and presented their cases.

As I followed the notion of teachers' knowledge as a reconstruction of the narratives of a teacher's professional experiences (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990), I was aware that teachers' knowledge is "event-structured knowledge, where reconstructions of past situations and cases play a major role, and is inevitably frequently expressed in narrative" and where "teachers' descriptions take on a narrative character", as Cortazzi (1993, p. 9) argues. Drawing on these qualitative and narrative strategies, I juxtaposed the interview as well as observational data related to these teachers. This led me to develop and present different categories and themes, further juxtaposing and presenting the data as star, with my description, explanations, analysis or commentaries, as Chenail (1995) recommends. Following these techniques, I analysed the data using interpretive content analysis as well as thematic analysis.

4.9.2. **Interpretive content analysis**

Given the interpretive qualitative case study design of my study, I found interpretive content analysis, a distinct version of content analysis, appropriate for the purpose. Drisko & Maschi (2015) differentiate between basic content analysis and more interpretive approaches to content analysis. They argue that basic content analysis tends to: use deductively generated coding categories; use more literal or low inference in coding methods; focus less on the context of communication and meaning making and generally tend to draw on statistical analytic methods and positivist or realistic epistemologies. Drawing on Kracauer (1952), Drisko & Maschi (2015) also argue that quantitative approaches to content analysis are usually limited due to three reasons: that meaning is not often explicit and self-evident; that meaning is often complex, contextual and best understood holistically; and that some significant content may appear only once in a text, which does not correspond to it being insignificant or trivial. Such an analysis is useful when researchers need to summarise or describe data or behaviour effectively or to predict or explain relationships within the data.

On the contrary, interpretive content analysis is "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use" (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 24). While specific procedures are followed to ensure replicable and

valid results, and to make claims about context, meaning is not simply “contained” in the text (p. 25).

It is important to highlight here that interpretive content analysis is different from other qualitative analytic approaches, such as discourse analysis and conversation analysis, which involve different research purposes and methodologies, as Drisko & Maschi (2015) note. Citing Harris (1952), Drisko & Maschi (2015) maintain that discourse analysis, for example, involves the examination of naturally occurring communicative events with focus on sequences such as speaker turn-taking, proposition, or other forms of speech. It is “a method for the analysis of the connected speech or writing for continuing descriptive linguistics beyond the limit of a single sentence at a time and for correlating culture and language” (Harris, 1952, pp. 1-2 cited in Drisko & Maschi, 2015). Further, sounds, gestures and syntax may be the focus of discourse analysis as well as different genres of discourse such as political discourse, media, education, business and science (Harris, 1985 cited in Drisko & Maschi, 2015).

Further, discourse analysis requires the researcher to have a prior understanding about complex theoretical perspectives on language, which present the theory of language as *creating* reality (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Braun and Clarke argue that understanding such a background is necessary for the researcher as it assists them while observing the data, coding and analysing the data, as well as in their final claims. On the other hand, interpretive content analysis is only a method of data analysis and does not require an initial knowledge of the different theories and perspectives on language. Also, discourse analysis focuses on how language users, drawing on their ability of linguistic elements, communicate in context and examines how certain chunks of language contain meaning and unity i.e. how far they are coherent (McCarthy, 1991). It is also concerned with how particular phenomena are represented. Van Dijk (1991 cited in Krippendorff, 2004), for example, observed how racism appear in the press, how minorities are reflected, how ethnic conflicts are reported and how stereotypes reflect in talk. In contrast to discourse and conversation analyses, which concentrate on the elements and forms of speech, interpretive content analysis concentrates on meaning (Drisko & Maschi, 2015).

4.9.2.1. Why I used interpretive content analysis?

Literature on content analysis suggests that an interpretivist epistemological foundation underpin interpretive content analyses (Drisko & Maschi, 2015; Krippendorff, 2013). While basic content analysts hold that meaning is contained within the words they observe, and that this meaning is self-evident and does not require interpretation, more interpretive content analysts hold that the researcher's purpose and frame of reference may contribute significantly to understand words in context (Drisko & Maschi, 2015). According to this epistemological stance, "texts do not simply *contain* meaning but are instead *rendered meaningful by the perspective and understanding of the reader* for specific purposes" (p. 67, emphasis in the original).

Following this epistemological perspective, I found interpretive content analysis more appropriate with regard to the purpose of my study, as I was interested more "in a richer understanding of the meanings of content" (Baxter, 1991, p. 204). As well as focusing on descriptive questions of "what" and "how", I chose interpretive content analysis to emphasize on questions such "why", "for whom", and "to what effect" (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 27). It is neither only literal nor essentially exclusively descriptive in purpose (pp. 26-27). I was thus able to explore "both the antecedents and the consequences of communication"; it offered me the opportunity to investigate both the causes and effects of communication as well as to focus on explicit content (Drisko & Maschi, 2015, p. 58). Compared to basic content analysis which appears to focus more on coding and interpretations rooted explicitly in the content of the data, this analytic technique afforded greater contextual inference and specialized knowledge (Drisko & Maschi, 2015). Moreover, it focuses on language and linguistic features, meaning in context, is systematic and verifiable (e.g. in its use of codes and categories), as the rules for the analysis are explicit, transparent and public (Marying, 2004, 267-9). However, with a view to confirm interpretations through validating evidence, I ensured my interpretation was firmly grounded in empirical data (Drisko & Maschi, 2015; Krippendorff, 2013).

Moreover, I found interpretive content analysis useful for exploring content and meanings, summarising large data sets, and making inferences about intentions, thoughts, feelings which may manifest through speech or other forms of communication (Drisko & Maschi, 2015).

This analytic technique also enabled me to examine the participants' reactions to policies and/or services with a view to highlight whether or not they are clear and favourable (Ginger, 2006), as well as the contextualised inferences to make judgements regarding intentions, needs and potential actions (Drisko & Maschi, 2015). Some of the other distinguishing features of interpretive content analysis, as highlighted by Krippendorff (2004, p. 40), are:

- It is an unobtrusive technique i.e. one can observe without being observed, as Robson (2011) explains
- It can handle unstructured matter as data
- It is context sensitive and therefore allows the researcher to process as data texts that are significant, meaningful, informative, and even representational to others
- It can cope with large volumes of data
- The data are in a permanent form (text), verification through re-analysis and replication is possible

4.9.3. Using thematic analysis

Along with interpretive content analysis, I also used thematic analysis as a supplementary analytic technique. Thematic analysis, as Braun & Clarke (2012, p. 57) define it, is “a method for systematically identifying, organizing, and offering insight into patterns of meanings (themes) across a data set”. While emphasising on meaning across a data set, thematic analysis enabled me to observe and interpret common or shared meanings and experiences. Instead of focusing on identifying unique and peculiar meanings and experiences within a single data item, thematic analysis allowed me to identify what was *common* with regard to how a topic or issue was talked or written about and then analysed those commonalities across the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2012). However, what can be termed as common was not significant in itself, rather the patterns of meanings which I identified were important in relation to the specific topic/theme or the research questions.

Like the interpretive content analysis, thematic analysis allowed me to focus on the data in multiple ways. For example, I was able to focus on: meaning across the entire data set; investigating one specific aspect of a phenomenon or theme in depth; observing the evident and semantic meanings in the data; as well as investigating the latent meanings, the

assumptions and ideas that were implicit in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Following the procedure of thematic analysis, I first systematically coded and analysed the data and, subsequently, related it to broader theoretical and conceptual issues of my study.

4.9.4. **Data presentation**

With regard to data analysis and presentation, the three research questions addressing the teachers' idealized cognitions, their classroom behaviours, and the role of the various contextual factors affecting their cognitions and behaviours played an instrumental role. The data were restructured and presented under three sections to correspond with the three research questions which were followed by a fourth section of cross-case discussion. Similarly data pertaining to each teacher was divided into three sections (i.e., reported cognition, classroom observation and post-lesson discussion) which corresponded with the three research questions. Further, the data were organised and presented in tabular form to highlight the teachers' idealized cognitions, their classroom actions and the reasons behind their actions (See appendix F & G attached).

Moreover, predetermined categories were not imposed, but rather themes and concepts emerged through the constant comparison (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) of the teachers' observed actions and interview statements. Some of the initial themes which emerged as a result of this process included *affect in language learning, communicative language teaching, direct method, grammar teaching, teacher's role, teacher-students interaction, students-students interaction, continuing professional development, role of teaching materials, classroom management and teachers' use of L1* (see appendix G attached).

However, the study's focus was subsequently narrowed down keeping in view the following factors. Firstly, the broad range and contentious nature of CLT, for example, made it unworkable to be further explored and developed as one of the possible themes. Also, the development of CLT-related theme seemed inappropriate as the observational data which included language, literature and communication classes did not offer sufficient information related to the teachers' practices. Secondly, the qualitative nature of this case study required to narrow down the focus on a few themes which could be developed into extensive narratives with rich and thick descriptions (Holliday, 2007). Also, this narrow focus on few themes was

guided by the number of cases (teachers) and the volume of their contribution to them; this allowed for the richness and variety of the data which helped develop a *cross-case analysis* in each of the themes. Keeping in view these considerations, ultimately three themes i.e. teachers' cognitions regarding their continuing professional development (CPD), curriculum-materials and their uses of the learners' L1 were developed and made part of this study.

4.9.5. **Triangulation**

Triangulation, according to Cohen et al. (2007), is “the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour” (p. 141). The use of triangulation in the field of social sciences aims at spotting out and/or describing thoroughly the versatility and intricacies of human behaviour by examining it from different perspective (Cohen et al., 2007). Through using multiple data collection techniques (interviews, observation and stimulated recall), this case study attempted to achieve triangulation. Through member checking (refers to respondents' examining rough draft of writing where their actions or words are featured) the researcher triangulated his own observations and interpretations which helped add to the trustworthiness of the case study. During observation, the researcher looked for the extent to which the respondents' interview accounts matched with what they do in the classroom. Again, the main purpose of stimulated recall discussions was to ask respondents to explain certain behaviours they do in the class. Hence, this triangulation process helped the researcher to achieve trustworthiness as well as maintain critical distance from the research setting and participants. Moreover, the researcher also aimed to use observer triangulation (using more than one observer) by requesting one of his colleagues to sit in the classroom during each observation (Denzin, 1988).

Table C: Means of coding data

| Teacher | Type of data | Number |
|----------------|---------------------|---------------|
| Hasan = H | Interview = I | 1-3 |
| Maria = M | Observation = O | |

| | | |
|------------|------------------------|--|
| Murad = M | Stimulated recall = SR | |
| Raheem = R | Filed notes = FN | |
| Sana = S | | |
| Waseem = W | | |
| Zarfan = Z | | |

For example, HI.3 means Hasan's third interview and HSR.1 refers to Hasan's first stimulated recall discussion

4.10. **Trustworthiness**

4.10.1. **The researcher as a cultural insider**

One of the challenges in qualitative research is the issue of how the researcher builds and maintains his/her relationship with people in the research setting (Holliday, 2007). The researcher role, either an 'insider' or 'outsider', depends on his relation with the culture, setting and the people in it, as Holliday explains. Unlike an outsider researcher who investigates a foreign culture, setting and people, my role was that of an insider researcher, as I had worked in the same culture, particularly in the same university, for almost six years. My role as a cultural insider meant I had to deal with certain challenging issues including my ideology and objectivity and my positioning. I was conscious that my role as a researcher was to create a textual room not only for myself, as a participant and researcher, but also for the people in the research setting thus making their voices public (Holliday, 2007). Though as a cultural insider I cannot claim complete impartiality and neutrality, I attempted to deal with these issues cautiously.

4.10.2. **The researcher as a critical and reflective investigator**

Given my role as a cultural insider, it was quite challenging to fight out my existing knowledge about what actually happens in the classroom of my culture and how the overall system of teaching/learning is run over there.

Holliday (2007) informs us that the presence and influence of the researcher in the research setting is not only indispensable but is viewed upon as a resource which should be positively exploited. In order to expose the real motives and impulses behind the actions/reactions, the researcher role in this case study was influential and capitalized upon. During observation, the researcher role was that of a *non-participant* or *unobtrusive observer* (Robson, 2011). In this role the observer is non-reactive to the ongoing activities or tasks during observation. Also, the role of the researcher in this case study was to create a textual room not only for himself as a researcher but also for the people in the research setting thus making their voices public (Holliday, 2007). Similarly, the qualitative researcher should be able to resist personal temptations (Padgett, 2008) and aim to achieve *reflexivity* – the quality of being critical of his own judgments, observations and easily arrived conclusions as well as avoiding personal prejudices and ideological biases (Holliday, 2007). To address these requirements, the researcher in this case study discussed and counter-checked the interview transcripts by discussing it with respondents to verify the meanings of their statements. Similarly for maintaining a critical distance, the researcher requested one of his colleagues to sit in the classroom during each observation (Padgett, 2008).

To improve the ‘trustworthiness’ (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) of my research, I drew upon three rounds of data collection; this permitted ‘data source triangulation’ (Stake, 1995). For example, certain key questions were present in all three interviews with each teacher, but somewhat different wording was used each time so that the interviewee would not recognize I was checking understanding of what I had been told previously (Van Canh, 2012). Also, where different practices were observed in the first and second observations of a teacher, I was particularly interested in observing a third time. Where consistency was noted, two observations were deemed sufficient. ‘Methodological triangulation’ (Stake, 1995) was employed constantly, with what said compared to what seen.

4.10.3. **Comparability and transferability**

As generalizability in qualitative research is understood as comparability and transferability (Cohen et al., 2007), therefore, for qualitative research to achieve comparability and transferability it needs to offer a lucid, comprehensive and thorough description to help people determine to what degree its findings can be generalized. In order to achieve comparability and transferability, the researcher in this study attempted to elicit in-depth responses from the participants. Similarly, Cohen et al. (2007, p. 133) state that qualitative data can bear validity by focusing on the fairness, intensity, quality and quantity of the data attained, the participants accessed, the degree of triangulation and after all the impartiality and neutrality of the researcher involved. The researcher's relatively prolonged involvement in the research setting helped develop a trusting relationship between the researcher and the research participants and led to unbiased information on the part of the research participants (Robson, 2011). The researcher in this case study stayed for one complete semester (almost 5 months duration) in the research setting which helped decrease *reactivity* (researcher influence on participants) and participants' *bias* (any intentional effort on the part of participants to alter their responses) (Robson, 2011).

4.11. **Summary of the chapter**

In this chapter, I discussed the research methodology of this study including qualitative research and a case study approach. I also discussed the research questions, the relevant research paradigm (the interpretive paradigm) for this study, the research design, population and sample, data collection tools, procedures for data collection and analysis and the efforts which aimed at increasing the trustworthiness of this case study. In the next three chapters (chapters 5, 6 & 7), I present the findings and discussions related to the three themes that emerged from the data in this case study i.e., teachers' cognitions regarding the curriculum-materials, their use of the learners' L1 and their continuing professional development (CPD).

Chapter 5. Findings and Discussions (1)

Pakistani university English language teachers' cognitions regarding curriculum materials

5.1. Introduction

In the literature review chapter (chapter 3: sections 3.3.4), I have introduced Shaver's (2010) curriculum framework which highlights three approaches to curriculum followed by language teachers: curriculum-making, curriculum-development and curriculum-transmission. In the sections that follow (sections 3.3.6-8), I have demonstrated that language teachers tend to follow these three different approaches to the curriculum. Some tend to use textbooks as scripts rather than as resource in the classroom i.e. the curriculum-transmission approach. Teachers' choice of this approach might be the result of many factors including top-down curriculum policy, their own beliefs, mode of assessment, learners' needs and textbook-orientation, pre-occupation with classroom management issues and a range of other personal and institutional factors (Shaver, 2010). However, others seem to use the textbook as a resource and follow curriculum expansion, adaptation, supplementing and adjustment, thus changing the curriculum to suit it to their contexts i.e. the curriculum-development approach (Shaver, 2010). Teachers' choice of this approach might be the result of a free curriculum policy in their contexts, their experience and professional trainings. Besides these two types of teachers, there are others who tend to create and experience curriculum in mutual consultation with their students by conducting needs assessment of their students in the start of the semester. Their choice of using this approach i.e., the curriculum-making approach might be the result of their personal and professional interest, a free curriculum policy, experience and professional trainings.

However, none of the studies in the sections highlighted above (sections 3.3.6-8) explicitly discussed or focused on gaps between teachers' cognitions and practices, though there were clearly instances where teachers' beliefs were found inconsistent with their classroom behaviour e.g. in Richards & Mahoney's (1996), Zacharias' (2005) and Sanchez's (2010). The presence of gaps between teachers' idealized and situated cognitions in these studies also

highlighted a few issues. First, in case of a clash between a teacher's idealized and situated cognitions, the latter might take precedence over the former, when seriously challenged by contextual realities including a concern for learner needs and wants, as is demonstrated by Walsh & Wyatt's (2014) study. Second, teacher's practical and cognitive skills might supplant their theoretical beliefs when it comes to actual teaching, as is evident in Richards & Mahoney's (1996) study. Third, cultural and linguistic considerations might get the upper hand in shaping teachers' situated cognitions over their idealized cognitions, as is underlined by Zacharias' (2005) study. Fourth, a lack of awareness on teachers' part i.e. if teachers believe they do/should teach in one way and actually teach in another way, this might involve serious psychological and educational issues, as is evident in Sanchez's (2010) study. The presence of such gaps might also influence students' learning in significant ways.

Moreover, in these studies, as observations were carried out before the stimulated recall interviews, during which elicited cognitions were situated, these studies reported teachers' cognitions which were based on actual classroom events. These studies, through this sequence of the research methodology, offer insights too, as by the teachers in Kuzborska's (2011) and Shaver's (2010) study. This is in sharp contrast to the studies that did not include an observational element. These studies might have elicited idealized cognitions which might not reflect teachers' actual classroom behaviour. In case of a gap, serious concerns can follow, because if teachers believe they should/do teach in one way but actually teach in another, this may lead to psychological and educational issues. The ramifications may be that learners may not be able to realize their full potential and the teachers may be feeling frustrated, disoriented, neglected and lacking in self-confidence. If this is the scenario, there may be significant implications for curriculum policy, teacher education and in-service trainings.

Regarding textbook materials in Pakistan, the study of Shoukat & Ghani (2015) has underlined the general discontent prevalent among the Pakistani ESL teachers. Through distributing a questionnaire among 1379 teachers, they attempted to explore the role of English textbooks at higher secondary level in public school. They found that majority of the teachers (51%) believed that the subject matter of textbook does not create interest for learning. Even a higher percentage of the same teachers (53%) believed that difficult concepts are not clearly explained in the textbook where necessary. The general picture which emerged

from their research indicated the teachers' unfavourable opinions about the English textbooks particularly those related to the quality of paper, subject matter, exercises at end of chapters, number of solved examples and explanation of difficult concepts.

Mahmood's (2011) study involved collecting data from 51 experts through a structured Textbook Evaluation Form based on eight characteristics of quality textbook. The findings of this study indicated that all the experts (51) had consensus that the Ministry-approved textbooks are lacking in many of the desirable characteristics with respect to the internationally acceptable standards of textbooks.

Both these studies have offered some insights into Pakistani ESL teachers' and experts' idealized cognitions regarding the textbook material which is a useful contribution in itself. However, they did not inform us about the Pakistani ESL teachers' situated cognitions i.e. what they actually do with textbook materials inside the classroom. Moreover, previous research in the Pakistani context has focused on teachers' cognitions about materials who were working at either school or college level (Aftab, 2012; Shoukat & Ghani, 2015). This also suggests that research is required to understand teachers' idealized and situated cognitions about materials at university level and to explore any potential gaps between them.

My research questions (adapted for this particular theme) were as follows:

1. What might be the teachers' idealized cognitions with regard to curriculum materials?
2. If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour, what are the characteristics of these?
3. How can gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour be explained?

5.2. Data analysis and findings

The focus of this chapter (teachers' cognitions regarding materials) has been explored with the help of data related to four teachers. As discussed in chapter 4 (section 4.6), the selection of these four teachers (Maria, Raheem, Sana, Zarfan, all pseudonyms) was guided by both 'theoretical' and 'purposive' sampling (Silverman, 2009). While the former was used to develop understanding of this particular issue, the latter aimed to ensure the balance, variety of intuitions and individuals.

I now present findings in relation to each teacher and then discuss them next to the research questions.

5.2.1. **Maria**

Maria, an experienced teacher in her late-thirties, seemed a motivating and an innovative professional. Her motivational skills appeared to have created a sense of ownership in her students leading them to respond positively to her “innovative ideas” (MSR.1). Interview data suggest Maria was aware of the significance of textbook or coursebook in the Pakistani context as it was “a source of comfort and protection for students”, she reported (MI. 1). She demonstrated this understanding further and reported that “our students are used to sticking to the textbooks and depending on such materials which makes it easy for them to go through the exam and get good grades”. The reason for this can be traced back to their academic background, as she commented:

Actually, right from the moment they get into schools, they are encouraged rather trained to focus on one limited source for their success. Unfortunately, the fact is that success is guaranteed to a greater extent if you follow this formula....so, in fact, textbook offers this benefit to students (MI. 1)

However, contrary to this prevailing textbook culture, Maria maintained that “in reality it restricts the students’ quest for learning from other sources which are worth-exploring”, adding that “...but I think it is the teacher’s responsibility to take students out of this comfort zone and acculturate them with multiple ways materials can be developed and exploited” (MI. 1). Maria appeared to believe in offering opportunities to learners to use the language for communicative purposes (Tomlinson, 1998) as well as in materials use which seeks to foster learner autonomy, as Crawford (2002) proposes. A point worthy of attention with regard to Maria’s cognition was that she used to conduct needs identification of her students in the start of each semester. She reported this in one of her interviews:

I dedicate my first class to a discussion with students on the aims and contents of a course. Through this discussion I try to identify their needs. I also try to get their feedback on how they would like to learn the course, for example, through lecturing, sharing handouts and reading activities, individual as well as group presentation or watching videos... (MI. 1)

Explaining this further, she offered example from the *Sociolinguistics* course, which she was teaching to the BS-V class in that semester. While reporting that she had discussed with

students the aims i.e., to develop the students' awareness about the social factors which are relevant to language use with special references to Pakistan, Maria maintained that:

The students showed great interest in topics like 'Varieties in Language' and how 'Language, Culture and Thought' are interlinked as well as the concepts of 'Multilingualism and Bilingualism'...we have a multilingual context in Pakistan... students and teachers coming from different linguistic backgrounds. Some of the major languages spoken here are Urdu, Pashto, Hinko, Siraiki and Punjabi... Such a rich linguistic context makes it very interesting to discuss issues related to language use... (MI. 1)

Regarding materials development, Maria's cognition, as the above quote highlights i.e., materials being rich, contextually appropriate, interesting and relevant, reminds us what Tomlinson (1998) recommends.

Observational data related to Maria revealed an apparent degree of fit between her practices and idealized cognitions. Her observations revealed she appeared to entirely rely on her self-prepared materials and worksheets, as well as materials drawn from a range of sources including the internet in her classroom, though she was also once observed consulting a recommended book. Her teaching a course of *Research Methodology* to the BS English-V class, for example, revealed she had prepared some materials from online sources on power point and was teaching on multimedia (MO. 1). For the topic of the day, *Essential qualities of Research*, she presented seven slides which involved her reading and explaining from the multimedia. The influential role of technology on language teaching materials and the revolution it has brought in the field of materials design and use is well documented in the literature (Garton & Graves, 2014). Information technology can be exploited as a resource, as Maley (2011) argues, to take the teachers and learners out from the boundaries of textbooks, as well as to offer them rapid and flexible access to endless information resources. In the same class, she was also observed distributing some handouts among the students on another topic, *Research Designing*, and inviting the whole class to have a discussion on it after doing their reading for 15 minutes.

Another notable aspect of Maria's cognition was that she did not follow the official curriculum with regard to the sequence of course content. She commented that:

I do not necessarily follow the order or sequence of course contents given in the curriculum booklet....for me it is more important to respond to [students'] needs, so I proceed from simple

and easy topics to complex and challenging ones....the basis for such understanding comes from the initial discussion with students during which I identify their needs (MI. 2)

Interestingly, Maria reported the absence of explicit directives or expectations in the curriculum, both at the university level and at the level of Higher Education Commission (HEC). Consequently, this required the teachers to adapt or supplement the recommended curriculum, as Maria explained she was doing it “simply out of [her] professional interest in materials design and development” (MSR. 1). Here Maria’s case presents a sharp contrast to the two teachers in Kuzborska (2011), who, although, they were officially required to prepare their own materials to support students in their mainstream classes, taught from commercial textbooks. Her relevant and contextual use of materials appeared to be driven by a concern for getting optimal congruence between materials, methodology, learners, objectives, the target language and the teacher’s personality and teaching style, as Tomlinson (2012) recommends.

Given the absence of explicit curriculum directives from the university, Maria’s cognition regarding teaching materials was greatly affected by her cognition about how language should be taught and how language learning should take place. She strongly believed in the communicative approach to language teaching and learning as, according to her, “it exposes learners to the way language actually works and offers rich experiences to learners” (MI. 2). Within the framework of her communicative orientation to language teaching and learning, she articulated her belief about materials below:

I firmly believe that teaching materials when coming from various sources can enhance students’ motivation and ownership in their learning process. In order for teaching to be effective, student-centred and activity-based, a teacher should bring in a variety of materials to the class. This will ensure, I think, their involvement as well as offering them multiple materials input (MI. 2)

Such a use of materials has also been recommended in the literature i.e., to involve students in meaningful language use, both affectively and cognitively (Crawford, 2002), as well as making materials more interactive and learner-centred (Nunan, 1999). Instead of teaching from one book or source, which greatly contributes towards making this process (i.e. teaching-learning) teacher-fronted, “the teachers should delegate their powers and responsibilities to students” and opt to play “a role similar to that of a guide or facilitator”, she maintained (MI. 2). Moreover, she emphasized the significance of using natural and authentic

materials in the classroom if students are to be given real language learning experiences (Crawford, 2002; Tomlinson, 1998); such a use of natural and authentic materials can also be found in the previous literature, such as Zacharias (2005) and Tomlinson (2012).

Maria's idealized cognitions regarding materials, as explained above, matched her classroom behaviour. This was evident in her liberal use of materials from multiple sources including her self-prepared materials in her teaching to the BS-III (MO.2). For teaching *The Study of Speech Sound* to this class, she had brought her own prepared worksheets and materials to the class for teaching speech sounds, anatomy of speech production and English Vowels and Consonants. Although she consulted one of the recommended books, *The Study of Language* by George Yule, by reading out a few passages from it, she heavily relied on her self-prepared materials for most of the class time. These included some posters and worksheets with diagrams about the anatomy of speech production, English vowels and consonants, which she displayed to the class by posting them along both sides of the whiteboard and invited the whole class to come forward and see them closely. The students appeared excited and impatient to see the posters, as they were gently pushing one another for their turns; such an effective use of materials to arouse students' interest and curiosity and which are perceived by them as relevant and useful has been recommended by Tomlinson (1998). Some of the prominent features related to her use of materials from multiple sources, like teaching through multimedia and distributing handouts among the students, were also observed during her teaching a course of Sociolinguistics to the MA English-III (MO.3). With a view to explain the concepts of *Multilingualism* and *Bilingualism*, for example, Maria supplemented her lecture with multimedia presentation, which she seemed to have prepared from online sources. Since the slides also covered the Causes and Effects of bilingualism, this generated a useful discussion in the class as most of the students appeared to share a bilingual background, both academic and social. However, before finishing the class, Maria also shared with the students some handouts, which she seemed to have photocopied from a book related to bilingualism.

The driving force behind her liberal use of materials, including her self-prepared materials and worksheets in the class, according to Maria, was students' positive response and excitement (MSR. 1). This is reflected when she commented:

The credit for my taking liberty with course contents and designing my own materials goes to my students. They have been taking interest and responding well to my innovative ideas about different ways of teaching a course...without their share in this process, I don't think I will be able to enjoy this academic freedom.... (MSR. 1)

However, Maria also indicated some contextual factors, time shortage and some students' textbooks orientation in particular, appeared to challenge her classroom practices (MSR.3). The influence of such contextual factors on teachers' use of materials has been reported by Kuzborska (2011) and Kiai (2012). On a few occasions, these challenges had tempted Maria to give up, particularly at the start when she had joined the university as a new lecturer, she recalled. However, she felt she had enough skills and experience to remain steadfast, she maintained, as she had worked as a teacher (almost 10 years) in a private elite English-medium school before joining the university. In order to cope up with these challenges, she suggested, she has been creating awareness among the students and motivating them for independent learning from various printed as well as web-based sources (MSR.3).

Another significant aspect of Maria's cognition was her preference for internationally-published materials, particularly from the English speaking countries, over locally-published materials. Her classroom observations confirmed this as, on one occasion, she read a few passages from *The Study of Language* by George Yule (MO. 2). Some of the reasons, she reported for this, are that materials developed by native English speakers are better in terms of offering conceptual clarity and "developing language skills particularly academic reading and writing skills" (MI. 3). Here, Maria's views appear to be in dissonance with the generally acknowledged arguments in the literature that the best materials are locally-produced to address local needs (Tomlinson, 2012; Crawford, 2002). However, a critical issue may be that, in Pakistan, the locally-produced materials are considered to be poor in terms of conceptual clarity, logical arguments and explanation, as Nayyar & Salim (n.d.) highlight.

Interview data also suggested Maria appeared to demonstrate sensitivity towards teaching topics which might be regarded as culturally sensitive. She reported feeling uncomfortable to discuss or talk openly in the class about topics, for example, related to religion or gender discrimination or sects and other socio-cultural taboos (MSR.2). However, Maria reported she did not censor or adapt such materials and emphasized that learning about the 'other' was good. While this implies she was open-minded, she would explicitly announce, before

discussing such topics, particularly in the literature classes, that “these are not my opinions”, she added. She would remind her students, for example, that if she was discussing something related to Christianity, “it doesn’t mean to become a Christian ...”, making it clear in her instructions that “it’s just to know about other religions, cultures, races or other sects”, she maintained, she maintained (MSR.3). Such explanations from her side did not go to waste as “students have realized the existence and significance of other religions, races or sects or culture that people follow”, she commented. This issue is highlighted by Gray (2000), in which almost half of the teachers report censoring or adapting the cultural contents they feel uncomfortable with or deemed inappropriate for their students.

To summarise, Maria appeared to follow a curriculum-making approach. Her idealized cognitions supported the use of materials from different sources including the Internet and her self-prepared materials. She preferred to identify students’ needs in start of each semester and to discuss with them course contents. Further, she did not follow the official curriculum and preferred using internationally-published materials. Although she faced some contextual challenges with regard to implementing her curriculum-making approach, Maria appeared steadfast due to her professional experience and skills. Her idealized cognitions related to materials truly reflected in her classroom behaviours. This also shows a match between her idealized and situated cognitions.

5.2.2. **Raheem**

Raheem, an experienced teacher in his late-thirties, seemed a compassionate, perfectionist and a committed professional. Interview data suggested Raheem believed in the value of teaching from textbooks/recommended books as well as materials drawn from other sources. However, unlike Maria who followed a non-use of textbooks approach, Raheem appeared to believe that textbooks are credible and “more reliable”, as compared to materials available on the internet and/or in the academic journals, as he commented (RI. 1). Interestingly, Raheem reported that the use of materials from other sources should not underestimate the significance of textbooks/recommended books, as he explained that:

Textbooks are important in the sense that they are prepared by experts and include all the know-how that is important for a discipline. Textbooks are also important in the sense that our students can be seen/marked/judged accordingly (RI. 1)

This suggests Raheem idealized textbooks and appeared to accept them unconditionally. He also reported using textbooks as a primary source for preparing his lectures. While explaining his planning for class preparation, he commented that:

Actually, I prepare notes for myself. Since I have to teach, so face-t-face contact is very necessary so I make notes from books, I just prepare the notes and look at notes before proceeding to the class so that everything is fresh in my mind and then I elaborate on those notes/points in the class and so that students can have maximum eye contact with me in the class (RI. 1)

This implies that, unlike Maria whose approach to materials was characterised by her complete reliance on her self-prepared materials and as well as materials drawn from a range of sources i.e., curriculum-making approach, Raheem seems to follow, as the quote above demonstrates, textbooks as the only source of teaching i.e., curriculum-transmission approach.

Nevertheless, interview data demonstrated that Raheem's cognition regarding teaching materials appeared to have been influenced by his other cognitions i.e., his belief about the role of teacher in the class. He believed that effective teaching requires the role of "a teacher-facilitator" with a view to enhance learners' motivation for independent learning (RI. 2). Here, Raheem reminds us of Maria who also wanted to enhance students' motivation through engaging them in various types of materials. In line with a curriculum-development and curriculum-making approach, he believed in learner autonomy which, according to him, could be achieved by giving students exposure to materials input coming from different sources. However, despite articulating his preference for a frequent student-student interaction in the class, Raheem reported that:

Well, it also depends upon the activity, if I'm teaching then they should listen to me silently and with caution. When I give them an activity e.g., when they are supposed to prepare an assignment together or to converse with one another or to sort out some problem, then in that case I prefer much student-student interaction in the class (RI. 2)

This suggests that Raheem seemed to prefer adapting his teaching method/s and materials according to the nature of a topic. While he expected students to be attentive during his lecture, he preferred to involve them more in group activities in language classes. With a view to create an independent as well as a cooperative learning culture inside the class, he reported, "the teacher must tailor such activities through which students can be engaged", which will help discourage a culture of "spoon-feeding" and "ready-made materials" (RI. 2). However,

contrary to this and as highlighted above, Raheem seemed to use the textbooks after studying them closely and assimilating the materials. Some teachers depending on materials would not do that, as highlighted by previous studies (Richards & Mahoney, 1996; Tsui, 2003).

Observational data related to Raheem revealed that, similarly to Maria whose cognitions and behaviour were also found compatible, his situated cognitions regarding curriculum materials largely matched his idealized cognitions, as reported above. His observations demonstrated he did not appear to rely exclusively on teaching materials from the textbooks/recommended sources; he made frequent uses of a range of teaching materials collected from newspapers, magazines and the internet. This suggests Raheem appeared to follow a curriculum-development approach. While teaching *Academic Reading and Writing* course to BS-II class, for example, he shared with students handouts of a couple of editorials, *Poverty in Pakistan* and *We're killing education*, which he had photocopied from the two leading Pakistani English newspapers, The Dawn and The News (RO. 2). The students, who first did a critical group reading of each editorial for about 20 minutes, then participated in the whole-class discussion on it. Most of the students appeared highly motivated on this task, apparently demonstrating their engagement and enthusiasm; though a few of the students also appeared to be off the task as they seemed to be enjoying their personal chat. This activity was based on Raheem's lecture which he delivered in the start for 20 to 25 minutes on 'Reading and Critical Thinking'. This lecture focused on how to read an academic text effectively, by using appropriate strategies to extract information, identify the main points and supporting details, as well as the writer's intent such as cause and effect and comparison and contrast.

However, it is not only Raheem's beliefs about the teacher's role and learner autonomy that explained his cognition about materials. Interview data suggested that his prior language learning experiences (PLLEs) had made a significant contribution to his cognition regarding materials. Since he reported that "[his] teachers used to teach out of context" and "didn't explain things", he believed a teacher must explain through examples to facilitate students' understanding. "If you are going to teach somebody something", he maintained, "it must be carried out in the relevant context" (RI. 3). Here, Raheem appears to be advancing an argument for materials evaluation which takes into account the local criteria i.e., the learners' contextual profile (Tomlinson, 2003). His classroom observations appeared to support this.

He was found contextualizing and generalising the topics, by giving socio-cultural examples from day-to-day life (RO.2). Such a creative and professional use of materials by teachers to address their students' needs has been proposed by Crawford (2002). The way Raheem ensured students' active involvement with the materials, as is evidenced from his observations, has also been emphasized as important in the literature (White, 1998; Nunan, 1999).

Interview data also suggested that Raheem believed in facilitating learners in their learning process. This included, he reported, applying different strategies for simplifying and adapting teaching materials for reading comprehension, (RI.2). This idealized cognition of Raheem appeared to match his situated cognition. His observations revealed he appeared to have modified and adapted a story text, which he seemed to have downloaded from the internet to teach seven types of paragraph writing, to facilitate his students' comprehension (RO.1). The prominent features of Raheem's text modification and adaptation appeared to be cutting short some lengthy paragraphs and dropping some extra and less relevant materials. A similar use of materials i.e., simplifying and adapting internet downloaded materials, to facilitate learners has also been noted in Maria's case. However, while Maria presented such materials on multimedia to facilitate students, Raheem exploited them as reading handouts for students' comprehension.

With regard to materials modification and adaptation, the literature offers proposals on teachers adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying and reordering materials (McDonough & Shaw, 2003), as well as using materials without changing them, rejecting either fully or partly some segments of the materials, making additions or exploitations of the available materials and replacing segments of the materials (McGrath, 2002). Such modification and adaptation of texts by teachers is not new and has already been reported by teachers in Kuzborska's (2011) study; these teachers believed that advanced learners should be facilitated in their reading comprehension by simplifying and adapting text for them, a belief which was also supported by their classroom observation.

Explaining his preference for arranging students' activities and tasks in the class, specifically group work activities, Raheem reported he had been motivated by students' positive feedback, which he used to receive at the end of each semester (RSR.1). Here, Raheem comes closer to

Maria whose approach to materials had also been significantly shaped by students' positive response. However, while Maria used to get students' feedback at the start of each semester, with a view to identify their needs and wants, Raheem used to receive students' feedback at the end of each semester in order to improve his teaching. This suggests Raheem demonstrated understanding here which seems to be drawing on the principle of providing opportunities to students for outcome feedback (Tomlinson, 1998). His planning for tasks and activities in the class appeared to concentrate on issues related to timing, group work or pair work, his own role and skills development (e.g. speaking or listening), he suggested. This type of pre-task planning reminds us of the non-specialist task designers, but quite experienced teachers, in Johnson's (2003) study who followed almost the same task frame.

As well as exposing students to multiple language materials input, which aimed at developing their reading comprehension (Tomlinson, 1998), Raheem was also observed engaging students in speaking activities (RO. 1,2,&3). During such speaking events, students delivered a short talk (for three to five minutes), on a topic, usually a quotation, which appeared to have been already assigned to them. These events, for which Raheem seemed to dedicate the last 15 to 20 minutes of his class time, characterised all his three observed classes; Raheem appeared to encourage the students to participate if and when they appeared to be hesitant and/or shy. This type of realistic and authentic use of materials to expose learners to language in authentic use and offer them opportunities to use language for communicative purposes has been widely proposed in the literature on materials design and use (Crawford, 2002; Nunan, 1989; Tomlinson, 1998).

Initially in his career, Raheem reflected, he, like Wyatt's (2011) Waleed, had been over-supporting his students and believed he must "impart total knowledge about a topic" to the students (RSR.2). However, this belief was changed as a result of his professional growth (including his teaching experience and in-service professional trainings), as Evans (2014) suggests can happen, and Raheem, more like the Indonesian teacher in Tomlinson (2003), believed that:

they can be given tasks, they can be made independent, they should work on their own and something has to be left for the students. . . . Something must be left for the students so that they may strive for themselves. The teacher must tailor such activities through which students can be engaged (RSR. 2)

Literature on materials development and use recommends making materials more interactive and maximizing students' participation with them (Nunan, 1999; White, 1998). Moreover, exploiting the students' learning potential by encouraging their intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement is likely to stimulate both right- and left-brain activities, as Tomlinson (1998) suggests.

Commenting on his use of a variety of teaching materials in the class, Raheem reported it was "an immense departure" from his earlier approach to materials design and use, demonstrating awareness here of the growth which had occurred in his cognition and professional practice regarding teaching materials (Evans, 2014). This highlights that, unlike Maria, who did not explicitly mention the impact of in-service CPD training on her cognition, Raheem's growing cognition related to materials had been significantly shaped by the CPD trainings. As against his previous use of materials which was teacher-focused, Raheem had realized, or what Evans (2014) refers to, "the individual's recognition of something as a 'better way' of 'doing' thing", (where doing refers to both mental as well as physical activity) (p. 187), that:

... it won't work, their sense of curiosity must be instigated, they should feel the thirst. If they don't feel the urge to learn then they won't learn. It's a kind of over-feeding; the matter/materials can't be digested or assimilated by them. So a thirst has to be created inside them and this can be done through putting questions on them, giving them tasks and engaging them in conversation and then appreciating their work. When a teacher appreciates students' work so automatically they start working hard (RI. 3)

Raheem now believed in exposing students to a variety of materials and engaging them with the texts. He appears to be following a similar path to Wyatt's (2011) Waleed, whose approach to materials also changed completely due to his professional experience and training.

To summarise, Raheem appeared to believe that textbooks are more authentic and credible sources and, therefore, he highly valued them. However, his other cognitions including his belief about the teacher role and learner autonomy appeared to shape his cognition related to materials. Accordingly, he also believed in making use of materials drawn from different sources including newspapers and the Internet. Further, his PLLEs had considerably shaped his cognitions regarding materials. Unlike the way his own teachers had taught him, Raheem believed a teacher should explain and contextualise topics to help clarify students' concepts.

His classroom behaviour appeared to reveal his idealized cognitions largely matched his situated cognitions as he was found using materials drawn from various sources including newspapers and internet, in line with a curriculum-development approach.

5.2.3. **Zarfan**

Zarfan, a senior teacher in his early-fifties, seemed to be an enthusiastic professional who believed that “changes” and “challenges” bring improvement. As a professional, he thought he should have been “a far better teacher” (ZI.1) which suggests he was always looking to improve as professional. Interview data suggested that, similar to Raheem who also attached great value to textbooks, Zarfan acknowledged the significance of textbooks and believed that “textbooks play a vital role” and are “the major teaching resources” for teachers in the Pakistani culture (ZI.1). However, as was the case with Raheem, he also reported using other teaching resources as well, believing “we should go outside the textbooks, we should come up with charts, and other teaching materials from different sources” (ZI.1) with a view to facilitate students to get rich and diverse language learning experiences, as Tomlinson (1998) proposes. With regard to the teaching resources which he used in the class, he commented that:

Of course I take notes and points from various books to the class. I do some planning that how I’ll present my materials and also sometimes I go to the class with handouts if I feel that’s important. Actually, it also depends upon the nature of what I’m going to present in the class (ZI.1)

This suggests that, more like Raheem who also appeared to consider this important, Zarfan seemed to believe that effective materials presentation requires proper planning on the part of a teacher. This combination of planning and materials presentation was reflected in his comments below:

Sometimes when you come out of your class you don’t feel satisfied ... it’s most of the time because of the fact that you realize that whatever you’ve presented was not well-planned, that you didn’t have deep knowledge about the topic . . . then the teacher should, I think, repeat the topic with new preparation and with new planning (ZI.1)

This implies he believed effective materials presentation in the class should be preceded by proper preparation and planning. In order to succeed in achieving his/her objectives, he believed, a teacher should make his/her concepts clear about a topic, maintaining that:

you know it comes with exposure and you can expose yourself to new/fresh books. Sometimes you feel that I know this topic and have good command on it but you know so many new changes come with the passage of time. By studying new books and materials we get new concepts about a topic. I've to work more and more for a topic and I've to make myself clear then I plan as how to proceed/introduce with this topic in the class. Sometimes we introduce it directly and sometimes we introduce it indirectly in the class. So preparation is necessary, planning is necessary and we should be very clear as how a topic should be presented in the class (ZI.1)

This implies Zarfan wanted to keep himself well-informed about the latest trends and developments in his professional field, as he appeared open to learn from materials whichever sources they came from. This, he seemed to believe, was a prerequisite to improve his planning and materials presentation in the class. His liberal approach to materials including his openness to learning as well as his belief in the significance of planning and presentation suggests that, very similar to Raheem, Zarfan appeared to follow a curriculum-development approach (Shawer, 2010).

Interview data suggested that Zarfan's cognition about teaching materials was linked with his other cognitions i.e., effective teaching. Explaining as to what are the essential elements of effective teaching, Zarfan commented that:

First I think the teacher should do a lot of reading, should go for different kinds of sources... I mean he should've fresh knowledge about the topic/subject he's going to present in the class... At the same time we should involve students in activities in the classroom. We should not make them just listen to us. We should invite their ideas and whatever knowledge they have about a particular topic which we have to present. We should give confidence to students that they too are something. It (teaching) should be a two-way process. This is how I think we can make it effective (ZI.2)

This suggests that Zarfan argued effective teaching requires creating a democratic class in which the teacher should have an updated knowledge from different sources and giving students a sense of ownership in their learning, by inviting their ideas, giving them confidence and engaging them in activities. It also implies that, like his other two colleagues (i.e. Maria and Raheem), Zarfan appears to be advancing an argument for engaging students affectively and cognitively in the learning process through different types of materials, as Tomlinson (1998) and Crawford (2002) recommend.

Further, his cognitions about teaching materials appeared to be closely linked with his communicative orientation to language teaching, including his role as a teacher, as he reportedly used to tell his students that "...a teacher is just like a guide and I'm your guide. I'm just a facilitator and I can recommend good books and sources to you ... a teacher is a good friend of his/her students" (ZI.2). His approach to teaching materials was liberal in the sense that he believed:

[a teacher] should assign a task to the students, a kind of small activity and tell them that you can consult other sources including recommending some websites and when they come tomorrow you ask them to present that topic. It is possible that the students explain and present the topic in a way which the teacher couldn't. They may make it easy or may present it in a different way. It proves a sort of help for the teacher as well as students (ZI.2)

The way Zarfan made a liberal use of materials to engage students in purposeful language use has been recommended in the literature (Crawford, 2002). He appeared to help learners develop independent learning routines.

Observation data related to Zarfan revealed a good degree of fit between his idealized and situated cognitions. His three classroom observations revealed he, like Maria and Raheem who also used various types of materials, made a liberal use of teaching materials from different sources including paintings and the internet to supplement his lectures from the recommended books. While teaching *Phonetics and Phonology* to BS English-III class, for example, he appeared to be giving exposure to students about the native English-speaker accent, pronunciation and intonation (ZO.1). Accordingly, he played a couple of videos of the native English speaker/s, on his laptop for the students, which he seemed to have downloaded from You Tube and an English movie. After the students carefully watched and listened to the videos for almost five minute each, Zarfan elicited their responses related to the target features i.e., native English-speaker accent, pronunciation and intonation and subsequently the whole class discussion followed.

Through materials exploitation like this, Zarfan seemed to arouse the students' interest and curiosity (Tomlinson, 1998), increase their participation while listening to the videos (White, 1998), engage them cognitively and affectively with audio visual (Crawford, 2002; Tomlinson, 2003), and to enhance their motivation through technology-driven authentic materials (Hargreaves, 1994). This reminds us of Maria as well as a teacher called Doreen in

Mangubhai et al (2004). The latter used to bring special resources for her CLT classroom, including a native German to deliver a talk.

Zarfan's observations also revealed him eliciting students' responses on different paintings, which he had brought from the Department of Fine Arts, which was located on the upper floor in the same building (ZO.2). Through his initial comments on the paintings, Zarfan appeared to encourage and stimulate the students for critical thinking (Glaser, 1941). In one of the paintings he presented in the class, for example, a lady is shown to be cooking something in the open field with a child standing behind wiping her tears. This painting generated a very interesting discussion in the class, as some of the students commented that the child was wiping her mother's tears after her father had beaten her up, while other students responded that the child was doing it because of the smoke getting into her mother's eyes.

Such visual materials lead to students' cognitive and affective involvement (Crawford, 2002), as well as maximize their learning potential by encouraging their intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement which stimulates both right- and left-brain activities (Tomlinson, 1998). Similarly, his teaching *Discourse Analysis* to MA English-IV, revealed him asking the students to come up with examples of *Locutionary, Illocutionary and Perlocutionary acts* (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969) from their day-to-day life, on which he first generated a group discussion in the class and, later on, based on the same examples, engaged the students in role plays (ZO.3). Most of the students seemed excited to participate in the role plays, though, initially some of them appeared reluctant for such performances. Two students in one role play, for example, in which one playing the role of a customer and the other of a fruit vendor, highlighted the illocutionary and perlocutionary acts by engaging in the following brief conversation:

Students' Role Play:

| | | |
|----------|---|--------------------------|
| 1 | Customer: what's the apple's price? | Locutionay Act |
| 2 | (1) Vendor: It's 120 rupees for one kilo, sir. | Locutionary Act |
| 3 | (2) Customer (carefully looking at apples): isn't it too much? | Illocutionary Act |
| 4 | (3) Vendor (with artificial smile): No sir, look at the | Illocutionary Act |

| | | |
|---|---|---------------------------|
| | quality, it deserves this much. | |
| 5 | (4) Customer (hmm...thinking): Ok, I'll give 100 for it? | Illocutionary Act |
| 6 | Vendor (looks irritated): No sir, I've got others (apples) for 80 rupees a kilo. Would you like to buy them? | Illocutionary Act |
| 7 | (5) Customer (pretends to be in hurry): I'm getting late...take 110 and give me two kilos. | Illocutionary Act |
| 8 | (6) Vendor (seems to oblige the customer): Ok sir, if it pleases you. | Perlocutionary Act |

(ZO.3)

Explaining his knowledge and expertise of materials development and presentation, Zarfán cited the influence of in-service top-down CPD trainings on his cognition, particularly the one on *Materials Design and Use*, which he had attended in the earlier phases of his career. As a result of this training, he had acquired new knowledge “about pedagogy, about the art of designing, selecting, adapting and teaching materials and about the benefits of student-centred activities in the class”, as he explained (ZSR.3). After this training, he maintained, he found himself “a changed person” and realized that good teaching “requires a good understanding about how various types of materials might be exploited to expose students to a wide range of language learning experiences” (ZSR.3). This implies he had developed away from his previous approach to materials i.e., transmission, and his strong acknowledgement of the professional growth he had acquired. Very similar to Raheem, Zarfán had realized he had discovered a ‘better way’ of ‘doing’ thing” (p. 187).

Zarfán also explained that any planning of materials presentation should take into account the issue of “what and how materials should be presented” in the class (ZSR.1). He maintained that before embarking upon teaching, a teacher should make sure that the materials he is teaching are relevant, appropriate and corresponds with the aims and objectives of the course, as Tomlinson (1998) proposes. In order to make materials student-friendly, he added, a teacher should activate the students’ schemata (Crawford, 2002) by linking it with other materials which the students have previously encountered. He exemplified below:

if you have to present a poem so you can present another poem to students with which students are already familiar and read it out to the students and later on you bring the target poem which is to be presented in the class. It makes a kind of background to the poem; there may be some similarities in both the poems. In this way they become encouraged that they already know something which is very much related to their poem or the topic. So this is what we do most of the time in the class (ZSR.2)

This implies Zarfán believed not only in activating students' schemata but also making materials relevant, interesting and contextual with a view to make it more student-friendly (Tomlinson, 1998). Such strategies when applied for presenting materials in the class facilitate learners' comprehension and enhance their confidence level (Crawford, 2002).

Surprisingly, and as against his professed communicative orientation to language teaching, Zarfán preferred teaching grammar explicitly. Reflecting this belief, he commented that:

When we teach grammar as a subject then we follow some prescribed syllabus and follow certain recommended books. When we teach it as a subject then I think we need to teach it as grammar and tell the students about the structures. For example, if we teach tenses then we tell students about the structure of that tense and how that structure is used in different senses for different meanings. In our background I think grammar is taught as a subject (ZI.3)

This suggests that, in the Pakistani ESL context, the practices of grammar teaching appear to be deductive, which mostly focus on the structure and explicit rules without being contextualised.

To summarise, Zarfán's idealized cognitions revealed he supported using materials from multiple sources including textbooks, paintings and the Internet. His classroom observations appeared to confirm there was harmony between his idealized and situated cognitions. Explaining this, Zarfán referred to the influence of in-service top-down CPD trainings on cognitions and behaviour. This is encouraging as this evidence suggests that professional interventions, such as in-service top-down CPD trainings, can make a difference in teachers' professional lives. This also implies that more such in-service trainings should be offered to teachers, particularly to novices, so that they can be supported as how to develop, adapt and exploit various types of materials in the class.

5.2.4. Sana

The fourth teacher, Sana, was a young lecturer in her mid-twenties and less experienced than most of her colleagues. However, she appeared intelligent, passionate and professionally a promising teacher. In interview, Sana presented perhaps conflicting views about textbooks. On one hand, she appeared to believe that the textbooks are an indispensable part of teaching-learning process. This was reflected when she commented that:

Textbooks are very much important and I always tell my students to make sure they've got them (textbooks) prior to the lecture. Textbooks must be there and students must go through them. During class activity focus must be more and more on textbook (SI.1)

On the other hand, she reported that classroom activities must be based on “the critical analysis or the general commentary of the textbooks”, maintaining that:

You shouldn't wholly solely depend on the text. You should ask your students to go through the text and then ask questions in that so that you make sure that yes they've gone through the text (SI.1)

This suggests that, like her other two colleagues (i.e. Raheem and Zarfan), Sana also appeared to believe in a curriculum-development approach. Elaborating this belief in favour of resources other than the textbook, Sana maintained that teachers should use various resources and state-of-the-art facilities like the internet, multimedia, CDs, pictures and audio-visual resources. She believed that:

So far these technological resources are concerned we sometimes make use of the visual resources like if some pictures are needed but not always . . . sometimes multimedia because I think it's very much useful in the language learning process/classes . . . hand outs in order to facilitate students and that they may not miss something (SI.1)

The purpose of exploiting resources other than the textbook including technology-oriented and other audio-visual resources should aim at facilitating students in their language learning process, Sana indicated. She seemed to share the view of Hargreaves (1994) that technology-driven authentic materials has positive influence on students and their motivation.

Despite articulating a belief in facilitating students through a range of materials input, Sana demonstrated her awareness of students' natural tendency to get hold of ready-made materials. Nevertheless, just like Maria and Zarfan, Sana believed that “students should be

trained to use extra learning sources so that they could get a rich and varied exposure to the TL” (SI.3). She appeared to advance the argument that, for materials to be effective, they should expose students to realistic and authentic use of the TL e.g., offering them opportunities to make use of the TL for communicative purposes (Crawford, 2002; Tomlinson, 1998).

Interview data suggested Sana’s cognition about teaching materials appeared to have been affected by her other cognitions i.e., the role of the English teacher. She believed, for example, that English teachers are more resourceful and creative, as she, while drawing a comparison between teachers of English and other subjects, maintained that:

the role of English teachers is distinct as they are more practical; they can involve students in practical activities and can make their teaching more interesting and full of fun by relating materials to their experiences (SI.2)

This implies that, like her other three colleagues (i.e. Maria, Raheem and Zarfan), Sana believed that English teachers should bring in more to the classroom than just textbooks to engage, fascinate and motivate students. This belief was also evident in her comments related to instructional objectives. While explaining her strategy in case she failed to achieve her objectives, Sana reported:

When I find that the lecture has proved a complete failure ... I can adopt another teaching methodology, I can change my teaching approach, and I can change the materials I’ve given to them. I can adopt an easier approach and provide them with much interesting materials so that they can find it easy to understand. So we can always compensate for our failures and can achieve our goals and the whole teaching process can be revised (SI. 3)

This suggests that Sana appeared to have a good understanding of how to adapt and make materials and methodology more relevant for her context and students, as her comments above indicate. Like good teachers, she seemed to believe that the maximum harmony between materials, methodology, learners and the teacher’s teaching style requires ways of personalising, individualizing, localising and modernising materials, as Tomlinson (2012) recommends.

Nevertheless, observations related to Sana revealed her situated cognitions did not appear to match her idealized cognitions, elicited two weeks prior to her first observation, as she closely followed the textbooks in her classes. This suggests a gap, as she appeared to follow a

curriculum-transmission approach, unlike her idealized cognitions supporting a curriculum-development approach. Here, Sana's case stands in contrast to her other three colleagues (i.e. Maria, Raheem and Zarfan), whose classroom practices were largely found compatible with their idealized cognitions, as they appeared to follow curriculum-making (Maria) and curriculum-development approaches (Raheem and Zarfan). However, it should not necessarily be surprising that there was gap between her idealized and situated cognitions as it is not always possible to claim direct relationships, as Burns et al (2015) argue. Sana's three classroom observations revealed her heavy reliance on textbooks materials; although on one occasion she departed from the textbook to some extent when she was teaching a topic on how to develop a set of vocabulary through reading a related short story. In the *Communication Skills* class to the BS-III, for example, her whole lesson on *Seven C's of Communication* (Completeness, Conciseness, Consideration, Concreteness, Clarity, Courtesy and Correctness) appeared to be book-based. In line with a curriculum-transmission approach, she wrote the main topics and sub-topics on the whiteboard from one of the recommended books (i.e., *Effective Business Communication*, written by Murphy & Hildebrandt); though there were few other recommended sources available to her for the same course (SO.1). Even the strategies she discussed for developing the seven C's came from the same book, with examples which did not seem to be contextually tailored and appropriate.

When the gap between her cognitions and classroom practices was pointed out to her during the stimulated recall interviews, Sana indicated that various contextual factors made it challenging for her to make use of teaching materials outside the textbooks in the class, despite her strong wish to do so (SSR.1). Regarding her heavy reliance on the recommended books discussed above, Sana explained she preferred them over other recommended sources because she thought they were comprehensive and student friendly (SSR.1). She also seemed to prefer Murphy & Hildebrandt's book for providing well presented strategies and checklists at the end of each chapter.

However, on one occasion, she was found departing from the textbook when teaching a topic on *Developing a Set of Vocabulary* through reading a short story (SO.3). After distributing handouts among the students, Sana asked them to read the story for 20 minutes and to underline the words they find difficult. After doing their reading, Sana invited the whole class

discussion on what the story was about and motivated them to do their guess work to comprehend meanings of the difficult words from the context. In the end, Sana explained those difficult words on whiteboard and the students noted them in their notebooks. Here, Sana appears similar to Raheem who also exploited a short story handout to teach the students paragraph writing. However, unlike Raheem who made a sufficient use of materials outside the textbooks, Sana's three classroom observations offer this as the only example, as she appeared to closely follow the textbooks i.e., a curriculum-transmission approach. Sana's case is similar to the teachers reported by Chandran (2003) and Richards & Mahoney (1996) who followed the textbooks closely occasionally departing from them.

Interview data also revealed that, like Maria and Zarfan who also believed in the CLT approach, Sana appeared to believe in the communicative orientation to language teaching and learning as she imagined herself "to be a facilitator in terms of solving students' problems relevant to the subject matter and any other problems that they may have" (SI.2). Reflecting this emphatically, she maintained that some marks should be reserved for practical activities to serve the purpose of making our students effective in communication skills. In line with her communicative orientation to language teaching, she also reported following an inductive approach to grammar teaching. She commented that:

At this level I won't say that we need to teach it explicitly. When students come to the department for learning English language they already have good command on the structural side of English language, they know about the basic grammatical structure. A few complicated things when we encounter we write them on the whiteboard and explain it to students. So sometimes we use it explicitly but for the most part of the time we teach it implicitly (SI. 2)

However, contrary to her idealized cognitions supporting a communicative approach to language teaching and inductive grammar teaching, Sana's classroom observations presented a different picture. Her classes on the *Functional English*, for example, demonstrated she heavily relied on one of the recommended books, *High School English Grammar and Composition*, written by Wren & Martin (SO.2&3). As she followed even the same sequence of contents and examples provided in the book, Sana appeared to teach grammar explicitly with a clear focus on form rather than meaning while teaching *Adverb and its Kinds* (SO.2). Like her *Communication Skills* class, discussed above, she was observed spending most of her class time on explaining grammar rules and providing examples, with little efforts on her part

to contextualise the language and engage the students in class proceeding. This suggests Sana's use of the textbook appeared to demonstrate her teaching limited and inadequate language points as well as offering them insufficient language experience (Tomlinson, 2001), in line with a curriculum-transmission approach.

Explaining the gap between her idealized and situated cognitions during the stimulated recall interviews, Sana indicated a range of contextual factors which seriously challenged her classroom practice. These included, for example, time shortage, heavy workload, lack of students' English proficiency, examination requirement, large classrooms and her frequent mobility to different departments/institutes for her classes within the university. The influence of such contextual factors on teachers' decisions to follow textbooks closely has been reported in the previous literature (Kuzborska, 2011). For example, the teachers' decisions in Kuzborska's (2011) study, to follow a curriculum-transmission approach, was significantly shaped by a range of contextual factors including their lack of training, time and expertise in materials design and use, as well as their constant migration to different faculties, which made it very challenging for them to develop their own or experiment with given materials.

With regard to students' low proficiency level as a contextual factor, Sana's explanation suggests there might exist a positive correlation between her judgment of the students' English language proficiency level and her reliance on the textbooks, a finding highlighted by Lee & Bathmaker (2007) in their study of teachers' beliefs in the use of English textbooks.

However, it is interesting to note that Sana's explanation during the stimulated recall interviews revealed she was aware of her professional challenges and wanted to attend few professional development courses particularly with respect to pedagogical skills and materials development. Articulating this, she commented that:

My students accept one method for one topic but then prefer another method for another topic. Much depends upon the human element attached with teacher. I mean that if there's monotony in a teacher's lecture then that's a problem. And I really want myself to be really dynamic in my pedagogic techniques, teaching methodologies and materials use so that I can cater to the demands and needs of my students (SSR. 2)

This suggests Sana was aware that teaching method/s and materials should be tailored according to the nature and requirement of a topic. In a similar vein, articulating her strong

desire to be trained on how to develop or adapt various types of teaching materials, she maintained:

I wish to attend a training session on materials development to learn how different types of materials are used and exploited in the classroom. It would be better I think if the university or the HEC arrange such training sessions to help develop our skills in this area (SSR. 2)

Such a desire articulated by language teachers, particularly the novices like Sana, to be offered a sense of how teaching materials might be developed or adapted is not something new and has been reported previously in the literature (Stillwell et al., 2010).

To summarise, Sana's idealized cognitions regarding teaching materials supported using a variety of materials to offer students a varied and comprehensible input. However, her situated cognitions appeared to reveal her close reliance on textbook. Her observations also revealed that, contrary to her reported claims, she did not appear to engage students in class activities and to contextualise the language as well as to teach grammar inductively. This shows gap between her idealized and situated cognitions, as she appeared to follow a curriculum-transmission approach (Shawer, 2010), unlike her reported beliefs supporting a curriculum-development approach (Shawer, 2010). However, she explained various contextual factors seriously challenged her efforts to translate her idealized cognitions into her classroom practices. This implies that compared to her more experienced counterparts, like Raheem and Zarfan, Sana is more likely to be hampered by such contextual factors. Accordingly, this suggests such teachers need to be offered in-service top-down CPD trainings as well as informal bottom-up trainings to support them transfer their idealized cognitions into their classroom practices, a need even Sana wished to be addressed.

5.3. Discussion

5.3.1. What might be the teachers' idealized cognitions with regard to teaching materials?

It is evident from the interview data presented above that Maria supported a curriculum-making approach, which is consistent with the three curriculum-makers described by Shawer (2010). The remaining three teachers (Raheem, Sana and Zarfan) demonstrated idealized

cognitions illustrated in the curriculum-development approach found by Shaver (2010) in five teachers.

Maria's cognition with regard to textbook i.e., a source of comfort and protection for students in the Pakistani context lends support to those who argue that textbooks provide a cost-effective means of offering the learners security, system, progress and revision (Tomlinson, 2012). Some of the strategies which Maria reportedly used to implement curriculum in her classroom find parallel in the literature. For example, conducting needs assessment of students, employing non-use of textbook strategy and her practice of not following the official curriculum with regard to sequence of contents are features which remind us of the three curriculum-makers in Shaver (2010). That she did not follow the official curriculum makes her stand against the two teachers in Kuzborska (2011) who followed commercial textbooks; although they were officially required to create their own materials to support students. Her preference for using natural and authentic materials to change the curriculum focus makes her similar to the five curriculum-developers in Shaver (2010). Her reportedly drawing materials from the local sources to engage her students both affectively and cognitively has been proposed by both Crawford (2002) and Tomlinson (1998). Some of the strategies Maria reportedly employed i.e., personalising, individualising, and localising materials appeared to be aimed at achieving congruence between materials, methodology, learners and objectives (Tomlinson, 2012). The significance of such a natural and authentic use of materials has been reported in the earlier literature (Mangubhai et al., 2004; Shaver, 2010; Tomlinson, 2003; Wyatt, 2011; Zacharias, 2005). Similarly, her preference for internationally-published materials, specifically from the English speaking countries, over the locally produced materials, is similar to the sample of 13 teachers in Zacharias' (2005) study who too had reported a clear preference for internationally published materials.

Raheem, like teachers in the previous research (e.g. Kuzborska, 2011), appeared to believe in the absolute authority of the textbook, or as in Harwood's (2004) words, with "officially sanctioned knowledge because it is a commercial product, meaning that learners (and some teachers) accept its claims unconditionally" (p. 3). Nevertheless, his preference for the textbook materials was linked with students' assessment, as is cited by teachers in the previous literature (Chandran, 2003; Kiai, 2012; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007; Pelly & Allison,

2000). Interestingly, such an influence of assessment over students' textbook orientation was also articulated by Maria, though, unlike Raheem, she believed in taking students out of their comfort zone. However, as part of his idealized cognitions, Raheem also believed in exploiting materials from other sources to enhance students' interest and motivation. This is similar to the teacher in Wyatt's (2011) study who reported that motivation was necessary to enhance learners' language learning and felt confident to do it through appropriate use of materials. Another prominent feature of Raheem's idealized cognitions was the influence of his PLLEs on his cognition about materials. Since his own teachers used to teach out-of-context, he believed materials should be contextualised (Tomlinson, 1998). Thus he seems to support the argument for materials evaluation which considers local criteria i.e. learners' contextual profile (Tomlinson, 2003).

Sana's case, as her initial comments reveal, comes closer to Raheem with regard to the significant value she attached with textbooks. However, their cases stand in sharp contrast as they unveil their idealized cognitions further with regard to the use of other resources. While Sana reported predominantly using technological-based resources including the Internet and multimedia, Raheem preferred relying on extra books. It is worth emphasizing that Raheem thought textbooks are credible and "more reliable" as compared to materials on the Internet. Unlike Raheem, Sana appears to believe in technology-driven materials for affective engagement of students (Tomlinson, 2003). Sana's case comes closer to Maria too in terms of their awareness about students' textbooks orientation. They reported textbook is "a source of comfort and protection" (Maria) for students and thus it is natural for them to get hold of some ready-made materials (Sana). Interestingly, both of them offered cognitions with almost a similar response to address this issue. While Maria proposes taking students out of their comfort zone, Sana prefers training them to use extra resources in order to get maximum exposure to the TL.

The fourth teacher, Zarfan, was cognizant of the fact that textbooks are vital and the major teaching resources in the Pakistani context. However, he reported using other resources too including new books and charts. Here Zarfan's case comes closer to Raheem rather than Sana. Unlike Sana who believed in technology-driven materials, Zarfan believed in using new books and argued a teacher should do a lot of reading to make his/her teaching effective.

Similarly, in sharp contrast to Sana, Zarfan believed in using a deductive approach to grammar teaching. Despite espousing a communicative orientation to language teaching, Zarfan reportedly taught grammar with an explicit focus on structure and rules. Such a preference for explicit grammar instruction was also reported by CELTA-type trainees in Watkins & Wyatt's (2015) study. However, Zarfan and Sana's cases share some similarities as they unpacked their idealized cognitions further. This is evident as they articulated their cognitions in response to the issues of failure in achieving instructional objectives. While Zarfan believed in repeating topics with new preparation and planning, Sana believed in revising the whole teaching process including teaching approach and materials. Their interview data suggest that, similar to the five curriculum-developers in Shaver's (2010) study, both these teachers employed curriculum planning i.e. thinking about their students, materials and activities while planning lessons and curriculum-experimentation strategies i.e. how to respond if some ideas have not worked.

The common feature among these teachers, as far as their idealized cognitions are concerned, is that three teachers (Maria, Sana and Zarfan) and Raheem to lesser degree, supported the use of materials from a range of sources to make their students' learning rich and meaningful; though they revealed an awareness of the significant influence of textbooks in the Pakistani context. All the four teachers believed in providing multi-source input to students, as was believed by the curriculum-developers and the curriculum-makers in Shaver's (2010) study. Another common feature among these teachers is that their idealized cognitions regarding materials were linked, either directly or indirectly, to their communicative orientation to language teaching; although they varied within this. Sana's case, for example, emerges more emphatically as she believed some marks should be reserved for practical activities to serve the purpose of making our students effective in communication. Such a use of materials exposing students to language in authentic use as well as offering them with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes has been recommended in the literature (Tomlinson, 1998).

Idealized cognitions, elicited through questionnaires and interviews, might provide insights into the inner workings of teachers' minds. However, in the absence of an observational element, it is hard to know how far teachers' idealized cognitions are translated into actual

classroom practices. The impact of research methodology is evident in Walsh & Wyatt's (2014) and Richard & Mahoney's (1996) studies.

To conclude, the idealized cognitions of three teachers (Raheem, Sana and Zarfan) appeared to support a curriculum-development approach, although they varied within this. The idealized cognition of the fourth teacher (Maria) seemed to support a curriculum-making approach. The general picture which emerged from their interview data is that all the four teachers believed that the teacher needs to offer multi-source of input-materials to learners in the class so as to make their language learning experience rich and varied.

5.3.2. If there are any gaps between their idealized and situated cognitions, what are the characteristics of these?

These four teachers present different cases in terms of the presence or absence of gaps between their idealized and situated cognitions. Their different cases can easily be classified under the three curriculum approaches i.e. curriculum-transmission, development and making, as is reported in the previous literature (Shawer, 2010; Snyder et al., 1992). Observational data related to Raheem and Zarfan confirmed a fit between their idealized and situated cognitions as they followed a curriculum-development approach. Maria's observations, too, revealed a match between her idealized and situated cognitions as she followed a curriculum-making approach. However, Sana's classroom observations revealed there was a mismatch between her idealized and situated cognitions as she followed a curriculum-transmission approach while reporting a belief in curriculum-development approach.

Maria's case resembles the three curriculum-makers in Shawer's (2010) study. Like these curriculum-makers, she regularly conducted needs assessment of her students so as to plan and develop her curriculum accordingly. Other prominent features making her a curriculum-maker included a non-use of textbook strategy, her use of technology, self-prepared materials and worksheets, authentic and internationally-published materials. Maria's similarity with the curriculum-makers in Shawer's (2010) study is reinforced due to her use of some macro- and micro-strategies to implement curriculum in the class. Her macro-strategies, for example, included curriculum-planning as she thought about students, materials development and arranging activities to suit her learners. She used materials evaluation criteria (taking students'

interest and prior learning into consideration) and adaptation (with regard to developing students' speaking and reading skills) strategies before teaching the curriculum. Similarly her materials-designing, writing and supplementation strategies enabled her to use her own prepared worksheets and materials, some posters and worksheets with diagrams.

Through her materials adaptation and supplementation strategy she offered examples of English as well as some local languages like Pashto, Hinko in sociolinguistics class. Such attempts by teacher to adapt and modify materials to suit his/her contexts are meant to attain maximum harmony between teaching materials, methodology, students, objectives, the target language and his/her personality and teaching style, as Tomlinson (2012) recommends. To bring in such a harmony, Maria used different techniques to personalise, individualise, localise and modernise materials in the class.

She used curriculum-planning skills (determining which topics to be taught earlier than others i.e. planning about order of content/topics) and curriculum-experimentation strategies i.e. how students reacted to particular topics previously. She adapted curriculum topics and heavily supplemented i.e. she taught many things which were not part of the syllabus and used authentic materials and videos.

She used materials design and writing strategies as she created materials with her particular group of students in mind. She adopted a non-use of textbook strategy as she did not teach a single topic entirely from one of the recommended sources. For teaching a lesson she relied on curriculum, curriculum-planning and curriculum-supplementation strategies. For example, for teaching American and British English, she distributed her self-prepared handouts and played a video recording. Her micro strategies included providing multi-source input to her students including technology use, internet-based materials, task and activities and video.

Maria appeared to demonstrate a good understanding of the design and development of materials as she adopted curriculum-evaluation, adaptation, supplementation and planning strategies. She differs from the teachers in Kuzborska's (2011) and Aftab's (2012) studies who had inadequate comprehension about language learning theories and materials. Through evaluation criteria, for example, she modified and adapted materials to suit her learners, like

the teachers reported in previous studies (Gray, 2000; Kuzborska, 2011; Wyatt, 2011; Zacharias, 2005).

Raheem and Zarfan's case brings them closer to the five curriculum-developers in Shaver's (2010) study, as both of them used a good deal of materials from different sources in the class, including the internet, textbook, newspapers (Raheem's case) and paintings and videos (Zarfan's case), to facilitate students' comprehension. Even some of the strategies (both macro and micro) they used to implement curriculum in their classes appeared similar to the curriculum-developers in Shaver's (2010) study. For example, one of their macro strategies was curriculum-change through which they transformed the paper/official curriculum to suit their context and learners e.g. using authentic materials, internet-based materials, paintings and newspapers to change the curriculum focus. They also used materials evaluation strategy as they developed and adapted materials after making sure they suit their learners.

Curriculum-development was another macro-strategy they employed as they went outside the textbooks to explain a topic. Through their curriculum-planning strategy, they thought about students during lesson planning, materials development and classroom activities. Other macro strategies which they used were curriculum-expansion, adaptation and supplementation, as followed by the teachers in Torres's (1994) study. Zarfan, in particular, employed curriculum-experimentation strategy like action research (so that if something did not go well with students they can be changed or removed). He adapted difficult content and looked for if anything important for his students was missing. Generally, both used strategies like curriculum-design, materials-writing, curriculum-expansion, adaptation and supplementing to ensure that they interest their students. They also used materials evaluation to make sure if they are well-suited to students. Such a concern for students which dictates teachers' choices of materials has already been reported in previous literature (Kuzborska, 2011).

They also used some micro- strategies to develop curriculum and put their macro-strategies into practice. For example, both of them offered multi-source of input to students including the textbook. However, their textbook use was limited and it was mainly used to get guidance for a lesson and provide a framework or structure for their lessons. Even their observations revealed they did not follow the order of content in the textbook or syllabus.

Zarfan's use of video as a materials source to expose his students to native speaker accents, pronunciation and intonation reminds us of a teacher, called Doreen, in Mangubhai et al's (2004) study who used to bring special resources for her CLT classroom, including a native German to deliver a talk. Similarly, the way Zarfan challenged his students, by asking them to bring in examples of *Locutionary, Illocutionary and Perlocutionary acts*, on which they first generated a group discussion in the class and later on, based on the same examples, engaged the students in role plays reminds us of the Indonesian teacher in Tomlinson's (2003) study who challenged her students in almost a similar way.

Unlike the other three teachers, Sana's case presents an apparent gap between her idealized and situated cognitions. Such a gap between teachers' idealized and situated cognitions has also been reported by Walsh & Wyatt (2014) and Richards & Mahoney (1996) in their studies. Like Caroline in Walsh and Wyatt's study, Sana's idealized cognitions supported curriculum-development approach as against her situated cognitions which seemed to indicate her following a curriculum-transmission approach. As in Caroline's case, Sana's classes were also characterized by an explicit teaching of grammar with a focus on form rather than meaning, very limited student participation and a de-contextualised use of language.

While the observational data related to the teachers in Richards & Mahoney's (1996) study confirmed their critical departure from textbook, appearing to support the teachers' curriculum-development approach, as against their idealized cognitions which had supported a curriculum-transmission approach, Sana's observations confirmed her almost complete reliance on textbook, as against her idealized cognitions through which she had supported the significance of offering materials to students from multiple sources. Sana's case is similar to 65% of the teachers in a British Council survey (2008) and 92% of the teachers in Tomlinson's (2010) study who used a coursebook regularly although 78% of them had negative views about those books. Like the curriculum-transmitters, both in Sanchez's (2010) and Shaver's (2010) studies, Sana's observations revealed she followed the syllabus (prescribed textbooks) and maintained sequence of the topics and sub-topics. Similarly, her grammar teaching was based on explanations and examples which were not appropriate to the context as she could have used more meaningful and contextualised examples. This heavy reliance on the same source made her textbook use up to almost 90%.

However, while there was no mismatch between the idealized and situated cognitions of two curriculum-transmitters in Shaver's (2010) study, the case of teachers in Sanchez's (2010) study presents a mismatch as their situated cognitions did not reflect their idealized cognitions. Sana's case, therefore, comes closer to Emma and Sophia in Sanchez's (2010) study, as against the two curriculum-transmitters in Shaver's (2010) study. Her case also reveals that textbook materials represent a crucial contextual factor which determined the nature of her grammar teaching practices, a similar conclusion is drawn by Sanchez (2010). Hence, textbook was found to be the only source which constituted the legitimate curriculum of her class, as Guerrettaz & Johnston's (2013) study concludes.

To conclude, the observational data pertaining to these four teachers demonstrated there was a clear gap between the idealized and situated cognitions of only one teacher. With regard to the other three teachers, their situated cognitions were found to be consistent with their idealized cognitions. Moreover, observational data revealed these teachers followed three different approaches to curriculum i.e. making, developing and transmission as has been reported in the previous literature.

5.3.3. **How can gaps between idealized and situated cognitions be explained?**

Data from the stimulated recall discussions help offer insights into possible underlying reasons for the gaps identified.

Some of the challenges Maria's encountered while implementing the curriculum, particularly those related to time shortage and students' textbooks orientation, have been reported by teachers in Kuzborska's (2011) and Kiai's (2012) studies. However, unlike the teachers in these studies, she showed resistance to all such odds and continued her struggle to create awareness among her students and motivate them for independent learning. The way Maria dropped or adapted materials has already been highlighted by Gray's (2000) study in which teachers censored or adapted the cultural contents they felt uncomfortable with or thought not suitable for their students.

Given the challenges she faced, why then did Maria keep on developing and making curriculum in the class as she did? One possible explanation is her students' positive response and approval. Secondly, even though she was officially not bound to design and develop

materials, she was doing it out of her personal and professional interest, as Tomlinson (2012) highlights. Here Maria's case stands in sharp contrast to the two teachers in Kuzborska's (2011) study, who, although they were officially required to create their own materials to support students in their mainstream classes, taught from commercial textbooks. Thirdly, Maria's teaching experience both at school and university level and her in-service professional trainings might have positive and significant contributions in shaping and maintaining her curriculum-making approach, the kind of impact that has been reported widely in previous literature (Gray, 2000; Kiai, 2012; Shaver, 2010; Tsui, 2003; Wyatt, 2011; Zacharias, 2005).

Raheem's positive response to his students' feedback is the type of behaviour that has been proposed by Crawford (2002) who recommends teaching with materials which means having the freedom to improvise and adapt materials in response to learner feedback. Interestingly, Raheem's planning for tasks and activities in the class is usually associated with non-specialists task designers who follow the same task frame i.e. focusing on issues related to time, group work/pair work, their own role and skills development (e.g. speaking or listening), as is reported by Johnson (2003). However, even though Raheem had got some professional training, it might not have been particularly on designing tasks and activities in the class. His strategy of simplifying and adapting materials for reading comprehension to facilitate his students' reading comprehension has been reported by teachers in Kuzborska's (2011) study. Moreover, teachers' simplifying and adapting materials to facilitate learners in the learning process have frequently appeared in the previous literature (Gray, 2000; Tomlinson, 2012; Wyatt, 2011; Zacharias, 2005).

Owing to their teaching experience and in-service professional trainings, in so far as they could recall it, there is enough evidence that growth had occurred in cases of both Raheem and Zarfana as was the case with teacher in Wyatt's (2011) study. Both Raheem and Zarfana were aware of this growth which had taken place in their cognition and practices and were feeling positive about it. This realization on their part is significant in the sense that it offers insights into how professionals improve their practice through conscious and constant efforts supported by in-service education.

Regarding Raheem, although there was no apparent mismatch between his idealized and situated cognitions i.e. he followed a curriculum-development approach, his idealized cognitions appeared inclined towards textbook-orientation, as his initial interviews suggested. There might be two reasons for this. First, he might simply be a typical representative of the teaching-learning culture in Pakistan in which textbook is treated in a biblical way and hence its authority and authenticity is approved unconditionally (Harwood, 2004). Second, although he was using materials from other different sources, he might have been lacking in confidence about his skills and expertise about materials development which might be attributed to his lack of training on materials evaluation and development.

Sana, while explaining the discrepancies between her idealized and situated cognitions, indicated that various contextual factors made it challenging for her to make use of other teaching materials in the class, despite her wish to do so. These contextual factors included time shortage, heavy workload, lack of students' English proficiency, examination requirement, large classrooms and her mobility to different departments/Institutes for taking classes. The influence of such contextual factors on teachers' decisions to follow textbooks closely has been reported in the previous literature (Kuzborska, 2011). This might also be attributed to her inexperience as young teachers usually find it challenging to cope up with multiple classroom issues, a finding reported in the previous literature (Nunan, 1992). Sana's desire to be offered training in materials development and use finds parallel in the Stillwell et al (2010) in which language teachers, particularly the novices, articulated their wish for such a training. Similarly, the link between her judgment of the students' English proficiency level and the degree of her reliance on the textbooks has been highlighted by Lee & Bathmaker (2007).

To conclude, these teachers, Maria and Sana in particular, faced various contextual factors which challenged them while translating their idealized cognitions into classroom practices. However, while Maria did not succumb to such challenges and continued her efforts to motivate her students for using materials from different sources, Sana seemed to have surrendered which led to the gap between her cognitions and practices, implications of which are discussed below.

5.4. Conclusions

In summary, this chapter has highlighted, like other investigations into teacher cognition and classroom behaviour (Borg, 2006), that an array of contextual factors can help uncover identifiable gaps between teachers' idealized cognitions and their classroom behaviour and justifications for this. Some of the implications regarding the particular focus of this chapter include: firstly, there is an urgent need in Pakistani higher education contexts of offering in-service professional trainings to teachers on materials development and implementation in relation to the three approaches i.e. curriculum-transmission, development and making. This will raise their awareness regarding how various types of materials might be developed, adapted and exploited in the class, as Tomlinson (2012) recommends. Moreover, such trainings should be offered to curriculum designers and textbook writers which would ultimately facilitate English language acquisition in the Pakistani learners, as Aftab (2012) proposes.

Secondly, teachers' involvement in curriculum at the policy level should be ensured to bring about their empowerment, as some recent research suggests (Banegas, 2011; El-Okda, 2005; Kuzborska, 2011; Wyatt, 2011). This means that the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan should initiate this process of creating more spaces for teachers' participation and translate democracy into policies, as Banegas (2011) argues for language teaching educational reforms. At a local level, there could be more sharing and mentoring, which support growth in a teacher like Sana. Thirdly, teachers' participation in curriculum policies requires that teachers need to be professionally prepared for it to offer well-informed opinions which are not only based on their intuitions and practices. The force of such opinions should come from shared practices, organizational projects and up-to-date knowledge of specific pedagogies for the teaching of foreign and second languages, as Banegas (2011) recommends.

Chapter 6. Findings and Discussions (2)

Pakistani university English language teachers' cognitions regarding their use of the learners' L1

6.1. Introduction

In the literature review (Chapter 3, sections 3.4.1), I have introduced Macaro's (2001) framework related to L1 use which identifies three theoretical positions adopted by language teachers. These include the virtual position (using the TL exclusively), the maximal position (using the TL as much as possible, with L1 use viewed prejudicially) and the optimal position (using the L1 purposefully and 'judiciously' for benefit). In the 3.4.4-6, I have demonstrated that language teachers seem to adopt a range of positions towards L1 use. Some seem to use it 'judiciously', carefully attuning this use to their learners' levels (e.g. university/school) and needs, in line with current thinking in second language acquisition research (e.g. Cook, 2007). However, others might seem to over-use it carelessly, use it secretively and fearfully so compromising their sense of identity as teachers, or avoid it entirely for a variety of reasons, e.g. to 'model' TL behaviour, increase the comprehensible input available or conform to mandated educational policy. The studies of Macaro (2001) and McMillan & Turnbull (2009) highlight how different types of experience, of language learning and teaching, and of how extensive this experience is, can impact teacher cognition and behaviour. Interestingly, in Macaro's study, awareness-raising through teacher education may have had less impact, possibly as he was working with pre-service teachers who presumably had considerable theoretical input to filter slowly into their practical knowledge. Teaching can be very challenging at this stage of a career (Berliner, 1988).

None of these studies reveal any evidence of a gap between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour, though teachers clearly experienced tensions, e.g. in Trent's (2013) study, which charted identity shift. This may be because observations were generally used as the basis for subsequent stimulated recall, during which elicited cognitions were based on actual classroom events, which in itself could be a learning experience, as highlighted, in fact, by the teachers in McMillan & Turnbull's (2009) study. In contrast, as indicated above, the studies that did not use observations may have elicited primarily idealized cognitions. Of

course, idealized cognitions may be important to teachers too, even though they may not match their actual classroom behaviour. If teachers believe they should/do teach in one way, but actually teach in another, this may lead to unresolved problems, with learners not reaching their potential and teachers experiencing fear, guilt, alienation, and suffering identity crises or loss of confidence, with consequent implications for educational policy, teacher education and supervision. This suggests studies are required that explore potential gaps.

6.2. Data analysis and findings

The focus of this chapter (teachers' cognitions regarding their use of the learners' L1) has been explored with the help of data related to three teachers. As discussed in chapter 4 (section 4.6), the selection of these three teachers (Hasan, Murad, Waseem, all pseudonyms) was guided by both 'theoretical' and 'purposive' sampling (Silverman, 2009). While the former was used to develop understanding of this particular issue, the latter aimed to ensure the balance, variety of intuitions and individuals.

My research questions (adapted for this particular theme) were as follows:

1. What might be the teachers' idealized cognitions with regard to their use of the learners' L1?
2. If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour, what are the characteristics of these?
3. How can gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour be explained?

I now present findings in relation to each teacher and then discuss them next to the research questions.

6.2.1. Hasan

Hasan, a young lecturer in his late-twenties, seemed a promising, motivated and professionally devoted teacher. One of his colleagues during an informal talk described him as 'a very intelligent and sincere teacher' (field notes). Interview data suggested Hasan believed that English should be the only medium of instruction, in line with his views on

CLT: “a teacher’s job is not to dictate but to guide and facilitate ... to arrange activities in the class ... to involve the students with the target language”; learners actively involved in negotiating meaning should be exposed to English for communicative uses (HI.1).

However, it is interesting that, while Hasan used Urdu before the first observed lesson (to speak to a student who had been ill) (HO.1), he also believed that if the university policy was “to speak English outside class with students, it [could] better the standard of English” (HI.1). Here, Hasan reminds us of Sana who maintained a similar stance while suggesting that some marks should be reserved for practical activities to serve the purpose of making our students effective in English speaking (for details see 5.2.4). This might suggest a gap between Hasan’s idealized cognitions and practices. However, this behaviour was also consistent with his another declared belief, that building students’ confidence by creating a supportive atmosphere and by being ‘lenient’ facilitated learning, hence his tolerance, too, of occasional L1 use from learners (HI.2).

Interview data suggested that Hasan’s cognition regarding students’ learning needs and the affective dimension of their learning experience had been shaped by his prior language learning experiences (PLLEs). Recounting his experience from his own school days, Hasan reported to have had received harsh treatment from uncaring teachers as a language learner i.e. his teachers would punish him for being late as it used to take him two hours to reach his school from his village; resultantly, he was determined the classroom environment should be positive (HI.2). He maintained that:

Sometimes or rather most of the time I would be late and then just out of the fear that the teacher would punish me I would avoid to go to the school the whole day ... sometimes the students who can’t bear a lot of pressure go on the negative side if pressure is mounted on them. So there shouldn’t be a lot of pressure on the students (HI.2)

Such a harsh treatment which Hasan received from some of his teachers had a negative impact on his mind as a young boy e.g. feeling of fear and lack of confidence. Reflecting on such experiences, Hasan reported that:

I remember that I learnt most from those teachers who were friendly, who didn’t terrorize us with punishment and who treated us kindly. So we had enough confidence to ask questions from them, we had enough interest to appear in their classes regularly and to take notes (HI.3)

These early experiences had left deep imprints on young Hasan's mind which later on appeared to shape his cognition that students' learning motivation can be raised if the teacher treats them with compassion and kindness,. This refers to the argument, advanced by Calderhead (1985), that effective teaching requires that teachers should address the affective and emotional aspects of their students' learning. With regard to students' attitude towards English, Hasan believed that they should use the target language and considered it as decisive for students' improvement. He maintained that:

Well, they should've a communicative approach, they should be exposed to the language and they should use it practically ... What I mean to say is that there should be practical communicative situation in which they should use it ... They themselves should be involved in the language; they themselves should come up with linguistic constructions (HI.2)

This suggests that Hasan's espoused belief about the CLT approach had strong impact on his cognition with regard to the use of English language by students. He wanted them to use English for practical communicative purposes which will enable them to develop their own linguistic constructions.

Hasan's three classroom observations revealed he used the TL as the only medium of instruction, in line with the virtual position (Macaro, 2001), the only exception being when he used Urdu to enquire about a student's health before starting the class i.e., 'Umeed hey ab aap ki tabiyyat behtar hey' (Hopefully you're feeling better now) (after a week illness) (HO.1). Interestingly, Hasan reported he knew his students would always appreciate his occasional use of the L1 along with the TL, maintaining he was cognizant of the fact that in Pakistani ESL classroom "the use of the mother tongue by the teacher not only eliminate their sense of alienation but also offers them a sense of ownership in the class proceeding" (HSR.1), demonstrating understanding here of arguments for the optimal position, also advanced by Cook (2007).

However, although Hasan also discouraged student use of Urdu, this was done courteously and sympathetically. For example, in response to a student request in L1(Urdu): 'Sir, kia hum keh sakthe hein keh formative evaluation process-oriented hey aur summative product-oriented hey' (Sir, can we say that formative evaluation is process-oriented and summative is product-oriented), he replied with a friendly smile in English: "yes, but whereas formative

evaluation is concerned with assessing or improving the learning procedures including the teaching-learning activities, summative evaluation is concerned with assessing the final outcomes” (HO.1). He was more tolerant, then, than ‘Jihad’ in Al-Jadidi’s (2009) study, who refused to answer until questions phrased in L1 were reformulated in the TL.

Hasan did, however, also explicitly encourage TL use. For example, during a group activity when some of the students switched to L1 (mainly Pashto) to negotiate among themselves, he intervened and guided them to use English; thus Hasan repeatedly ensured the use of the TL in the class proceedings by offering support to the students whenever he felt they needed it (HO.2). Despite showing understanding of arguments for the optimal position, Hasan nevertheless emphasized that “students need to be encouraged, motivated and inspired to speak English [as this] would ultimately lead to [greater] English proficiency” (HSR.2), and he used this argument to justify adopting a virtual position. Once, though, earlier in his career, he reflected, he had been forced by undergraduate student complaints to make maximal rather than exclusive use of the L1; this demonstrates he could be flexible teaching learners with lower language proficiency. However, in this case, slowly and gradually, like ‘Frank’ in MacMillan and Turnbull (MacMillan & Turnbull, 2009), he had reduced his L1 use. After a couple of months, the students had become accustomed to his exclusive TL use and at the end of the semester some commented favourably on improvements in their English (HSR.1). This experience had thus strengthened his support for the virtual position, although he was also clearly aware of and able to exploit other options.

To summarise, Hasan’s idealized cognitions with regard to the use of L1/TL had been significantly shaped by his cognition about the CLT approach. Accordingly, he believed in using English as the only medium of instruction, in line with the virtual position (Macaro, 2001), and wanted his students should use it for practical communicative purposes even outside the class. Despite articulating awareness about the advantages of L1 use i.e. the optimal position (Macaro, 2001), Hasan insisted that students should be encouraged and motivated to speak English both inside and outside the class. He even wished the university had a mandatory policy of English use on campus to improve students’ English proficiency. His classroom observations revealed there was a match between his idealized and situated cognitions, as he appeared to use only English as the medium of instruction; although, on one

occasion, he also used Urdu to inquire about a student's health. Some of the driving forces behind Hasan's TL use were his cognitions about the CLT approach and the impact of his PLLEs.

6.2.2. Murad

Murad, a young lecturer with seven years' experience, appeared to be conscientious, motivated, and a resourceful professional. In one of the interviews, he indicated wishing "more being a dynamic teacher" (MI.3) which implies he was concerned about developing further. Interview data suggested that Murad believed English teachers should *not* facilitate their learners' understanding by drawing on the L1 (Pashto or Urdu) for translation purposes (MI.1). While justifying this, he recalled an experience of attending a short in-service teacher education course in the USA, when he had been asked to conduct micro-teaching to absolute beginners of Pashto language, using Krashen and Terrell's (1983) *natural approach*.

Suppose I'm teaching them Pashto or Urdu, so I go to the class, and if they are new to the language, I start speaking it and acting it out, like shaking hand with them and not using even a single word of Pashto or Urdu, and not giving them alternative ... so let them think in the target language that what the teacher is trying to do/teach (MI.1)

However, he acknowledged that "it was quite challenging in the first two weeks during which I was feeling a kind of stupid that I'm the one who is speaking all the time and the rest just listen", but that after a month he had noticed the learners' growing familiarity with Pashto. One of the students, while watching a Pashto video clip on the You Tube, could immediately recognize Pashto language and even understood a few words in it, Murad maintained (MI. 1).

Reflecting consistency in his belief regarding TL use, Murad emphasised that the use of TL is essential not only for teacher's instruction or interaction in the class but also that students need to interact among themselves in the class in the TL. Here, Murad appears similar to Hasan who also emphasised on students' engagement with the TL. With regard to student-student interaction, Murad reported that "in a pure language class I'd love to have them even if they (students) say something of their own interest but it should be in the target language" (MI. 2).

Curiously, even though Murad's idealized cognition supported exclusive TL use in the class, in line with the virtual position (Macaro, 2001), his classroom observations appeared to reveal a mismatch between his idealized and situated cognitions. Unlike Hasan who made exclusive TL use, Murad was found using a mixture of TL and L1 in his classes, in line with the maximal position (Macaro, 2001). His three classroom observations revealed that he occasionally used the L1 (mostly Pashto, but sometimes Urdu) in each, one a literature lesson and the other a communication skills class. The main functions of his L1 use appeared to be to consolidate conceptual understanding and to maintain a positive rapport, which relate to two of the three main purposes for using L1 identified by Littlewood & Yu (2009). So, for example, in the literature class, after explaining several lines of Milton i.e., '*who kills a man kills a reasonable creature, God's image; but he who destroys a good book, kills reason itself, kills the image of God, ...*' (Milton's *Areopagitica*, pp. 07) in sometimes simplified English, he switched to Pashto to explain further:

Pa Bible ke wayi che Khudai insaan pa khpal namona ya missal jor kare de, ao pa Quran ke wayi che Khudai insaan dunya ta khpal khaleefa ralegale de. Zaka da yao sari qatal, ya da yao kha kitaab zaya kol daase di laka da tol insaniyat qatal, ya hama wara insaani shaor qatlawal di

(MO. 1)

[According to the Bible, God has created human beings in his own image. And according to the Quran, God has sent human beings as His vicegerent to the world. Therefore, killing a person or a good book is just like killing the entire humanity or killing the wisdom of entire humanity]

This explanation involved him drawing on a range of religious and other socio-cultural resources to help facilitate students' understanding (MO.1). While Murad's use of L1 appeared to clarify the students' concepts, it also appeared to save time.

On another occasion, after first explaining the lines '*good and evil ... grow up together almost inseparably; and the knowledge of good is so involved and interwoven with the knowledge of evil, ...*' (Milton's *Areopagitica*, pp. 19-20; MO.1, 12/11) in English, Murad used the L1 (Urdu) for further clarification.

Achchayi aur burayi es dunya mein saath saath chaltein hein. Achchayi aur buraayi kaa apas mein rishta ya ta'alluq itna gehra aur pecheeda hey keh inka alag alag pehchan karna bahut mushkil hey (MO.1)

[Good and evil go together in this world. The relationship of good and evil is so deep and complex that it's very difficult to recognize one without understanding the other]

When Murad's classroom use of the L1 was highlighted to him during stimulated recall, he made the following claim: "I do it intentionally because of my attachment to my mother tongue (Pashto) and also because sometimes using one word or phrase from Urdu or Pashto helps clarify students' understanding. It also saves time" (MSR.1). This suggests that when he reflected on it he realized that his L1 use was motivated by both the wish to express identity, as with the teachers in Trent's (2013) study, and pragmatic concerns. Regarding the latter, Murad emphasized that he was responding to the students' wants and needs (to hear translations into Urdu or Pashto after getting explanations first in English); he ascribed his behaviour as a response to their demands (MSR.2). Here, Murad stands in sharp contrast to Hasan who, despite showing understanding of the benefits of L1 use, insisted that students should be encouraged and motivated to speak English to improve their proficiency.

Murad's observations also revealed he appeared to use the L1 (mostly Pashto) for his occasional humour and creating a lively environment in the class. In the communication skills class, for example, when two students joined the lesson towards the end, Murad addressed them ironically in Pashto, saying "Wakhti ranaghlai?" (Aren't you early?), after a short pause adding "Zama matlab de da bal class da para" (I mean for the next class). This allowed all the students (who were allowed to use L1 themselves) to laugh (MO.2). Such use of L1 for joking with the students might not be rare. It was also employed by an Indian teacher in Al-Alawi's (2008) study. Murad appeared comfortable in his occasional use of code-switching (10-15% of his teacher talk was in L1), and this seemed to fit easily with his lively classroom persona.

However, while reporting that it was more in the target language that he taught and they (the students) understood, though, Murad maintained that:

It's difficult [for them] to understand initially and to grasp the meaning of the sentences; the problem with them or their attitude is that they want it to be translated into their native language so that they can understand it better (MSR.2)

Again, teachers in Trent's (2013) study made similar claims. However, Murad reiterated his commitment to using the TL and stressed a preference for making maximal use of it, employing simplified English, which was indeed an observed feature of his teaching (MO.1&2), rather than L1 to offer clarification when he could (MSR.2).

Murad's idealized cognitions, therefore, appeared to support the virtual position, seemingly at odds with his practices, for which there may be various reasons. Was the teacher education course too psychologically remote from his teaching context so that the ideas were difficult to apply, particularly since the primary focus in some of his teaching was on content? Or was he simply unaware of his classroom language, as research in other contexts suggests can be the case. Al-Bureikhi's (2008) study of primary school teachers in Oman, for example, does reveal that while a majority of those she *surveyed* offered theoretical support for the virtual position, all those from a similar population she *observed* used some L1, which might be an indicator of disparity. Alternatively, was Murad advancing (consciously or sub-consciously) a politically correct position in line with educational policy or one he felt demonstrated knowledge (albeit dated) of second language acquisition research? It is difficult to entirely rule out any of these possibilities.

To summarise, Murad's idealized cognition supported only the TL use in the class, in line with the virtual position (Macaro, 2001). This was the result of his exposure to public theory on TL use, including Krashen and Terrell's (1983) *natural approach*, during one of his in-service teacher training programmes in the US. Despite demonstrating understanding of the challenges attached to TL use, he insisted students should use English among themselves in the class. However, his classroom behaviours appeared to reveal his idealized and situated cognitions were not in harmony, as he was found using a mixture of TL and L1, in line with the maximal position (Macaro, 2001). Some of the reasons for this disparity included Murad's attachment with his mother tongue (Pashto) i.e. his linguistic identity and pragmatic reasons including students' needs and wants.

6.2.3. **Waseem**

The third teacher, Waseem, was a newly-appointed young lecturer in his early 20s who seemed to be an enthusiastic, hardworking and professionally an ambitious teacher. Interview

data suggested that, like his two other colleagues (Hasan and Murad), Waseem strongly believed in TL use for instructional purposes, in line with the virtual position (Macaro, 2001). In fact, in all the three interviews he emphasized the importance of the teacher's exclusive TL use, arguing, for example, that the teacher's "use of the mother tongue prevents the students' English speaking skills from fully developing" (WI.2). The value which Waseem attached with the target language use in the class was also reflected when he commented on the significance of student-student interaction. He reported:

I believe in maximum student-student interaction and involvement ... along with the teacher's support the students should learn the (target) language through active and independent engagement ... the teacher should create opportunities for students' communication and interaction in the target language (WI.1)

It seems that, although he did not explicitly mention it, Waseem's cognition regarding the TL use was indirectly related to his cognition about the communicative approaches to language teaching. This is evident in the quote above i.e. his emphasis on the teacher creating opportunities for students' interaction and active involvement with the TL. Like Hasan and Murad, Waseem also preferred to have maximum student-student interaction and their engagement with the TL. While commenting on what an effective language teaching environment requires, Waseem further articulated his cognition about the TL use, arguing for "a friendly environment in which English is spoken ... where communication should be in English ... to help the students as well as the teachers" (WI.3). Here, like Hasan who reported similar views, Waseem appears to emphasise on creating friendly environment in the class where speaking English is compulsory to help students develop their English proficiency. Drawing on his idealized cognitions reported so far, Waseem appears to have been a staunch advocate of the 'monolingual principle' (Howatt, 1984).

However, unlike Hasan whose cognitions and practices matched, data related to Waseem's three classroom observations revealed there was a gap between his idealized and situated cognitions. Waseem had much less teaching experience, used the L1 (mostly Urdu) more extensively than Murad throughout the three lessons observed; it accounted for 15-40% of his teacher talk in each lesson, perhaps in line with the optimal position (Macaro, 2001). However, while Murad used the L1 (Pashto) for creating humour and conceptual clarity (Urdu), Waseem used it primarily for 'maintaining a disciplined environment' (Urdu) as well

as for ‘ensuring conceptual understanding’ (Urdu), two of the main functions of L1 use identified by Littlewood & Yu (2009). Regarding the former, he asked students in Urdu at the start of a lesson to re-arrange the chairs as well as to shut the door during the class as students from outside the class were constantly interrupting i.e. either looking for their lectures or asking some students to come out for personal or academic reasons (WO.1).

Similarly, Waseem invariably used Urdu following English when he gave instructions about how to complete activities. This involved him circulating hand outs among the students and asking them to individually identify adjectives in the given sentences (30 sentences) as well as classify them according to their respective classes/kinds (WO.1). He, then, formed pairs of the students, in which one student was supposed to use the underlined adjectives in an Urdu sentence while the other would translate it in English and the order of the students in pairs would reverse for the next adjective.

Urdu was also used to check comprehension. For example, Waseem would ask: “Kia ye clear hey?” (Is it clear?) or “Samajh aagayi?” (Have you understood?) at successive stages of the lesson (WO.2) which suggests some of his L1 use was unnecessary. Like a pre-service teacher of French in Macaro’s (2001) study, he also used L1 to promote “a deeper understanding of semantic and syntactic equivalents” (p. 544). While explaining the nature and role of adjectives, for example, he wrote pairs of sentences on the whiteboard, such as the following, to stimulate awareness of comparative differences:

Presentation to students on the structures of English and Urdu languages

| English | Urdu |
|---|--|
| She is a <i>clever girl</i> | Wo ek <i>chalaak larki</i> hey |
| I don’t like <i>that boy</i> | Mujhe <i>woh larka</i> pasand nahi hey |
| He gave me <i>five mangoes</i> | Os ne mujhe <i>paanch aam</i> diye |
| There is <i>little time</i> for preparation | Tayari keliye <i>kum waqt</i> hey |

(WO.1)

Unlike Murad who used it more, Waseem used Pashto less. The students did gain exposure to it, though, on one occasion, when Waseem took a phone call in the middle of a lesson, interrupting his teaching for a minute or two to chat to a relative in his mother tongue (WO.1).

A different picture emerges in the stimulated recall discussions when Waseem was presented with evidence of his L1 use. He reflected, for example, that the extent of his L1 use was related to the students' academic background (WSR.2), and indeed the lesson in which he used L1 the most (approximately 40%) was to students from a faculty (Management) he regarded as containing students who were relatively weaker in English (WO.1 & WSR.2); his other language classes were with students of Science and English (WO.2&WO.3). He commented further:

Even students' interest, attitudes, aptitudes and motivation are reflected in the class which determines where they come from ... in my view their background matters. You know that almost 95% students to Sociology dept come by chance (WSR. 2)

Explaining further the crucial role of students' academic background, Waseem maintained that "students from the Faculty of Science i.e. Microbiology, Botany, Zoology and Chemistry are the ones who could not get into medical and, therefore, it is their second best choice of career, so students' background matters".

Learners' limited language proficiency has been cited by other academics in the Pakistani context for relying on Urdu rather than English (e.g. de Lotbinière, 2010, 15 June). Waseem, of course, though, was teaching English rather than Physics (even though the expectation is that this should be taught in English at university)! And he was using far more L1 than is often recommended; e.g. by McMillan & Turnbull (2009) who cite Macaro (2005) as suggesting that beyond approximately 15% it can start to have a negative effect on language learning.

It is possible that, unlike his other two more experienced colleagues (Hasan and Murad), Waseem's very limited teaching experience (only 6 months) influenced the extent of his L1 use for some purposes, e.g. classroom management. Classroom management issues tend to preoccupy novice teachers more, as they have so much to try to make sense of in their

unfamiliar roles (Berliner, 1988), in contrast to their more experienced fellows, who have developed classroom routines they are comfortable with and who are able to concentrate much more on the students' learning (Nunan, 1992).

Nevertheless, some of Waseem's L1 use, when he reflected on it in stimulated recall, was clearly principled and in line with an optimal position (Macaro, 2001). For example, he argued that drawing on knowledge of the mother tongue could facilitate conceptual understanding of the TL and he illustrated this point by highlighting how elision works similarly in Pashto and English in the following way:

Presentation to students on elision process in English and Pashto languages

| | Complete word/phrase | Elision |
|----------------|-----------------------------|----------------|
| English | Fish and chips | Fish n chips |
| Pashto | Kat pa sha | Kap sha |
| | Noor Muhammad | Nor mamad |
| | Ustaz Jee | Ustajee |
| | Chaaye | chae |

(WSR. 3)

In one of his observed lessons on adjectives, as noted above, he had likewise invited students to compare how the English and Urdu languages were structured (WO.1). He also argued, in line with the optimal position, that teachers should make judicious use of the L1 in the class if it is essential for explaining and clarifying students' conceptual understanding, as he thought this to be the teacher's utmost duty (WSR.2). He was critical of teachers he knew who had not done that sufficiently: "I was highly motivated by such teachers that whenever I'll become a teacher I'll not observe those formalities and will observe those which are for the betterment of the students" (WSR. 3). Here, Waseem appears similar to Hasan whose cognitions were also significantly shaped by his PLLEs (Borg, 2006; Sanchez, 2010). Supporting conceptual understanding was perhaps more important to him than excluding the L1. So, one set of values may have been more important to him than another. Gulzar's (2010) research suggests

that supporting conceptual understanding is seen as a valid reason to code-switch by Pakistani teachers.

To summarise, like the other two teachers (Hasan and Murad), Waseem's idealized cognitions supported exclusive TL use, in line with the virtual position (Macaro, 2001). This seems to have been the result of his exposure to communicative orientation to language teaching and learning. However, unlike Hasan, his classroom observations appeared to reveal a lack of harmony between his idealized and situated cognitions. He made a substantial use of the L1 (mostly Urdu) for maintaining a disciplined environment as well as conceptual understanding, in line with the optimal position (Macaro, 2001). Some of the reasons for his L1 use appeared to be the students' limited language proficiency, his lack of experience which led to his extensive L1 use for classroom management purposes and his principled stance to sufficiently explain and clarify students' concepts.

6.3. Discussion

I now address the research questions.

6.3.1. What are the teachers' idealized cognitions regarding TL and L1 use?

It is evident from the data presented above that the idealized cognitions of all three teachers supported the exclusive use of the TL. As with many teachers in the studies (reported above) that elicited idealized cognitions through questionnaires, e.g. Al-Shidhani (2009), McMillan & Rivers (2011), Wang & Kirkpatrick (2012), these teachers argued against the classroom use of L1. They indicated it would reduce the comprehensible input available (Murad) and interfere with TL acquisition (Waseem). As well as also supporting this virtual position, Hasan went one step further by suggesting that the university should make it obligatory to speak English with students outside class, i.e. elsewhere on the campus, so that the standard of their English could improve.

Articulating their idealized cognitions, all the three teachers emphasised the need for more student-student interaction in English which, they argued, would better students' language proficiency. Interestingly, although Hasan and Waseem differed with regard to their professional experience i.e. Hasan had six years while Waseem had six months experience,

both argued for creating an environment where English is used as a medium of communication to help develop the students' proficiency in English language. Moreover, these two cases (Hasan and Waseem's) foreground the impact of PLLEs on their idealized cognitions (Borg, 2006; Sanchez, 2010) which indicated their preoccupation with developing students' confidence, being positive and kind toward their students. Such a concern for the affective and emotional dimension of their students' learning (Calderhead, 1988) had resulted from their own unfavourable language learning experiences with some of their teachers.

6.3.2. If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour, what are the characteristics of these?

As is evident from the observational data presented above, Hasan maintained exclusive TL use throughout his time in the classroom, apart from enquiring about a student's health in L1 (Urdu) before one of his lessons started, an act perhaps not entirely consistent with his idealized cognitions outlined above. Interestingly, Hasan also accepted some L1 use from students (in questions to him), unlike 'Jihad' in Al-Jadidi's (2009) study, who adopted a more hard-line approach. However, he did not encourage his students' L1 use in the class, making his support available to them (by repairing the communication breakdown), whenever they would switch over to L1 to enquire about the nature of an activity, even when such support in the L1 might have been desirable and productive during their task performance. In contrast with Hasan's exclusive TL use, Murad occasionally used L1 (chiefly Pashto), this accounting for 10-15% of his teacher talk, while Waseem used L1 (mostly Urdu) more frequently (15-40% of the time). So there was a clear gap between the idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour regarding L1 use of these two teachers. As to the characteristics of their TL/L1 behaviour, Murad code-switched to Pashto mostly for building a positive rapport and ensuring conceptual understanding, two main functions of mother tongue use identified by Littlewood & Yu (2009). Waseem used Urdu for the latter purpose (ensuring conceptual understanding) and drew upon it too for a further purpose: maintaining discipline. Although, while both Murad and Waseem used the L1 (Pashto and Urdu respectively) for ensuring conceptual understanding, the former employed it mostly for cross-references, examples and allusions from an array of religious and other socio-cultural resources, the latter for explaining the nature and role of grammatical terms (for example adjectives) and a comparison between the

structures of English and Urdu languages to raise the students language awareness. Like Murad, Waseem switched over to Pashto on one occasion while attending a call on his cell phone. However, Waseem's case highlights his use of the L1 (Urdu) for maintaining discipline too, one of the three functions of the L1 use (Littlewood & Yu, 2009). This might be attributed to the fact that, unlike Murad, Waseem was a newly inducted teacher concerned more about classroom management issues (Nunan, 1992).

6.3.3. How can gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour be explained?

Data from the stimulated recall discussions help provide insights into possible underlying reasons for the gaps identified. In Hasan's case, the gap is minor. Both his classroom behaviour and his idealized cognitions are consistent with a virtual position. In this sense, he is similar to one of the teachers researched in each of the following studies discussed above: Al-Alawi (2008), Barnard et al. (2011), Chimbutane (2013). Nevertheless, he is relatively relaxed about his students' use of L1 (as he seems to want to avoid frustrating them) and he puts demonstrating sympathetic concern (through enquiring about a learner's health in L1) above his idealized cognition that English should be used in all interaction with students, both inside and outside the classroom. This caring behaviour, though, is consistent with another set of beliefs he holds dear; Hasan wishes to be very different from the harsh, uncaring teachers he had the misfortune to be a student of. As Pajares (1992, p. 315) argues: "Conceptualising a belief system involves the understanding that this system is composed of beliefs connected to one another and to other cognitive/affective structures, complex and intricate though these connections may be". In this case, it seems the belief that a teacher should be caring trumped the belief that a teacher should use the TL at all times.

With regard to Murad, as soon as his L1 (Pashto) use was pointed out to him in stimulated recall, he justified his use of it, advancing arguments (e.g. the expression of identity) reminiscent of the optimal position (Macaro, 2001). Indeed, in observed lessons, Murad built rapport with the learners in Pashto in such an easy way, switching seamlessly from English, it appeared to be a deeply-established feature of his teaching. Why then had he been so adamant in interview that L1 should not be used? One possible explanation is that his teacher education course in the USA may have been too remote from his actual teaching experience in Pakistan

for him to draw upon, except theoretically. He had developed a strong belief, through the *natural approach* and *immersion* techniques he had been introduced to in America, that it was necessary to teach the TL (English) through English. However, there is of course a vast difference between micro-teaching Pashto (as TL) on a teacher education course to beginners in the USA who have no particular need to learn it apart from interest and teaching English literature or communication skills in Pakistan to university learners with years of TL experience. Murad had taken a belief developed through a teacher education course set in a foreign context, idealized it and misapplied it to his own context, if he had understood the researcher's questions (which, in the next interview, was subsequently checked)! This seemed to have temporarily blinded him as to his own practice. This demonstrates the need, firstly, to site teacher education wherever possible in teachers' own contexts (Mann, 2005) and, secondly, to incorporate awareness-raising activities (Borg, 2006). Murad seemed to lack self-awareness, although the process of reflecting on his teaching in stimulated recall through participating in this research may have helped him develop greater awareness in this regard, as it appeared to do with teachers in other studies (e.g. McMillan & Turnbull, 2009).

Regarding the third teacher, Waseem, he also appeared to lack self-awareness, as he was adamant in all three interviews that the L1 should not be used, even though in all three observed lessons he made substantial use of it. However, this should not be too surprising, as Waseem had very limited experience, and studies of expertise in teaching, e.g. Berliner (1988), demonstrate how challenging making sense of the classroom environment as a novice can be. Such teachers can be more concerned with classroom management issues (such as those for which Waseem used L1) than with content (Nunan, 1992). In one of his lessons, though, Waseem did make quite extensive use of L1 (approximately 40%), which is above recommended threshold levels (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). This might point towards a need for further training; Waseem had received no specific support in this.

However, Waseem also justified his use of L1 to support conceptual understanding in a way that echoed the optimal position (Macaro, 2001). For example, he discussed the value of contrastive analysis and was also observed to make use of this in his teaching. It appears Waseem's idealized cognitions about one aspect of the teacher's role (supporting conceptual understanding) were perhaps more influential in terms of shaping his practice than were his

idealized cognitions regarding TL use. As in Hasan's case, prior learning experiences seemed crucial. Waseem indicated elsewhere in interviews he was reacting against the practices of teachers who had taught him but who had not, in his view, been sufficiently thorough in sharing their and supporting his conceptual understanding.

Important to Waseem as well as to the other teachers were the needs of the learners, in as far as they perceived them. Interestingly, they responded in different ways. Hasan was more concerned about the affective dimension, Waseem more about the cognitive, Murad with issues of identity. And their TL/L1 behaviour was very different: exclusive TL use, Urdu, Pashto. Where learners meet such varied behaviour, e.g. in Barnard et al.'s (2011) study in Timor-Leste too, there must be the potential for confusion as to the institution's expectations. This does suggest that such issues should be aired.

Interestingly, neither in the interviews with Waseem nor in those conducted with the other teachers were the expectations of the university regarding TL use raised. As noted above, there is the expectation that an 'English only' policy is followed. However, at university level in Pakistan, there is very little discussion of this policy and of how it is implemented, unlike the public discussion centred on the code-switching and L1 use in schools, which has received much criticism, e.g. Coleman (2010), Rahman (2001), Shamim (2008). Recently, though, there has been some attention paid to the challenges faced by university students trying to follow lessons in English and of how these challenges are responded to (de Lotbinière, 2010, 15 June; Tamim, 2014). The debate regarding the appropriacy of the university 'English only' policy needs to be brought out more into the open for fuller discussion.

6.4. Conclusions

In summary, then, this chapter has demonstrated, in line with other teacher cognition research (Borg, 2006), that a consideration of various personal and contextual factors can help explain identifiable gaps between teachers' idealized cognitions and their classroom behaviour. Specific implications with regard to the particular focus of this theme include the following: Firstly, there is a clear need in the Pakistani higher education environment for awareness-raising of TL/L1 issues as part of context-sensitive teacher education that draws on recent understandings of the value of 'judicious' mother tongue use (e.g. Cook, 2007), in relation to

virtual, maximal and optimal positions (Macaro, 2001). Secondly, this teacher education initiative could feed into more of an open debate of university 'English only' policies.

Chapter 7. Findings and Discussions (3)

Pakistani university English language teachers' cognitions regarding their continuing professional development (CPD)

7.1. Introduction

The review of literature about teachers' cognitions regarding their CPD (Chapter 3: Section 3.2.1) presented Evan's (2014) professional development model with its three main constituent components of professional development: behavioural, attitudinal and intellectual. In the light of this model, a critical review of the relevant studies (section 3.2.2-3) followed which highlighted that intellectual development may be the starting point of the process of professional development which may or may not lead to attitudinal and behavioural development. It is significant to note that in spite of developing intellectually, teachers still needed to utilize the newly acquired knowledge and apply this in practice by changing their attitudes and behaviours while teaching in their classrooms. Similarly, the review highlighted teachers' attitudinal development which had resulted from their CPD. However, in the absence of observational evidence, it is unlikely to see how far teachers' behavioural development has taken place.

Moreover, this critical review (section 3.2) informs us that CPD courses, which seem to draw mostly on the prevailing conceptions of top down models, contribute only towards teachers' intellectual and attitudinal growth. This implies that bottom up models may be necessary if we are to witness behavioural change occurring. Relating Evans' (2014) model to different studies discussed in sections 3.2.2-4 shows that almost all of the studies have identified some of the aspects of CPD included in her model of professional development. This shows relevance and importance of the Evans' model for the current study too. As discussed in the sections highlighted above, all the three dimensions in the model (intellectual, attitudinal and behavioural) play an important role in shaping teachers' professionalism which in turn impacts the outcomes of their teaching practices. Following the relevance of this model, it will also be used for analysing data and making meaning in the current study. In the next

section, findings of the data from four teachers are presented to be followed by discussion and their implications.

7.2. Data analysis and findings

The focus of this chapter (teachers' cognitions regarding CPD) has been explored with the help of data related to four teachers. As discussed in chapter 4 (section 4.6), the selection of these four teachers (Hasan, Murad, Raheem, Zarfan, all pseudonyms) was guided by both 'theoretical' and 'purposive' sampling (Silverman, 2009). While the former was used to develop understanding of this particular issue, the latter aimed to ensure the balance, variety of intuitions and individuals.

My research questions (adapted for this particular theme) were as follows:

1. What might be the teachers' idealized cognitions with regard to their continuing professional development?
2. If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour, what are the characteristics of these?
3. How can gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour be explained?

I now present findings in relation to each teacher and then discuss them next to the research questions.

7.2.1. Hasan

Interview data suggested Hasan (who we met in chapter 6) had attended various on-site as well as online in-service top-down CPD trainings. While the duration of his on-site teacher training courses ranged from one-day to two weeks, the online courses he had attended were up to two months in which the teacher educators were mostly Americans and which were attended by many teachers in other universities. Assuming a general need, i.e. not based on detailed needs analysis, these top down professional trainings focused on the development of various pedagogical skills including the four language skills, lesson planning, classroom management, scaffolding, evaluation, learner-centred teaching, technology use, critical thinking and teaching aids, as Hasan reported.

Because he had received no pre-service teacher training, these trainings, according to Hasan, had made him ‘better equipped’ after discovering ‘a new way of teaching’ (HI.2). Although the trainings had been conducted sometime before, the focus on learner-centredness had clearly made an impression. Articulating the impact of this on his teaching, Hasan reported involving students in different activities which he had introduced in his classes (HI.3).

The influence of these CPD trainings, for example, was evident in his awareness about the significance of classroom management and its techniques. He had learnt that “it is mostly about group and pair formation with all its details. As such, classroom size, students’ number and their abilities are important” (HI.1). This indicates growth in the intellectual dimension of his professional development (Evans, 2014). This learning was reflected in his espoused belief that good teaching was not possible without “a well-managed and disciplined classroom where motivating students and stimulating their interest through various activities and tasks” should be the top priorities of a teacher (HI.1). His understanding regarding how to create and maintain discipline in the classroom is evident below:

Not necessarily that you simply snub them or punish them to create discipline, no, but to arouse their interest by teaching them in a funny way through games. They’ll be involved with you in your teaching and they’ll not be creating any discipline situation for you (HI.1)

Observational data related to Hasan revealed he appeared to have good classroom management skills thus reflecting a match between his idealized and situated cognitions. He ensured learners’ active involvement in the class through various activities and tasks, this leading him to generate a great deal of teacher-students and students-students interaction (HO. 1). For example, he engaged the students in brainstorming in small groups and whole class discussion about effective teaching. His ability to create a friendly environment through smiling, kind words and soft voice in the class helped him establish a relationship of trust with students and congenial learning environment. This implies that he had developed learner-centred routines, which he felt had been absent before the CPD.

Although Hasan’s idealized cognition regarding classroom management largely matched his situated cognition, he indicated, during the stimulated recall interviews, some contextual and institutional exigencies (Borg, 2003), somehow, challenged his classroom management efforts (HSR.1). These included students’ low and mixed level, lack of students’ motivation, large

classrooms and time shortage. A class of 40 to 50 students “could not be easily managed as you’ve to arrange group activities” and hence it was “very difficult to follow some learner-centred teaching”, as he commented (HSR.1). He also commented that “it is not easy to apply classroom management techniques if you’re not trained in it”. It appears that, although his classroom behaviours related to classroom management techniques largely matched his intellectual and attitudinal development, Hasan articulated the contextual realities (Sanchez, 2010) which teachers encounter in ESL/EFL contexts like Pakistan. This implies more focus is needed on the behavioural component of CPD for these teachers (Evans, 2014).

Interview data suggested that these top-down CPD trainings had changed Hasan’s cognition about teaching approach because he explicitly cited their influence. This new belief, which taught him that students needed to use the language for practical and communicative purposes, was reflected when he explained that:

It is language teaching which focuses on language as it is used by people in practical communicative situations. As such, it believes in some sort of liberal use by students instead of being restricted to practicing a specific language item or structure in class (HI.1)

In his view, this new learning about the CLT method – “to communicate, to make another person understand” (HI.2) – had changed his previous belief about teaching, leading him to disapprove the notion of teacher as a transmitter and students the receiver of knowledge. Moreover, further evaluation and reflection had led him to believe that the teacher needed to discourage the spoon-feeding culture where students simply come to the class, passively listen and expect their teacher to be doing everything for them. He had realized that:

They (students) shouldn’t take their lectures as sermons where the teacher simply come and deliver the sermon in which they simply listen, glean knowledge about the target language. They themselves should be involved in the language; they themselves should come up with linguistic constructions (HI.1).

This realization was also manifested in his emphasis on learners’ participation in the learning process to help teacher understand the position of students as active participants. His previous belief system, in which the teacher was mainly conceptualised as someone autocratic and/or controlling, had been overtaken by a new belief system, in which teacher role was different (Evans, 2014). In order to be a good teacher, he commented:

You need sincerity and professional attitudes ... then you should know that you're not someone to dictate but to guide and facilitate. You are someone to arrange activities in the class and you're someone whose job is to involve the students with the target language (HI.2)

However, interview data suggested that, besides formal input, informal sharing of knowledge and discussions with colleagues had significantly contributed to his learning as teacher. He used to engage in "frequent and fruitful discussions on various issues related to teaching, learners, pedagogy and research" (HI.3) which had considerably changed his belief about the nature and procedure of teaching.

Hasan's idealized cognitions about CLT approach and his insistence on learners' participation in the learning process were evident in his classroom behaviours, as the observational data demonstrated. His three classroom observations revealed him maintaining the role of a guide and facilitator, engaging the students in different activities/tasks, facilitating them in their independent learning and encouraging them to take on the role of negotiators by assigning them speaking opportunities. These are considered the general characteristics of the CLT approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This suggests that significant behavioural development had occurred in Hasan's case (Evans, 2014). For example, while teaching *evaluating the lesson* to an MA English class, Hasan initiated an open-discussion through asking the students 'how do you define good teaching' and 'how do you define a good teacher' to which many students responded (HO.1). He also engaged the students in an activity around '*What makes a good teacher*' by writing it on the whiteboard and asked the students to individually write down one idea on it and to share it with their class-mates. Hasan then collected papers from the students and wrote all their comments on the white board i.e. revealing, which appeared to aim at sharing information with the whole class. This generated an interesting discussion in the class as Hasan invited the students' suggestions while rewriting the comments in terms of priority.

On another occasion, when he was teaching seven "C's" of communication to an undergraduate class, he distributed the students in seven groups, assigned each group one "C" and asked them to write a message/advertisement with particular focus on it (HO.2). Afterwards, he changed the "C's" among the groups so that each group can discuss more than one "C". Hasan checked their tasks and corrected their mistakes. This suggests his behavioural development (Evans, 2014) related to classroom management skills as well as

engaging students in different activities. This communicative environment of the class was also marked by Hasan maintaining a good deal of eye-contact with the students during his lectures.

As well as transforming his cognitions and behaviour about the teacher's role as a *guide* and *facilitator* with emphasis on engaging students with the target language, the in-service top-down CPD trainings, which Hasan had attended, had considerably shaped his cognition with regard to curriculum materials. His new understanding about the curriculum materials had overshadowed his previous learning which, as he admitted, did not make him "much aware of the importance of the materials, syllabus and other things" (HI.2). However, as a result of these trainings, he found himself "fully aware of the materials" he was teaching (HI.2) and maintained that a teacher needs to use extra sources for preparing the lecture apart from the textbooks or recommended teaching materials. This is evident in his comment below:

Previously I thought that my knowledge was everything, my sincerity with my profession was everything. But now I know that no, it's more of a skill. Skill is the most important thing, the way you plan your lesson, the way you deliver it practically ... All these things have taught me a new way of teaching (HI.3).

There is evidence in the observational data of Hasan's creative use of materials which included materials adaptation and exploitation on different occasions (HO.2). For example, his lecture presentation on the 7 C's of communication on multimedia appeared to be drawn from different sources with appropriate visuals to help his learners understand, thus reflecting growth in his classroom behaviours (Evans, 2014).

However, it is not just CPD which can explain Hasan growing professionally. Data from the stimulated recall interviews suggested that Hasan's prior language learning experiences (PLLEs) had played a significant role in shaping his cognition regarding the teacher role (Borg, 2006; Sanchez, 2010). As we have seen (in chapter 6), the positive reinforcement of these experiences had reinforced and strengthened the change process. He reported to have learnt more from those school teachers who were friendly and considerate (HI.3).

Hasan's classroom behaviour revealed he appeared to be attending to the affective and emotional dimensions of students' learning, thus reflecting a match between his idealized and situated cognitions (HO.2). For example, he reacted with a smile to the students' use of

mother tongue, although he had clearly and emphatically articulated his belief with regard to the non-use of mother tongue in the class. This indicates his behavioural development (Evans, 2014) because there seems to be synergy between the growth which he claimed to have occurred as a result of professional development and his actual classroom practices.

These experiences, also called the ‘apprenticeship of observation’ (Lortie, 1975), had shaped him as a teacher, as Borg (2006) highlights. Through a schematic conceptualization of teaching, Borg (2003, p. 82) highlights there exists a relationship between teacher cognition, teacher learning (through schooling and professional education), classroom practice and contextual factors. Recalling one such teacher, whose teaching was a source of inspiration for him, Hasan commented that:

He taught us very systematically through certain formulae ... he gave us practice at the same time. So I believe that as a student I have greatly learnt from these experiences and they have great impacts on my teaching as teacher ... I copy those teachers from whom I’ve learnt these good things. Because I learnt that way and I believe that my students can learn that way as well. I want to repeat that because I think that’s the best way (HSR.3)

Such friendly and positive treatment from his teachers had brought him sufficient encouragement and motivation to participate in class activities, as he maintained that “... so we had enough confidence to ask questions from them, we had enough interest to appear in their classes regularly and to take notes ...’ (HSR.3). Although such an influence of techniques and strategies from PLLEs has been reported on experienced as well as inexperienced teachers in many teaching contexts, it is claimed that non-native English-speaking (NNS) teachers, such as Hasan, have more access to and draw more upon their PLLEs than their native English-speaking (NS) counterparts (Borg, 2005). The impact of PLLEs on language teacher cognition, including a positive reinforcement of teaching techniques and strategies, has been highlighted by Sanchez (2010).

To summarize, while Hasan’s professional development seemed mainly the result of top-down CPD trainings as well as his informal talk and discussion with colleagues, this development was significantly supported and strengthened by his PLLEs, especially when he positively reinforced such experiences. Although Hasan suggested some contextual factors made it challenging for him to translate his new learning into classroom behaviours, observational data related to him offer sufficient evidence suggesting his situated cognitions

largely matched his idealized cognitions. It appears Hasan articulated these contextual challenges which teachers trained only in the intellectual and/or attitudinal components of professional development might come across in a similar context. Therefore, it implies that top-down in-service CPD trainings, along with intellectual and attitudinal components, need to focus more on the behavioural component. This will enable teachers to translate the newly-acquired knowledge and beliefs into their classroom practices.

7.2.2. **Murad**

Interview data suggested that, unlike Hasan who did not mention them, particularly significant contributions to Murad's (who we met in chapter 6) professional learning, especially in the start of his career, came from the students' feedback which he used to receive as a result of the teacher assessment system in the university, through the Quality Enhance Cell (QEC) (MI.1). The QEC, in order to improve the quality of teaching, works through a system in which Teachers Evaluation survey is filled by students during each semester. With a view to contribute to faculty appraisal for informational and reflective purposes, the results of this Teachers Evaluation survey is then shared with teachers to help them focus on areas where they need improvement. Since he highlighted the importance of students' feedback for learning and development, this implies there was an impact of his classroom-based experience on his cognitions and professional development, as Borg's (2006) model highlights, and Murad was aware of it. Since he wanted to develop himself further through students' feedback, Murad appreciated the role of the QEC which focused on "identifying the places where the teachers need to focus on and where they need to improve" (MI.1). He reportedly used to incorporate that feedback and hence improved his teaching. Murad was also aware of the fact that:

Probably, the students may not be able to say things directly to us (teachers) but due to the QEC and the confidentiality of the report they always said what they wanted to say. So we always meet the expectations of students through the feedback provided by the QEC (MI.1)

It seems that Murad was cognizant of the fact that students' feedback could significantly contribute towards his professional learning and development, a realization professionals come across in their career (Evans, 2014). As a result, many changes he claimed to have occurred in his teaching including his learning how "to be a teacher with more interactive type

of classroom”, involving students and himself playing a facilitator or guide on how to do certain things or asking them to do it by themselves (MI.2). Regarding this transformation i.e., his intellectual development (Evans, 2014) which resulted from learners’ feedback through the QEC, Murad reported that:

In the beginning when I used to deliver a lecture just like in the traditional way and when I’d get the feedback through this evaluation system in the university (QEC) which sometimes would say that well it was just a lecture and continuous talking. Later on I took that feedback as a positive and improved myself. But now when I get the feedback they say it’s more of an interactive sort of classroom (MI.1)

However, the observational data related to Murad revealed his classroom behaviour did not truly reflect his idealized cognitions. Unlike Hasan, his classrooms were found to be lacking in frequent teacher-students interaction and students’ involvement in different tasks and activities. Murad’s talk appeared to dominate the class, while teaching Milton’s *Areopagitica*, for example, thus making his classroom more teacher-fronted rather than student-fronted (MO.2). Apart from a few occasional individual contributions, when students responded to Murad’s questions, evidence of much learner autonomy and participation was not found. This might be attributed to the fact that Murad was teaching a literature class which, unlike a designated language class, required him to do more lecturing and elicit less students’ involvement. Explaining this lack of students’ involvement in the class, Murad reported that his preference for a particular teaching method/s was always guided by what teaching skills he was trying to develop of the students. On using different teaching strategies for literature and language classes, he commented:

If it’s literature class then it’s more discussion type and lecture method but in the language class what I personally do is that it’s more activity-based. The activity can be individual or group-based discussion or one-to-one conversation or they can act it out in pairs or we give them a situation where they act it out. It all depends on the skills that we are trying to develop of the students (MSR.2)

Although Murad argued he incorporated discussion in the literature class, as the quote above highlights, there was lack of such evidence revealing he sufficiently engaged the students in group or whole-class discussion (MO.2). However, in the *communication skills* class, he engaged the students to a certain extent, though there was still some lecturing, by offering them individual opportunities to share and discuss about various aspects of *Non-verbal*

communication (MO.1); this indicates his behavioural growth as he seems to have found ‘a better way’ of ‘doing’ thing i.e., his teaching (Evans, 2014, p. 187).

Interview data suggested that students’ feedback and professional experience were not the only factors which explained Murad’s learning and development. He claimed his in-service top-down CPD trainings, especially his US-based training, had also brought considerable changes in his idealized cognitions. These in-service top-down trainings focused on Learner-Centred Teaching, Classroom Management, Lesson Planning, and Communicative Approaches to Language Teaching, Murad reported. With regard to lesson planning and achieving instructional objectives, for example, he had learnt to reflect on his planning (Schön, 1983) as a result of the trainings and revise or have plan B in case he failed to achieve his objectives, he reported (MI.1). In response to what he would do if he failed to achieve his objectives, Murad commented:

Then I realize that I could’ve done this way or I should’ve done like this or that. So next time I just change or shift my focus and try to address whatever is needed. But it’s very rare that I achieve 100% objectives which I set for myself ... So that’s why I always take plan B with me or a second thinking nowadays not in the beginning that if the outcome turns out to be the other way then how to make the maximum use of other objectives. Yes, that’s what I do (MI.1)

Murad seems to be clearly conscious of this professional growth which had occurred following his experience and trainings. Further, he was very articulate about sharing such experiences as is evident in the comment below:

But all these things that I’m talking about came as a result of experience that I mentioned and I started doing these during my trainings especially in the US. Before that it was just a traditional class...I would just say that my job is finished and I would give them activity whether the students used to do it or not but now it’s different (MI.1)

This implies not only the epistemological and comprehensive aspects of the intellectual component of his professional development but also the rationalistic and analytical aspects, as he was able to explain, analyse and argue the professional advantages of his top-down CPD.

As we have seen (chapter 6), his US-based training had also shaped his idealized cognition regarding the virtual position i.e., using the TL exclusively (MI.1). However, this was not truly reflected in his classroom behaviour, which revealed he employed the L1 (especially Pashto) during his occasional humour, which appeared to have healthy influence on his

students though (MO.2). This indicates his developing, though indirectly, positive relationship with students, as Littlewood & Yu (2009) suggest. Justifying his L1 use, Murad (see 6.3.2, above) reported doing it purposefully because of his personal attachment with his mother tongue i.e., Pashto, explaining or clarifying students' concepts and developing rapport with them (MSR.1) (see more detail in 6.3.2, above)

Murad's transformation as a teacher, in terms of his intellectual and attitudinal development, as Evans' (2014) model of professional development presents, was the result of multiple factors. These included his openness to constantly learn from students' feedback, participating in top-down professional trainings and reflecting on them as he wished to see himself "to be a kind of facilitator and more of a person who is just guiding them, not the person who is spoon-feeding them". Effective teaching, according to him, should be student-centred where the students are involved a lot. Commenting further on this, he reported:

It shouldn't be teacher-centred or lecture-method but where teacher's role is that of a guide or facilitator. It's the job of students and the teacher is just giving instructions and then the students perform. So I believe in a student-centred plus activity-based learning and I've seen that it's very useful especially among the young/new comers. The more they are involved the more they'll be able to speak it proficiently or use it as language (MI.1)

This suggests that as a teacher Murad had transformed significantly (Evans, 2014) and it is worth noting that he was aware and vocal about these changes as is evident in his idealized cognition, cited above, regarding his communicative orientation to language learning and teaching. Another curricular area, where change had occurred as a result of in-service top-down CPD trainings, was classroom management. Articulating this growth in his belief, Murad commented that:

Sometimes we have an activity which is good but if not managed properly then it turns out to be a disaster. Sometimes we have the best materials and online resources still it turns out to be ridiculous so yes there is always room for improvement...in terms of how you implement or carry out that activity or teach that materials ... so the significance of classroom management cannot be underestimated as it is crucial for successful teaching learning to take place (MSR.2)

It is significant to note that the growth in Murad's cognitions in relation to these two curricular areas i.e., CLT and classroom management, reminds us of Hasan who has articulated almost a similar growth in these domains. This change had led to Murad's further reflection and subsequent realization about how to become a more effective teacher. His

conscious efforts for bringing improvement in his teaching included his taking “the opinions of experts”, which he explained as colleagues with more professional experience and exposure as well as local teacher educators with whom he was in contact. His reflection on the earlier phases of his career had led him to believe that every teacher must get some sort of pre-service training in order “to get familiar with the modern teaching techniques and methodologies because it’s very important” (MI.1). This implies that Murad had realized the significance of professional learning and development and strongly believed in offering pre-service training to teachers.

Given his idealized cognitions discussed above, Murad’s classroom behaviour revealed they appeared to match a great deal with his situated cognitions. His teaching *The Sounds of Language* class revealed that he considerably engaged the students with the target language (TL) through making them actively participate in different tasks and activities (MO.3). Many students, for example, responded when he stimulated their recall through questions in the previous lecture. They were also found responding actively on where and how different speech sounds are produced i.e., place and manner of articulation. Murad appeared to be reflecting his energy and enthusiasm while producing and acting out different English sounds to facilitate the students’ comprehension; this involved him making a prominent use of body language, gestures, postures, intonation and vocal tract.

As we have already seen (chapter 6), this observational data (MO.3) demonstrated Murad’s behaviour matched his idealized cognition related to the TL i.e., using the TL exclusively and learners’ participation. It implies Murad’s growing practical skills as he was able to translate his intellectual and/or attitudinal development into behavioural development (Evans, 2014). However, occasionally the issue of time as a constraining factor in semester system also appeared to challenge his efforts aimed at arranging such activities, as he explained (MSR.2). This implies the impact of contextual factors on language teacher cognition as has been documented in the previous literature (Borg, 2003; Burns et al., 2015). This observation highlighted a considerable amount of learner autonomy and participation, as Murad had arranged students’ individual presentations, which followed his offering feedback to students (MO.3). Interestingly, some of the students voiced their concerns related to exam and course

completion (Sanchez, 2010), after finishing their presentations and receiving feedback. Murad addressed these issues by explaining about his course completion plan.

However, such as with Hasan, it was not only students' feedback and top-down CPD trainings that led to Murad's professional learning and development. His PLLEs (Borg, 2006) had also significantly contributed to his development (MSR.1). One of his university teachers, he reflected, would go to the class, sit on a chair and would start dictating and they would be taking notes. At the end of the semester, he added, they would have a big register full of notes, and then they would memorize it and re-produce it in the paper. Showing his disapproval of such a method, he maintained that:

Well, that's what I'd not like to do because we'd remember the things but we'd not know the concepts and the details about it. But there were other teachers who'd be more creative by asking the students questions and making them present topics (MSR.1)

This implies that, similar to Hasan, Murad's teachers had left deep imprints on him as a student which became visible when he started his career as a teacher himself. Exercising his discretion as a teacher, he followed what he liked in his teacher and discarded what he did not like. As a result of such PLLEs when positively reinforced, along with his experience and CPD trainings, Murad had realized the significance of pedagogy and teaching skills. Unlike his previous belief, he now preferred "to have a method which is more dynamic, rather than just a traditional way which is the case in our culture i.e., just a lecture and just listening in the class" (MSR. 1). The problem, according to him, with the traditional method was that:

You may listen to just 30% or 40% or 50% of what the teacher is saying but you can't listen to 100% of it. When I was involved as a student to those things which the teachers did in class so still I have those things in mind (MSR.1)

This preference for a new knowledge, skill or practice over old ones on the part of professionals is part of their professional learning and development, as Evans (2014) argues.

To summarize, Murad's professional learning and development was mainly the result of receiving and reflecting on students' feedback as well as in-service top-down professional trainings. However, like Hasan, this professional development was equally supported and strengthened by his PLLEs through a positive reinforcement of such experiences by Murad. Although Murad had acquired considerable intellectual and attitudinal development following

his reflecting on students' feedback and top-down trainings, he did not appear to have truly transferred it into his behavioural development. This indicates, to some extent, a gap as his situated cognitions did not appear to truly match his idealized cognitions.

7.2.3. **Raheem**

In one of his interviews, Raheem (who we met in chapter 5) articulated that teachers should “constantly improve as professionals” (RI.2). Interview data suggested that, like Murad, Raheem's professional development had largely occurred as a result of his professional experience and learning from informal bottom-up sources. As with Murad, he had learnt considerably from students' feedback as he identified their learning problems through their responses, their questions and their performance on assignments (RI.1). Other significant sources of his professional learning included reading books and academic journals, internet browsing and support from colleagues, he reported. Articulating this he commented that:

I can improve my teaching by exposure; I can also improve my teaching by undergoing teaching trainings, by browsing net and getting tips from other teachers, by keeping myself up to date with teaching methodologies (RI.1)

This implies that, unlike Hasan who did not discuss it, a lot of Raheem's professional learning and development had occurred as a result of informal self-directed CPD. However, he preferred learning from reading books as compared to the internet, as evident in the comment below:

I mostly depend on books because books are more reliable and have more reliable information as compared to the knowledge available on internet. I also make use of net and journals and also give examples from practical life (RI.1)

While reporting on such informal self-directed CPD sources, Raheem commented that he wanted to learn from his colleagues, reporting that “I think I should watch videos of other teachers as well because each individual has got his own quality so it would give me further enlightenment from their teaching” (RSR.1). Here, Raheem seems similar to Murad who also reported taking the opinion of experts to further improve himself. For Raheem, the teaching profession required that “a teacher should have expertise in the field of teaching, must be aware of the methodologies that are adopted in the profession of teaching. He must keep himself up-to-date” (RSR.1). Like Murad, Raheem relied on multiple informal and bottom-up

sources for his professional learning. This is evident in his response to the issue of failing to achieve his goals, as he commented:

If I fail to achieve my goals then I will consult other teachers. I will improve my teaching; if it is because of teaching materials then I will try to get good teaching materials. If it because of impaired teaching methodologies then I will try some other methods. If it's lack of expertise then I will ask experienced teachers (RSR.2)

This is in line with the notion of CPD which stresses that good teachers always aim at improving their practices throughout their professional lives (Evans, 2011; Schön, 1983).

As well as learning from such informal self-directed sources, Raheem had participated in three HEC-sponsored one-day CPD trainings including *English for Academic Purposes (EAP)*, *Microteaching*, *Lesson Planning* and *Learner-Centred Approaches*. These top-down CPD trainings, according to him, had “significantly contributed to his skills as a teacher and improved his teaching”. He believed such CPD events should be arranged on regular basis because “when a teacher joins the teaching profession so he/she is usually a novice and therefore needs education and guidelines to improve his/her teaching” (RI.1). He further argued that “[teachers] should constantly improve as professionals” (RI.2) through in-service CPD trainings. This belief of Raheem is significant in the sense that, unlike Hasan and Murad, he articulated this explicitly that as a professional a teacher should aim at continuous learning and development; this constant forward-looking direction of CPD has been emphasized in the literature as important in stimulating teacher education and development (Borg, 2003; Evans, 2014). He also stressed the need for pre-service trainings for university teachers and commented that:

Actually it should not be in too much detail because they should have a comprehensive overview of the subject, about its objects and how it should be done. Before teachers join their profession they should know about the fundamentals of their profession and subject. When teachers join this profession so it should be constantly improved through in-service trainings (RI.2)

While arguing that pre-service teacher training is important, Raheem seemed to believe that such training should focus on what Shulman (1986, 1987) calls the subject-matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) i.e., how it is applied in the classroom. Thus he argues for continuous professional growth through in-service trainings, as is recommended by Evans (2014).

The top-down CPD trainings he had engaged in, specifically the *Learner-Centred Approaches*, had changed his belief regarding pedagogy in favour of learner-centred teaching, as he reported that “[student participation] must be of high degree and I prefer much teacher-student interaction.... Students’ active involvement should be encouraged in the class” (RI.2). Closely linked with his new belief about pedagogy and “the art of teaching”, as he termed it, was a transformation of his own role as a teacher. As discussed earlier (chapter 5), he saw himself in the new role “*as a facilitator*”, to facilitate and to ensure that successful teaching learning process takes place. This transformation of his role as a teacher seems to be the result of Raheem’s disappointment with old pedagogy which was replaced by a new one – a ‘better way’ of ‘doing’(Evans, 2014). His new role, along with stressing on professional knowledge and expertise in teaching, appeared to concentrate more on the emotional and affective dimensions of his learners, as is reflected in his comment:

A good teacher should have sufficient knowledge. He/she should know the psychological level of the students. He should teach effectively and should be a good actor as well. He should have the quality of empathy in him as well so that he can understand the situations of students. Apart from this we should have expertise in the field of teaching, must be aware of the methodologies that are adopted in the profession of teaching. He must keep himself up-to-date (RI.2)

It is significant to note that, similar to Hasan, Raheem’s philosophy of teaching underscores the fact that effective teaching requires that teachers need to acquire a combination of cognitive, affective and behavioural growth (Calderhead, 1988) i.e. knowledge, empathy and evolving methods. This, as a result, had also changed his belief regarding students as independent learners as he commented:

I should facilitate and I should ensure that successful teaching learning process takes place. I think the role of a teacher-facilitator is essential in order to motivate the students for further learning. I would like my students to learn for themselves from whatever sources are available. After getting some tips from me they should learn themselves... (RI.2)

This implies he had transformed himself to the role of a *facilitator* and a *guide* which, he believed, was essential to enhance students’ motivational level. Accordingly, he considered himself as one of the sources students could learn from and insisted they should explore others. As already discussed (chapter 5), following his professional growth (including experience and in-service top-down trainings) Raheem’s belief about his role had transformed. Unlike his previous belief system which prioritised sharing maximum

knowledge with students, he had come to believe in learner autonomy which, as he reported, should be achieved through encouraging and motivating students to engage in class activities (R1.2).

The development of Raheem's professionalism, as Evans (2014) defines, which resulted from his conscious or unconscious "mental internalization process, of professional work-related knowledge and/or understanding and/or attitudes and/or skills and/or competences" that he believed to be superior, thus replaced his earlier teaching-related knowledge and/or understanding and/or attitudes and/or skills and/or competences (p. 864).

Another significant and noticeable change which had occurred after his professional development was related to teaching materials. As discussed above (chapter 5), Raheem's cognitions regarding materials had enormously changed, he reported (RI.3), showing his awareness of the growth which had taken place in his cognition about materials (Evans, 2014). Initially in his career, he maintained, his use of teaching materials was teacher-fronted rather than student-fronted, however, later on he realized that instead of providing more materials to students they should be encouraged and trained to independently learn from various sources (RSR.3). Teachers beliefs and practices change after their professional exposure and trainings as they find the new knowledge, skills or *doing things* more attractive and useful (Evans, 2014).

As discussed earlier (chapter, 5), Raheem's idealized cognitions about materials were truly reflected in his classroom behaviour i.e., his intellectual and attitudinal growth appeared to have translated to his classroom-based behavioural development (Evans, 2014). He frequently engaged the students in various group work activities through sharing hand outs with them on different topics which he had photocopied from English newspapers (RO.2). As we have seen (chapter, 5), this group activity was followed by a whole class discussion on the topics during which Raheem remained mainly in a facilitative role i.e., making sure there is no cross-talking and a maximum number of students participate in the discussion. He was also found using materials from different sources including an adapted story text, which he appeared to have downloaded from the Internet (RO.1).

This professional growth, which had resulted from his experience as well as the top-down CPD trainings, was also evident in his newly-formed belief about grammar teaching. Despite his belief in the significance of grammar, he thought it should not be made a source of demotivation for students to learn language for communicative purposes, as is obvious from his comment:

I think grammar is very important but nowadays if we teach language for communication purposes then I think grammar is not of that much importance. Giving too much importance to grammar will debar us from learning language. So it should not be made an obstacle ... I would prefer to teach grammar implicitly so that they (students) become habitual to it and understand it by them without being taught explicitly (RI.3)

This indicates that significant intellectual and attitudinal development had occurred in Raheem's case following his professional experience and other top-down CPD trainings (Evans, 2014). Raheem's classroom observations confirmed this, revealing he used inductive approach to grammar teaching (RO.3). For example, while teaching *Adjective phrases*, he elicited the students' responses (i.e. to identify the adjectives phrases) on the eight sentences given below, which he had written on the white board.

Teacher eliciting students' responses on adjective phrases

| | |
|---|--|
| 1 | She was an extremely intelligent woman. |
| 2 | That's rather good. |
| 3 | Can you suggest anything useful? |
| 4 | That's very interesting. |
| 5 | She is clever. |
| 6 | We must feed the hungry. |
| 7 | I saw her face, proud and defiant. |
| 8 | Lost and bewildered, she continued on her way. |

(RO.3)

This activity generated a useful and interesting discussion in the class, as many students could easily spot adjectives but were unable to identify adverbs as its modifiers. However, most of the students appeared excited and motivated while waiting for their turns as the teacher was taking one student at a time.

However, Raheem's professional learning and development was not only the result of professional experience including students' feedback and in-service top-down CPD trainings. Like Hasan and Murad, his PLLEs had made a significant contribution in developing him as professional. This impact is evident when he commented that "As teachers we do have an enormous impact on students' personalities and especially on the ones who are becoming teachers in future" (RSR.2). Moreover, like Hasan and Murad, his emphasis on understanding the psychological level of students as well as having the quality of empathy for them seems to be the result of his unfavourable experiences with some of his own teachers. This is clearly reflected in his comment:

My teachers didn't explain things the way I wish them to explain. Now when I have become a teacher it has got a reaction from me and I explicate things more compared to my childhood when I used to think that my teachers didn't stoop low into my psychological level, they didn't know my psychological level ... So this was really a bad experience in which my teachers didn't explain things to me. This has an effect on my teaching as I feel the need that I must express the things to my students clearly, I must give examples and I must make their base (RSR.2)

Reflecting on such experiences, Raheem, like Hasan, had realized how important it was to understand the psychological level of students and thus focus on the affective and emotional dimensions of his students' learning. Such a flashback on PLLEs and positively reinforcing them had significantly led to his professional growth which was evident in his classroom behaviours too.

To summarize, Raheem's professional growth seemed mainly the result of his self-directed informal and bottom-up sources as well as in-service top-down CPD trainings. However, similar to Hasan and Murad, this development was supported and strengthened by his PLLEs when he positively reinforced them. These sources, while contributing to his intellectual and attitudinal development, had also shaped his classroom behaviours thus revealing his behavioural development. Hence, his situated cognitions appeared to largely match his

idealized cognitions. This implies that, coupled with experience and the urge to learn, in-service top-down CPD trainings could successfully be transferred to behavioural development. It also implies that, along with top-down formal CPD sources, informal bottom-up sources could also be effectively exploited for teachers' CPD.

7.2.4. **Zarfan**

Zarfan (who we met in chapter 5) appeared to a forward-looking professional who believed that he should constantly improve himself as a teacher (ZI.1). Interview data revealed that Zarfan had received three in-service professional trainings. His first ever training, *Teaching English as International Language (TEIL)*, which focused on pedagogy (the art of teaching) including student-centred teaching and classroom management, had developed various aspects of his pedagogy (ZI.1). It was a four months full-time engagement and then one year part-time research in microteaching. Later on, after he applied the strategies which he had learnt during training in his classroom, he observed significant improvement in his students' performance, he reported. This indicates that Zarfan's professional development seems to have impacted his students' learning in terms of their learning gains (Fraser et al., 2007 cited in Evans, 2014). Recalling the experience of this first ever in-service training which he had attended years ago, Zarfan articulated that:

Yes, I've attended many in-service training programmes but one which is worth mentioning is the one arranged by UGC/HEC in 1991 where for the first time I learnt what is student-centred teaching, what is teacher-centred teaching, how can you make your teaching interesting... After that course I found myself totally a changed person and I realized that I know so many other things apart from what I've read about English language and literature. So in this sense that how one can become a successful professional I got from that course/training and it was really beneficial and really inspiring for me (ZI.1)

Following this top-down CPD training, significant intellectual and attitudinal development seemed to have taken place in Zarfan's case (Evans, 2014). His belief about his transformation i.e., perceiving himself *a changed person* and the accompanying *realization* – to use Holloway's term (2005 cited in Evans, 2014, p. 187) resulted after he had found “better ways of doing and explaining things” which ultimately led him to transfer his loyalties to them (p. 187). Moreover, this training seemed to have strongly influenced his belief regarding teaching as a challenging profession coupled with recognition of the significance of

continuous learning and development which this profession required, as Zarfan commented that:

Teaching is a sort of continuous process and every day, every month and every year we need to bring changes and improvement to our teaching by being exposed to different kinds of concepts/notions. And I think one of the best ways to improve our teaching is that we need to have a culture of sitting in/observing each other's classes ... whenever I hear that someone is a good teacher then I feel and I observe his/her class in order to know what kind of teaching he's having (ZI.2)

This also underscores the significance of collegiality for teachers' professional development as is highlighted in the previous research (Beck & Kosnik, 2014). As a result of this growing awareness about the concept of teaching as representing more than merely command on subject-matter knowledge, Zarfan, like Raheem, emphasised the need for pre-service training for university teachers. This also reflected his own realization which he had experienced during his first ever training i.e., his lack of pedagogical knowledge; Zarfan reported that "after graduation these [prospective teachers] don't know as what is teaching or what the requirements of teaching are and what are the problems of students ..." (ZI.2). After they join the teaching profession, he continued, "they come across so many challenges and difficulties". Therefore, he thought it was necessary that some pre-service training or some idea about teaching be offered to newly inducted teachers. Many new teachers, he maintained, enter this profession as novices and are unfamiliar with pedagogical skills. He exemplified this below:

If you take a fresh graduate to the class, he might be very competent, knowledgeable but he's not used to it, he's no practical experience of presenting things ... but when you do a thing for a long time you unconsciously become familiar with all these things (ZI.2)

This suggests that Zarfan believed that newly inducted teachers may be competent in subject-matter knowledge but they lack in pedagogical knowledge or skills or what Shulman (1987) calls pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Apart from the impact of such trainings which had significantly changed his cognition, like Raheem, reading books and other materials also appeared to have contributed in this process of professional learning. Zarfan believed that a teacher should expose himself to new/fresh books as "by studying new books and materials we get new concepts about a topic". This suggests she

had realized the significance of developing theoretical knowledge. This aspect of his learning was also reflected when he commented that:

I think the teacher should do a lot of reading, should go for different kinds of sources and should be very much well-equipped. I mean he should've fresh knowledge about the topic/subject he's going to present in the class (ZI.2)

While Raheem discussed reading as valuable for professional growth, in Zarfan's case, this reading habit was primarily the result of his motivation to further explore some of the new pedagogical concepts e.g., learner-centred teaching and involving students in tasks and activities, which he had discovered in the top-down CPD trainings, as he reported. His growing interest in the CLT approach was one such example which seemed to have resulted from his reading. Zarfan showed his strong support for the CLT approach and this was manifested in his case in him encouraging his students to take liberties with the English language. Articulating this clearly, he believed that students, who wanted to improve their speaking proficiency, "should speak English with [their] class fellows, teachers and relatives" and should not be bothered by "the grammatical structures and patterns as it is meant for communication" (ZI. 2). Within the framework of the CLT approach, he, more like Hasan and Murad, had sketched his role to students in the following way:

. . . a teacher is just like a guide and I'm your guide. I'm just a facilitator and I can recommend good books to you. And based on my observation and experience I can recommend a book that is worth reading book. So a teacher is a facilitator, a guide and I tell them that a teacher is good friend of his/her students. A teacher must be very much friendly with his students so that the students may not show any hesitation if they have to ask questions (ZI.2)

This quote implies Zarfan's intellectual as well as attitudinal development following his exposure to top-down CPD trainings (Evans, 2014). This professional transformation meant a change not only in his core beliefs system about the teacher's role but also in how he wanted to be seen by his students. Accordingly, he appears to be negotiating his *new identity* with his students thus making them aware about what kind of expectations they should have from him.

Observational data related to Zarfan revealed his classroom behaviours largely appeared to match his idealized cognitions. During teaching *Hamlet*, for example, he engaged the students in different group work activities in order to discuss how Shakespeare's concept of tragedy is different from Aristotle's, while he kept on encouraging them by asking questions (ZO.1).

Further, before starting an *Act*, he asked the students to concentrate on what they find interesting or difficult about the characters, whether there is delay or not ... After he finished the *Act*, the students started a whole-class discussion on it, as Zarfan had divided the class into two groups; one was arguing for the delay while the other against delay. This is similar to content and language integrated learning (CLIL), as he was focusing on language as well as content instead of providing a dedicated language or content classroom (Sajda, 2008).

Observational data related to Zarfan revealed him asking the students to work in pairs (of two to three students), after circulating a handout among them, and to look for what they find in the 1st portion and 2nd portion of the sonnet and their relation (ZO.2). During this activity, while the students could easily move to form pairs/groups by turning their chairs to face their classmates (as the students were sitting in rows), Zarfan appeared to be encouraging them to come out of their comfort zone by changing their positions. With a view to motivate students for independent learning, Zarfan also seemed to be encouraging them to get some idea from the linguistic context as well as the overall context of the poem, after they reported their difficulty in comprehending some difficult words (ZO.2). In this class, Zarfan also appeared to be encouraging students' side-questions i.e., explaining briefly the difference between sonnet and novel and ensuring students sitting at the back also participate in the discussion (ZO.2).

Although Zarfan indicated that “the examination requirements and the limitations of time in semester system” (ZSR.1) constrained his efforts to apply more student-centred teaching, he believed that students' academic level improves after they get promoted to the university where, unlike colleges, they do not feel obsessed with getting through exams and obtaining good marks.

Like Murad and Raheem, interview data suggested that Zarfan's professional learning can also be traced back to students' feedback and their contribution in the class. He reported telling his students that “you should bring problems to your teachers, bring challenges for your teachers and this is how teachers also improve” (ZI.1). He strongly believed in “inviting [students'] ideas and whatever knowledge they have about a particular topic which [teacher] have to present” as he thought teaching to be “a two-way process” (ZI.2) which required that students should be encouraged and given enough confidence to actively participate in their

own learning process. Here, Zarfan appears to present a particularly profound belief in professional learning through students' feedback.

Like Raheem, there is also evidence Zarfan's professional learning with regard to lesson planning. For example, sometimes after realizing his lecture presentation was not well-planned then "as a teacher I should, I think, repeat the topic with new preparation and with new planning" (ZI.2), as he reported. However, it is significant to note that not only he believed in learning through students' feedback but he also believed in students' potential to directly learn from whenever he found himself in such situations, as he commented:

You should assign a task to the students, a kind of small activity and tell them that you can consult other sources including recommending some websites and on the next day you ask them to present that topic. It is possible that the students explain and present the topic in a way which the teacher couldn't. They may make it easy or may present it in a different way. It proves a sort of help for the teacher as well as students . . . (ZI.2)

This is very interesting in the sense that, given the Pakistani academic culture where the teacher is considered an incontestable authority (Shamim, 2008), learning from students may hardly be acknowledged and confessed by teachers. However, interview data suggested that professional learning and development had sparked Zarfan's sense of curiosity for more learning and exposure as he commented that "the more you know the more you need to know, the more you know the more you become curious and want to explore other things" (ZI.1). This sense of curiosity and exploration seemed to be the result of his self-reflection and self-evaluation, two other sources of his professional learning and development, as his comment below implies:

Whenever I consciously think about myself as a teacher I always feel that I should have been a far more better teacher than what I'm . . . I'm never so much satisfied with myself (ZI.1)

When prompted to recall his initial year(s) of teaching and compare that with the way he was teaching after twenty years, he responded that "I see a hell of difference. You have set objectives . . . I feel more responsible and I'm always in quest of something new to share with my students...." (ZI.3)

Another area where Zarfan's cognition seemed to have developed was classroom management. Like Hasan, he believed in students' involvement for effective teaching as well as classroom management, as he commented:

I think there can be no life without management; we manage things in our daily life, at our homes and in institutions. As far as classroom management is concerned, I think it is very necessary for every teacher so that he should get hold of all the students in the class" (ZI.3)

He believed effective classroom management required that students' motivational, emotional and affective dimensions be addressed. He thought that "if you let a student remain unmotivated and don't pay your attention it'll become his habit and he'll always lag behind. He'll be ignored and will not show his progress" (ZI.3). He maintained that it must be one of the prime concerns of a teacher to observe if there is a student who is indifferent or mentally absent during lecture. In case of such a student, he added:

the teacher should make the student realize that the teacher is very much particular about it, concerned about it and you see what is the result, the student feels that I'm not unnoticed ... he feels that the teacher gives importance to me . . . sometimes through eye contact you get students' attention, through body language and in this way you can develop a relation with students. A teacher should have firm hold on the students ... (ZI.3)

This implies that with professional experience and trainings Zarfan had grown more attentive to students, both for methodological as well as affective and emotional reasons. Here, Zarfan appears similar to Hasan and Raheem who had also grown sensitive about the affective and emotional dimension of students' learning. For Zarfan, effective classroom management meant engaging students in the class, as he commented:

You can also develop interaction among the students ... I divide the class into groups and then I give them some hints/suggestion/points and I tell them that you've to think about it and I make one student the group leader ... the group leader comes and shares and presents the idea of that group (ZI.3)

Such an interactive classroom, he acknowledged, offers numerous opportunities for teachers to learn, as he, articulating his confession, reported that "... and let me admit that in this process of interaction between teacher and students and among students themselves we as teachers learn things from our students" (ZI.2). This underscores Zarfan's openness to learning whether it was coming from students or other sources.

As we have seen (in chapter 5), Zarfan articulated the impact of in-service top-down CPD trainings, particularly the one on *Materials Design and Use*, on his cognition which also shaped his classroom behaviour (ZSR.3). Following this training, he reported, he discovered new knowledge and skills about teaching, about designing, selecting, and adapting teaching materials, as well as the significance of learner-centred approaches. This experience had changed him as a professional, as he had realized that effective teaching called for knowledge and skills about how a wide range of materials be exploited and learners exposed to them, with a view to offer them varied language learning experiences (ZSR.3). This suggests his cognition regarding materials had shifted away from, what is referred to as *transmission approach* (Shawer, 2010), and had embraced a new approach to materials (Evans, 2014). Very similar to Raheem, he had realized, what Evans (2014) refers as, “the individual’s recognition of something as a ‘better way’ of ‘doing’ thing”, (where doing refers to both mental as well as physical activity) (p. 187).

Zarfan’s intellectual and attitudinal development related to materials, as highlighted above in chapter 5, was found matching his classroom behaviours. His creative and liberal use of materials from different sources, including painting and the internet, appeared to show his significant behavioural development. For example, he offered exposure to students about the native English-speakers’ accent, pronunciation and intonation through a video (ZO.2), eliciting students’ responses on different paintings (ZO.3) and engaging them in role plays to highlight the *Illocutionary Act* and *Perlocutionary Act*. This clearly reflects he had effectively transferred his intellectual and attitudinal development related to materials into his behavioural development (see details in Section: 5.4.4).

However, his top-down CPD trainings, experience and students’ were not the only sources which explain Zarfan’s professional learning and development. He also constantly engaged himself in, what is referred to as, reflective practice (Schön, 1983). Sharing his reflections after participating in his first ever professional development course, Zarfan commented that:

I really realized that I didn’t know so many things about teaching. So modern teacher knows about pedagogy, he knows about the art of teaching, he knows as to what are the benefits of a student-centred activities in the class (ZSR.1)

Such reflections leading to professional realization, as is evident in his quote, are part of the lives of professionals seeking improvement (Evans, 2014). This also included his reflecting on his PLLEs. Like the other three teachers (i.e. Hasan, Murad and Raheem), reflecting on his PLLEs (Borg, 2006), which had dominated his teaching for quite some time, also seemed to have been instrumental in bringing about this new change. The “better way” to teach (Evans, 2014), as he found it, came in sharp contrast with the old traditional ways through which he himself was taught, as he reported:

You know our teachers at school and college level had to tell the things and the students had to remember them. This was the technique and it's still in practice. You see a teacher tells things and the students remembers or a teacher read out from the text and then translate that into Urdu or Pashto etc, I mean GTM, ... (ZSR.2)

This mode of teaching and learning prevailed because, as he added, “I think they didn't have that awareness” (ZSR.2) as a teacher had just to deliver things to students in an impressive way. It seems that professional learning and development had triggered Zarfan's constant involvement in reflective practice, including reflecting on his PLLEs, which ultimately led him to abandon what he believed in no more. As a reflective practitioner (Schön, 1986), he had also learnt, like Raheem, the importance of understanding the students' level and the nature of a topic, before presenting it in the class, he maintained. A highly theoretical and philosophical topic, for example, would require the teacher to give a lecture so as to make the students' concepts clear, he commented. In contrast, he further added:

There're topics which you can present in a far better way by adopting a student-centred approach. For example, you assign a task to students; you make them sit in groups and get them involve in conversation, you can develop their speaking skills by making them practice that and tell them that you're not supposed to use your mother tongue... (ZSR.2)

Zarfan's learning from informal bottom-up sources included the staffroom culture in which he used to spend sufficient time with his colleagues from the same department (i.e. English department). Explaining this, he reported that “the university staffroom culture is more encouraging and more inspiring as compared to colleges”, as he had served in colleges for almost 20 years before he joined the university (Filed notes).

To summarize, Zarfan's professional development had mainly resulted from in-service top-down CPD trainings as well as from informal bottom-up sources. However, like the other

three teachers (i.e. Hasan, Murad, Raheem), his PLLEs had played a significant role in shaping his cognitions and behaviours. Similar to his intellectual and attitudinal development, his observations revealed significant behavioural development. This implies his idealized cognitions were largely in harmony with his situated cognitions. Like Raheem's case highlighted above, this also implies that experience and the inner drive to learn played a decisive role in Zarfán's professional development.

7.3. Discussion

7.3.1. What might be the teachers' idealized cognitions with regard to their continuing professional development?

7.3.1.1. Overview

It is evident from the interview data presented above that, following their professional learning and development, significant growth in the intellectual and attitudinal dimensions of their professional development was reported across all the four teachers in this study. CPD training programmes leading to teachers' intellectual and attitudinal growth is a widely reported finding in the previous literature (Ashraf & Rarieya, 2008; Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Hanks, 2015; Hassan, 2016; Huong & Yeo, 2016; Li & Edwards, 2014; Mohamed, 2006; Richards et al., 2001; Wyatt, 2010, 2011; Wyatt & Ager, 2016). However, the sources which had triggered these intellectual and attitudinal changes and the nature of impact related to various aspects of their professionalism varied from teacher to teacher. For example, while Hasan and Zarfán's intellectual and attitudinal development had occurred mainly as a result of their participation in top down CPD trainings, Murad and Raheem's cases foregrounds the impact of informal CPD sources like learners' feedback, reading books and support from colleagues which had predominantly contributed to their growing intellectuality and attitudes.

7.3.1.2. Intellectual and attitudinal development from top-down CPD: Hasan and Zarfán

Hasan and Zarfán's intellectual and attitudinal growth (Evans, 2014) reflected their professional awareness. Such awareness of teachers has also been reported by previous studies (Hassan, 2016; Wyatt & Ager, 2016). There is evidence that the intellectual and

attitudinal development of these teachers occurred in their common areas of teaching i.e., the nature of teaching, classroom management and materials. Hasan's growing awareness is reflected in statement like being "better equipped" and found "a new way of teaching" which reportedly informed his classroom behaviour; it is argued by Evans (2014) that this can happen. Similar awareness is reflected in Zarfan's case that teaching is a challenging profession which requires teachers to engage in continuous learning and development. This intellectual development broadened his perspectives regarding teaching as he came to realize that it was more than just a command on the subject-matter knowledge. His pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) seems to have developed significantly (Shulman, 1987). Research informing us about the impact of professional development on teachers' learning, as Hasan and Zarfan's cases highlight, can provide insights into what actually constitutes professional development (Craft, 2002).

With regard to classroom management, the rationalistic and comprehensive dimensions of Hasan's intellectual development (Evans, 2014) are evident as he was able to rationalize and explain the concept of classroom management and reported its significance. This learning also highlighted the perceptual dimension of his attitudinal development (Evans, 2014) as he had come to believe that effective teaching was not possible without a well-managed classroom where addressing learners' motivational aspects are prioritized. A similar perceptual dimension of Zarfan's attitudinal development is apparent in relation to classroom management as he believed in maximum students' involvement in the class which could be ensured through addressing the motivational, emotional and affective dimensions of their learning. Zarfan's new teaching philosophy corresponds with the argument that learning to teach involves an array of complex cognitive, affective and behavioural changes (Calderhead, 1988).

With regard to materials, while there is evidence of the rationalistic and comprehensive dimensions of Hasan's growing intellectuality (Evans, 2014), Zarfan's case offers only the comprehensive dimension of his intellectuality, as he found himself transformed after the training (Evans, 2011). Intellectual growth related to materials, which result from top-down CPD trainings, have been highlighted in the previous literature (Ashraf & Rarieya, 2008; Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Richards et al., 2001; Wyatt, 2011).

However, with regard to the CLT method, growing intellectuality and attitudes were found to have resulted from different CPD sources i.e. top down CPD trainings in Hasan's case and informal sources in Zarfán's. The perceptual and evaluative dimensions of Hasan's attitudinal development (Evans, 2014) are apparent in relation to the CLT method as it had found a place in his belief system based on his further evaluation and reflection of his previous method/s (Evans, 2011; Schön, 1983). The perceptual dimension of his attitudinal growth can also be found in his developing role identity related to himself and his learners. The result of acquiring a new identity meant that certain attributes related to him like *controller* and *dictator* were replaced by *guide* and *facilitator*, thus changing the entire perspective from where learners were going to be viewed (Evans, 2011). Similar attitudinal development of teachers related to the CLT method and role of teacher occurred as have been highlighted by previous studies (Huong & Yeo, 2016; Richards et al., 2001; Wyatt, 2009 & 2010).

Similarly, certain attributes related to students like *passive* and *recipients* were replaced by *active* and *participants*, thus reflecting the enormous value which Hasan attached to learners and his belief in their potential (Evans, 2011). Moreover, there is evidence of this growth in all the four dimensions i.e. epistemological, rationalistic, comprehensive and analytical of his intellectual development (Evans, 2014). Teachers' attitudinal development with regard to their learners which resulted from their CPD trainings are reported by Hanks (2015) and Richards et al. (2001).

In contrast to Hasan, Zarfán's exposure to the CLT method had been the result of his reading books. However, similar to Hasan, the perceptual dimension of his attitudinal development is evident in his developing a new identity i.e. *a guide* and *facilitator*. Both these teachers had developed new identities related to their own roles as teachers and to learners, a finding that corresponds with previous research studies which reported similar growth of teachers related their own roles and learners (Richards et al., 2001; Wyatt, 2010).

However, there is evidence that contribution to their intellectual and attitudinal development had also come from some informal CPD sources including discussions with colleagues (in Hasan's case), a finding widely reported in previous research studies (Ashraf & Rarieya, 2008; Banegas, 2011; Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Huong & Yeo, 2016; Li & Edwards, 2014; Richards et al., 2001) and reading books and students' feedback (in Zarfán's case). Compared

to Hasan, Zarfán's case reveals that informal CPD sources also played a significant role in shaping his intellectuality and attitudes (Evans, 2014). For example, it is worth noting that Zarfán's habit of reading books was basically the result of his motivation to further explore various pedagogical concepts he had been exposed to during top down CPD trainings e.g. learner-centred teaching. It is even more significant to note that this reading brought him increased exposure to the CLT approach, thus further adding to the intellectual and attitudinal growth which primarily had occurred through top down CPD trainings. A point worthy of attention is that Zarfán's case highlights that there is a sense of continuity as far as his professional development is concerned (Evans, 2011, 2014). His initial learning from top down CPD courses sparked off his informal sources like reading and learners' feedback, which, coupled with significant contributions from his self-reflection and self-evaluation (Schön, 1983), led to further development.

7.3.1.3. Intellectual and attitudinal development from bottom-up CPD: Murad and Raheem

Murad and Raheem's cases reveal their intellectual and attitudinal development (Evans, 2014) resulted predominantly from informal CPD sources including learners' feedback (both in Murad and Raheem's case) and reading books and academic journals, internet browsing and support from colleagues (in Raheem's case). There is evidence of the motivational dimension of Murad's attitudinal development (Evans, 2014) in the way he responded to learners' feedback. The perceptual dimension of his attitudinal growth through learners' feedback included his changing belief about his own role and that of his learners. His belief about himself as *teacher-as-facilitator* and students as *active-participants* seem to have developed (Evans, 2014); similar growth has already been highlighted in previous research studies (Richards et al., 2001; Wyatt, 2010)

Secondly, Murad's intellectual development through learners' feedback had a multiplier effect as self-reflection and self-evaluation (Evans, 2011; Schön, 1983) followed which led to more learning and development through taking the opinions of experts. The analytical dimension of Murad's intellectuality (Evans, 2014) can also be found in his reported ability to plan and revise his lesson objectives. These aspects of his CPD i.e. growing intellectuality and attitudes

are also apparent in his maximal position regarding L1 (Macaro, 2001). However, this growth related to TL and L1 had resulted from a top down CPD source i.e. his US-based training.

Among the bottom up CPD sources leading to Raheem's professional growth, there are evaluative and perceptual dimensions of his attitudinal growth (Evans, 2014) i.e. his preference for books over internet as he believed the former to be more reliable than the latter. However, there is evidence that significant attitudinal growth had also been the result of top down CPD trainings especially in relation to learner-centred teaching, pedagogy, teacher role, materials and grammar teaching. It is significant to note that the transformation of his own role i.e. his self-perception and identity as well as his perceptions towards students had changed. Quite similarly to Hasan and Zarfan, he had started viewing himself in the new role *as a facilitator* and perceiving his students *as independent learners* which implies he had moved away from his earlier role *as a controller or dictator* and learners' *as dependent learners* (Evans, 2011). This changing self-perception and identity also highlight his inclination towards the emotional and affective dimensions of his learners (Calderhead, 1988).

Raheem's growing intellectuality and attitudes are also evident in relation to materials as his old knowledge and belief about materials had been replaced by new knowledge and beliefs (Holloway, 2005), the kind of development reported in previous studies (Ashraf & Rarieya, 2008; Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Wyatt, 2011). In this case, the perceptual dimension of his attitudinal growth (Evans, 2014) reinforced his changing perception about himself *as a facilitator* and students *as independent learners* as he wanted to motivate them to learn independently through a variety of sources. Similarly, his attitudinal development can be found in relation to grammar teaching. The perceptual dimension of his attitudinal growth is reflected in his preference to teach grammar implicitly as against his previous practice of teaching it explicitly. Such changes in teachers' attitudes in relation to their grammar teaching following their CPD trainings have also been highlighted by previous studies (Mohamed, 2006; Richards et al., 2001).

The teachers' intellectual and attitudinal development resulting from the top down CPD trainings as well as informal and bottom-up sources is significant in itself as this is considered crucial for their subsequent behavioural development (Evans, 2014). However, due to a lack of focus at developing teachers' practical skills, as most top down CPD trainings usually

suffer from, such intellectual and attitudinal growth is unlikely to impact their classroom-based behaviours. This is likely to result in the gap between teachers' idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours (Borg, 2006). The next stage of analysis (the section below) offers some insights into this issue as to how far these teachers' intellectual and attitudinal development reflected in their classroom behaviours.

7.3.2. If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour, what are the characteristics of these?

These four teachers present four different cases in terms of the presence or absence of gaps between their idealized and situated cognitions. This presence or absence of gap in case of each teacher also highlights the degree of their behavioural development. Teachers' behavioural growth, which mostly resulted from their top down CPD trainings, has also been reported by previous research studies (Hanks, 2015; Li & Edwards, 2014; Mohamed, 2006; Wyatt, 2009, 2010, 2011). While the classroom behaviours of three out of four teachers (i.e. Hasan, Raheem and Zarfan) revealed a match between their idealized and situated cognitions, one teacher's (i.e. Murad) classroom behaviour highlighted a gap between his idealized and situated cognition.

With regard to the cases of Hasan, Raheem and Zarfan, there is a good deal of observational evidence of their growth in all the four dimensions of behavioural development i.e. the processual, procedural, productive and competential (Evans, 2014). Some common areas in which their behavioural development is evident are their maintaining the role of a guide and facilitator, engaging students in different activities and tasks, facilitating them in their independent learning and making creative use of materials. Teachers' behavioural development in these areas has been highlighted by previous literature (Li & Edwards, 2014; Mohamed, 2006; Wyatt, 2009, 2010, 2011). Moreover, Hasan and Zarfan also shared their behavioural development in relation to the CLT method. Both these teachers remind us of Wyatt's (2009) teacher, Sarah, whose practical knowledge of CLT (i.e. her behavioural dimension) developed significantly during the course. Similar to Sarah, Hasan and Zarfan's case highlight not only their growing intellectuality and attitudes but also their behavioural growth (Evans, 2014). However, there are other areas too in which they differed. While Hasan's case highlights significant behavioural development in that he addressed the affective

and emotional dimensions of his students' learning (Bloom, 1954; Lang, 2003) and making use of his classroom management skills, Raheem's case demonstrates his behavioural growth in his inductive approach to grammar teaching. Here Raheem's behavioural growth in relation to grammar reminds us of the teachers in Li & Edwards' (2014) and Mohamed's (2006) studies. Similarly, Hasan, Raheem and Zarfah's creative use of materials (i.e. their behavioural development) finds a parallel in Wyatt's (2011) study. Their use of a wide range of materials drawn from different sources reflects that notable behavioural growth (Evans, 2014) had occurred, as is the case with a teacher in Wyatt's (2011) study.

Murad's case presents a sharp contrast to these three teachers discussed above, as his idealized and situated cognitions were largely found incompatible with each other. There is a good deal of observational evidence highlighting this gap. This includes a lack of frequent teacher-students and students-students interaction and learner autonomy as well as his occasional use of the L1, features which apparently contradicted his idealized cognitions. However, such gaps should not necessarily be regarded as something unexpected, as claiming there are likely to be direct relationships between idealized and situated cognitions is not always possible (Burns et al., 2015). The gap between Murad's idealized and situated cognitions reminds us of the initial gap in Sarah's case too, as Wyatt's (2009) study highlights. Similar to Murad, her first two observed lessons were found teacher-fronted. However, whereas Sarah's third observation revealed her meaningful interaction with students and her facilitative role, all Murad's three observations revealed a lack of his frequent and meaningful interaction with students. Hence, Murad's case also highlights that his intellectual and attitudinal development which had resulted from top down CPD trainings and informal sources did not lead to his classroom-based behavioural development (Evans, 2014). Although there is some evidence of his behavioural growth related to students' involvement in the *Communication Skills* and *The Sounds of Language* classes, it seems to be overshadowed by the huge amount of his intellectual and attitudinal development which could not be reflected in his classroom behaviour.

Teachers' behavioural developments are usually informed by their, either consciously or unconsciously, intellectual and/or attitudinal developments (Evans, 2014). However, such behavioural developments may also be the result of external enforcement or institutional

pressure, as Evans argues. Moreover, many contextual factors, including socio-cultural, institutional and personal factors, mediate this process of teachers translating their intellectual and attitudinal growth into their behavioural development (Borg, 2003). The next section offers some insights into such contextual factors which mediate the process of teachers translating their intellectual and attitudinal development into their classroom behaviours.

7.3.3. How can gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour be explained?

Data from the stimulated recall discussions help offer explanations for the gaps identified.

Some of the contextual and institutional challenges facing these teachers, particularly Hasan and Zarfán, to translate their intellectual and attitudinal growth into their behavioural development (Evans, 2014), specifically in relation to classroom management and learner-centred teaching, were students' low and mixed levels, lack of students' motivation, large classrooms, examination requirement and the limitations of time in the semester system. However, PLLEs also seem to have been instrumental in bringing about this change in both Hasan and Zarfán's behaviours (Borg, 2006; Sanchez, 2010), as they had found a "better way", as Zarfán termed it, and which came in sharp contrast with the old traditional way through which they themselves were taught (Evans, 2014). While Hasan's personal commitment, which was partly inspired from his PLLEs, reinforced his efforts to continue against all odds, Zarfán's motivation was the result of his firm belief that students' academic level had improved with time.

With regard to Murad, the gap between his idealized and situated cognitions related to his teaching method/s seemed to have been the result of his belief of using different strategies for literature and language classes; his teaching of literature classes also appeared to correspond with content and language integrated learning (CLIL) (Sajda, 2008). Despite his awareness, which had resulted from professional trainings and reflections on PLLEs, to use a more dynamic and interactive method, his cognition about using different strategies for literature and language classes and time constraint were factors which appeared to explain the gap. Similarly, the gap related to his use of the TL/L1 appeared to be the result of his personal attachment with his mother tongue (Pashto), as well as his intentional efforts to clarify

students' concepts and build positive rapport, two of the three reasons for L1 use identified in the previous literature (Littlewood & Yu, 2009).

Without exception, the significant influence of PLLEs on these teachers' cognitions is obvious, as is highlighted by teacher cognition research (Borg, 2006; Sanchez, 2010). Interestingly, in case of all the four teachers, PLLEs significantly and positively contributed in their classroom behaviours. This influence seemed to have strengthened their intellectual and attitudinal growth and ultimately helped them translate that growth into their classroom behaviours (Evans, 2014).

7.4. Conclusions

In summary, this chapter has highlighted, in line with previous studies, that teachers' professional development leads to significant growth in both their intellectual and attitudinal aspects of professionalism. Like the previous studies, this chapter also reported that teachers' behavioural growth was mainly the outcome of their top down CPD trainings. Also, this chapter revealed a range of contextual and institutional challenges these teachers encountered which significantly hampered their efforts to translate their intellectual and attitudinal growth into their classroom behaviour. Such challenges were found particularly when it came to their skills related to classroom management and learner-centred teaching. Some of the specific implications which emerged from this chapter are given below.

Teachers need to be engaged in bottom-up forms of CPD especially reflective practice which will promote more evidence-based, dialogic learning, as highlighted in earlier research. The HEC and universities should work together towards empowering teachers to take greater control of their CPD by providing them exposure to various forms of bottom-up strategies e.g. action research and exploratory practice. This has the potential to translate individual professionalism into collective professionalism thus transforming schools, colleges and universities into learning communities. Policy makers, curriculum-developers and other administrative officials at the HEC level must take up the responsibility along with teacher educators to develop a congenial environment for learning and growth through bottom-up CPD.

Chapter 8. Conclusion

8.1. Introduction

This qualitative case study was mainly designed to investigate Pakistani university English language teachers' cognition about the issues relevant in their profession. As well as exploring these cognitions, the study also intended to identify gaps in these teachers' idealized and situated cognitions and seek explanations for these gaps. Accordingly, data were collected using interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall and field notes. Techniques of interpretive content analysis were used for data reduction and an inductive-deductive approach was used for generating themes from the data. Three themes emerged as a result. These themes are: teachers' cognitions regarding the curriculum materials, their use of the learners' L1 in language classrooms and their CPD. Detailed analyses and discussions of these themes were presented in the previous chapters.

This chapter mainly focuses on concluding these discussions and offering solutions for some of the issues identified through analysis of the data. First, the themes are individually related to each of the three research questions which follow implications of the findings. Second, the relationship of these themes with each other is given. This is followed by highlighting the strengths of this study and its contributions to knowledge. Before concluding the chapter, limitations of the study are also discussed along with discussion of the scope of the study for future research.

8.2. Research Questions and findings

Research Question No 1:

- What might be the teachers' idealized cognitions?

Theme1: Curriculum Materials

- a) The idealized cognitions of all the four teachers appeared to support curriculum-development and making approaches as they are classified in the literature (Shawer, 2010).

These teachers appeared to have sufficient awareness and understanding regarding the benefits of offering multi-source of input-materials to learners in the class so as to make their language learning experience rich and varied. However, this awareness, rather than being directly linked with their cognitions related to teaching materials, seemed to be stemming more from, and related to, their other cognitions. These other cognitions, about language teaching and learning, the CLT method, learner-centred teaching, role of teacher in the class, students' motivation and English teacher, appeared to shape their current idealized cognitions about curriculum materials. This suggests that teachers in this context lacked theoretical knowledge about curriculum materials which might lead to a range of issue related to materials. This finding also suggests that there was a lack of ownership being offered to these teachers by the university or the HEC with regard to the curriculum.

Theme 2: TL & L1 use

- b) The idealized cognitions of these teachers supported the exclusive use of the TL i.e. the virtual position (Macaro, 2011).

As with many teachers in the previous studies (for detail see 6.4.1), these teachers argued against the classroom use of L1. They indicated it would affect the students to improve their English language proficiency (Hasan), reduce the comprehensible input available (Murad) and interfere with TL acquisition (Waseem).

This implies that teachers' preference for using only the TL may have been chiefly the result of their cognitions about CLT and their professional trainings during which they had been exposed to Krashen and Terrell's (1983) natural approach. Therefore, they were staunch believers of the 'monolingual principle' (Howatt, 1984). This suggests these teachers lacked awareness and understanding related to the TL and L1 use and thus their idealized cognitions reflected the 'Only English' principle prevalent in many ESL/EFL contexts.

Theme 3: CPD

- c) The idealized cognitions of these teachers revealed that both top-down in-service CPD trainings and informal sources including students' feedback, reading books,

discussions with colleagues as well as their self-reflection and self-evaluation had significantly contributed to their CPD.

This suggests that these teachers were aware of the significance of CPD, as they appeared to be making conscious efforts to constantly improve themselves as professionals (Evans, 2014). The cases of Hasan and Zarfah (for detail see 7.2.1 & 7.2.4), for example, are glaring examples of forward-looking professionals. The professional growth of these four teachers, particularly through top-down CPD trainings, had changed their idealized cognitions with regard to specific curricular domains e.g. classroom management, CLT, materials and learner-centred teaching. In line with current understanding, these teachers' CPD appeared to have supported positive changes in their prior knowledge and beliefs (Johnson, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015).

Further, this change process was also supported and strengthened by their PLLEs, as the cases of Hasan and Murad (for detail see 7.2.1 & 7.2.2) highlight. This underscores the significant impact of PLLEs on teachers' cognitions and implies that such language learning experiences can have a positive as well as a negative reinforcement on teachers' cognitions and practices which ultimately affect students' learning outcomes (Evans, 2014).

d) The idealized cognitions of these teachers revealed their intellectual and/or attitudinal development (Evans, 2014) with regard to specific curricular domains including classroom management, the CLT approach, their own roles and that of their students, materials, lesson planning, and learner-centred teaching.

This finding is significant and encouraging as it highlights the teachers' growing intellectuality and attitudes related to specific curricular areas, both from top-down CPD trainings as well as informal sources, as reported in the literature (for detail see 7.3.1.2 & 7.3.1.3). However, while intellectual and/or attitudinal growth is significant and may initiate the process of professional development, lack of an observational evidence makes it difficult to predict how far such development translates to behavioural development to enhance students' learning outcomes (Evans, 2014) (for detail see 3.2.5.1-2).

This finding, while suggesting that CPD courses seem to draw mostly on top-down models and contribute only towards teachers' intellectual and attitudinal development, calls for more research to be conducted on how teachers translate their intellectual and/or attitudinal development to behavioural development (for detail see 3.2.5.3 & 3.2.5.4).

Research Question No 2:

- **If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours, what are the characteristics of these?**

Theme1: Curriculum Materials

- a) The classroom behaviours of these teachers revealed that, contrary to their idealized cognitions supporting curriculum development and making, they followed three different approaches to curriculum i.e. transmission, development and making, as is reported in the literature (Shawer, 2010) (for detail see 3.3.9.1).

Despite following three different curriculum approaches, there was no evidence in the data that these teachers were aware of the effective use of features related to these approaches; the terms curriculum transmission, development and making (Shawer, 2010) were not used by these teachers. This implies that teachers in this context and beyond might not be able to use them where and when they are truly required. For example, there might be a situation in which a teacher will need to only transmit the curriculum but s/he might be more inclined towards curriculum making or developing.

- b) The classroom behaviours of these teachers appeared to reveal there was a gap between the idealized and situation cognitions of one teacher i.e. Sana. Contrary to her idealized cognitions supporting features which were closer to the curriculum development approach, Sana's situated cognitions appeared to reveal she followed the curriculum-transmission approach.

Sana's observations appeared to reveal her close reliance on the textbook i.e. the curriculum-transmission approach. Contrary to her reported claims, she did not appear to engage students in class activities and to contextualise the language as well as to teach grammar inductively. Thus there was an apparent mismatch between her idealized and situated cognitions as she

followed a curriculum-transmission approach while reporting a belief in curriculum-development approach. This implies that Sana had sufficient theoretical understanding about the benefits of using a range of materials to facilitate students' language learning experiences. However, she lacked practical skills to translate that theoretical knowledge to her classroom practices. This also suggests her lack of experience and exposure to CPD trainings.

As a result, I would argue, such gaps between teachers' cognitions and behaviours might also lead to gaps between official curriculum policies and classroom practices, which would negatively impact students' learning outcomes (Evans, 2014). Further, Sana's case suggests that teachers' idealized cognitions might not be translated to their situated cognitions as the latter might dominate the former when teachers are seriously faced with contextual realities (for detail see 3.3.9.5).

Theme 2: TL & L1 use

- c) The classroom behaviour of these teachers appeared to reveal that, contrary to their idealized cognitions supporting the virtual position (Macaro, 2001), they adopted three different positions i.e. the virtual, the maximal and the optimal positions (Macaro, 2001). Accordingly, there were minor as well as major gaps between their idealized and situated cognitions.

These teachers (i.e. Hasan, Murad and Waseem) appeared to adopt the virtual, the maximal and the optimal position respectively. Hasan was found to use the TL almost exclusively i.e. the virtual position, in order to improve students' English proficiency. He ensured the use of the TL in the class proceedings by offering support to the students whenever he felt they needed it. Murad appeared to use a mixture of TL and L1 in his classes, in line with the maximal position (Macaro, 2001). While he occasionally used the L1 (mostly Pashto), this appeared to consolidate conceptual understanding and to maintain a positive rapport, two of the three main purposes for using L1 identified by Littlewood & Yu (2009). Waseem used the L1 (mostly Urdu) more extensively than Murad; it accounted for 15-40% of his teacher talk in each lesson, in line with the optimal position (Macaro, 2001). He used it primarily for maintaining discipline as well as for ensuring conceptual understanding, two of the three main functions of L1 use identified by Littlewood & Yu (2009).

This suggests that teachers, who adopt only one position i.e. either the virtual or the optimal in the language classroom, might deprive students from the beneficial uses of the other position/s. Teachers, for example, who are making exclusive TL use i.e. the virtual position, might deprive students from the beneficial uses of L1 for gaining conceptual clarity and procedural purposes (Littlewood & Yu, 2009). Similarly, teachers who are making excessive use of L1 i.e. the optimal position, in a foreign language classroom might deprive students from getting sufficient input of the TL (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

Theme 3: CPD

d) While the observations of three out of four teachers appeared to reveal that sufficient behavioural development had taken place, one teacher's (i.e. Murad) observation appeared to reveal a gap between his situated and idealized cognitions i.e. his intellectual and/or attitudinal development had not sufficiently translated to his behavioural development.

The intellectual and/or attitudinal growth of these teachers was not found to have sufficiently translated to their behavioural development in all four cases (Evans, 2014). The gap between the idealized and situated cognitions of Murad suggests that, despite having knowledge and skills that could be utilized for enhancing learning in the classroom, he could not fully capitalise on these intellectual and attitudinal resources.

Despite his considerable intellectual and attitudinal development resulting from reflecting on students' feedback and top-down trainings, Murad did not appear to have truly translated this into his behavioural development. This indicates, to some extent, a gap as his situated cognitions did not appear to truly match his idealized cognitions. Contrary to his belief supporting an exclusive TL use, a more interactive classroom with students' involvement and playing himself as a facilitator, Murad's classrooms were found to be lacking in frequent teacher-students interaction, students' involvement in different tasks and activities, learner autonomy as well as his occasional use of L1.

This implies, I would argue, that there is a lack of practical orientation in the top-down CPD courses offered by the HEC and other international donors like the US Consulate and the British Council. The strength of this argument should be assessed in the light of Hassan

(2016), in the same Pakistani university context, who reports teachers' discontent with regard to CPD courses, which offer no or insufficient focus on how they can be implemented in the classroom.

Research Question No 3:

- **How can gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour be explained?**

Theme1: Curriculum Materials

- a) Some of the reasons for the discrepancies between their idealized and situated cognitions included: students' textbooks orientation, time shortage, heavy workload, lack of students' English proficiency, examination requirement, large classrooms and their mobility to different departments/Institutes for taking classes.

The above factors sufficiently explain the gap between Sana's idealized and situated cognitions and are widely reported in previous literature (Nunan, 1992; Kuzborska, 2011; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007). However, this gap might also be the result of her lack of experience and exposure to top-down CPD trainings. An implication of this finding may be that teachers' inability to fully put into practice their idealized cognitions due to the reasons given above may end up in teachers' losing interest and not doing further experimentation and innovation in their classrooms. Some of the reasons for the minor gaps between these teachers' idealized and situated cognitions could possibly be attributed to the influence of the prevailing teaching-learning culture in Pakistan in which textbook is treated unconditionally, as Raheem's initial interview data suggest (for detail see 5.2.2).

An implication of this finding may be the teachers' heavy reliance on the textbooks despite their considerable awareness regarding material's adaptation, exploitation, and supplementation. This, in turn, may negatively influence students' learning and deprive them of the opportunities to get exposure to a variety of materials serving different purposes. Teachers, like Sana, following a transmission approach appears to be influenced by their own beliefs, mode of assessment and learners' needs as is highlighted in previous studies (for detail see 3.3.9.2). These teachers stand in contrast to the curriculum-developers and makers

(i.e. Maria, Raheem and Zarfan) who appeared to be influenced by a free curriculum policy, their experience, professional trainings and personal interest (for detail see 3.3.9.3)

Theme 2: TL & L1 use

- b) Some of the reasons explaining the gaps between these teachers' idealized and situated cognition included the expression of their identity, their lack of self-awareness and the fact that their idealized cognitions about some aspects of the teacher's role appeared to dominate others.

With regard to TL/L1 use, these teachers adopted three different positions i.e. the virtual, the maximal and optimal (Macaro, 2001) for different reasons. Hasan appeared to adopt the virtual position in order to improve students' English proficiency. Although his concern about the affective dimension of students' learning led him to allow some L1 use by learners, he frequently encouraged TL use in the class. Murad appeared to adopt the maximal position as he used a mixture of TL and L1. His occasional use of the L1 (mostly Pashto), while appearing to consolidate conceptual understanding and to maintain a positive rapport, two of the three main purposes for using L1 identified by Littlewood & Yu (2009), was also the expression of his own identity. Waseem appeared to adopt the optimal position as he used the L1 (mostly Urdu) more extensively than Murad; it accounted for 15-40% of his teacher talk in each lesson. This optimal position appeared to result from the students' limited language proficiency. Waseem's lack of experience led him to make extensive L1 use for discipline purposes and his belief to sufficiently explain and clarify students' concepts.

An implication of this finding may be that teachers may consider these reasons as valid justifications which may lead to their L1 use in the class beyond the point recommended by the experts in the field. This may further lead to students getting insufficient comprehensible input, as is recommended by Krashen & Terrell (1983).

Theme: 3 Teachers' CPD

- c) The stimulated recall interviews of these teachers highlighted that some contextual and institutional challenges, including students' low and mix level, lack of students' motivation, examination requirements, large classrooms, time shortage

and the enormous physical exertion following their constant mobility to other departments/institutes across the university especially during summer semester, thwarted their efforts to truly translate their intellectual and attitudinal development into their behavioural development.

The presence of such valid reasons may put the teachers in complacency and even in cases where these issues could be avoided the teachers might consider them as enough excuses for not fully translating their strengths into practices. Moreover, this could also lead to raising the feelings of frustration and de-motivation in the teachers. In a long run, when the teachers are not able to apply their newly gained intellectual knowledge and developed skills in practice these skills might gradually weaken and a developmental retardation might occur.

- d) The gaps between these teachers' idealized and situated cognitions also appeared to be the result of the nature of a topic or subject these teachers were teaching; this significantly determined the extent to which their intellectual and/or attitudinal growth could be translated into their behavioural development.

Such type of awareness on the part of teachers might offer benefits for students learning outcomes due to the teachers' knowledge of the contextually appropriate use of their skills. This gap suggests these teachers were mindful about achieving harmony between different components of their teaching (e.g. materials, methodology, learners and objectives), as Tomlinson (2012) recommends (for detail see 3.3.2).

- e) Some explanations for the gaps or otherwise were related to these teachers' PLLEs, which had significant influence in shaping their cognitions related to their role as teacher, pedagogy and teaching skills thus accelerated their professional growth. In other words PLLEs seem to have contributed significantly in translating these teachers' idealized cognitions to their classroom behaviours.

The significant influence of PLLEs on their cognitions and practices implies that teachers with unfavourable PLLEs might negatively impact students learning outcomes. For instance, the harsh treatment which Hassan had received from teachers during school days (for detail see 7.3.3) may have been negatively exploited.

8.3. Recommendations:

8.3.1. Curriculum materials:

The idealized cognitions of these teachers appeared to be shaped by their other cognitions, implying that teachers in this context and beyond might not be able to use them where and when they are truly required. It is recommended that in-service CPD trainings focusing on curriculum materials be offered to teachers. This exposure to public theory on materials will offer these teachers insights not only about curriculum-making and development approaches but also curriculum-transmission (Shawer, 2010). Since any change in teachers' practices results, directly or indirectly, from their idealized cognitions (Richards et al., 2001), it is argued that such trainings would improve their classroom behaviours too (Evans, 2014). The possibility of this theoretical knowledge informing their classroom practices is not hard to understand, as Wyatt (2011) highlights.

Top-down CPD trainings on curriculum materials should be offered to novice teachers like Sana to help them develop consistency between their cognitions and practices. The universities need to encourage and implement a culture of sharing and dialogic learning among the teachers (Mann & Walsh, 2013). This will facilitate inexperienced teachers, like Sana, in terms of taking benefit from the expert and more experienced colleagues. The universities and HEC should also offer a sense of ownership to these teachers in terms of their engagement in matters related to curriculum. This will ensure their participation at all levels of curriculum-development and policy-making and address the concerns of teachers like Sana (for details see 3.3.9.4).

There is a need for institutional mechanisms e.g. curriculum committees in universities, to guide and encourage teachers to experiment with a variety of relevant, reliable and useful materials in their classes. Such institutional support should be available to teachers through formal as well as informal channels. The latter are likely to motivate teachers more towards a culture of sharing and discussing their experiences with their own colleagues, which, as Hassan (2016) reports, is missing in the Pakistani context. Such a culture of sharing and dialogic learning (Mann & Walsh, 2013) will develop understanding among teachers, particularly novices like Sana, who often rely on textbook due to their lack of experience and

skills (for detail see 5.2.4). Further, a monitoring mechanism should be established in universities to check and encourage the trained teachers to transfer their newly acquired knowledge and skills to their less-experienced counterparts, like Sana, which will enhance the positive outcomes of the trainings.

The teachers were unable to capitalise on their skills of curriculum-making and development because the students showed resistance or signs of anxiety if new material and activities were introduced in their syllabi. To address this issue, the teachers should give orientation to students so that they are aware of the relevance of different activities and materials in their syllabi. Further, given the pivotal role of technology in curriculum development and making, the concerned authorities should ensure availability of state-of-the-art technological devices and facilities like laptops, interactive boards, multimedia projectors, digital libraries in classrooms, as Tomlinson (2012) recommends.

8.3.2. TL & L1 use:

Since these teachers believed in the exclusive TL use, this calls for awareness-raising in the Pakistani higher education sector regarding the significance of using L1, for example, for conceptual clarity and procedural purposes (Littlewood & Yu, 2009). A clear understanding of these issues should be offered to teachers as part of teacher education that is informed by recent understandings of the significance of mother tongue use (Cook, 2007), in relation to virtual, maximal and optimal positions (Macaro, 2001). This awareness about the ‘judicious’ use of the mother tongue, highlighting the three main functions of L1 use identified by Littlewood & Yu (2009), would enhance teachers’ understanding regarding the pedagogical value of L1 use and thus improve some aspects of their students’ learning.

The gaps in these teachers’ idealized and situated cognitions regarding TL/L1 use seemed to be the result of their belief that only the target language should be used for teaching English. Teachers might be feeling hesitant or guilty reporting that they also use the L1 in the classrooms if and when needed. Recent research recommends using L1 in the language classroom, for example, for procedural purposes and conceptual understandings. Raising teachers’ awareness in this regard will be highly beneficial for their own attitudinal development as well as for improving language learning outcomes in the classrooms. This

awareness in teachers about the appropriate use of L1 in the language classroom could also address the issue of excessive use of L1 which minimise the opportunities for learners to be exposed to the target language.

8.3.3. CPD:

Given that these teachers' CPD had been shaped by both top-down trainings as well as informal sources, it is recommended that universities need to offer teachers both formal and informal CPD opportunities in other curricular areas of teaching and learning so as to enhance learning outcomes. The significant impact of PLLEs on these teachers' cognitions implies that they should be acknowledged and incorporated into planning and designing teacher education programmes. Such programmes should offer opportunities to teachers to share their language learning experiences with other participants and bring positive changes in their cognitions, as Freeman & Johnson (2005) highlight.

Given that teachers' cognitions about language teaching and learning are reflected in their classroom practices and any changes in behaviours are the result of changes in beliefs (Burns et al., 2015), there is a need for teacher development courses to offer opportunities to teachers to reflect on their cognitions through reflective diaries and discussions, as previous studies (Ashraf & Rarieya, 2008; Banegas, 2011) highlight, and make their cognitions explicit which will provide more insights into their CPD.

Teachers should monitor how their cognitions and practices are changing over time, as some of these teachers e.g. Murad and Zarfan (for detail see 7.2.2 & 7.2.1), reported such a change. This can be done through reflective journal writing and reflective analysis to share their experiences of positive change which can offer rich source of input for in-service courses and teacher education activities, as previous studies (Banegas, 2011; Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Richards et al., 2001) highlight.

Top-down CPD trainings can trigger informal CPD experiences, as Hasan's and Zarfan's cases highlight (for detail see 7.2.1 & 7.2.4). While it is encouraging to note that these teachers were able to capitalize on informal opportunities too, there is a need for bottom-up models of CPD to be offered to teachers to support them in their CPD (for detail see 3.2.5.5.).

Given the prevalent oral culture in Pakistan in which teachers might be hesitant to reflect on their practices in writing, reflective conversations offer valuable opportunities to teachers to share their experiences and learn from each other. The HEIs should encourage teachers to engage in reflective conversations and discussions which would lead to their intellectual, attitudinal and behavioural development. Such formal and official initiatives coming from institutions including schools, colleges and universities will likely to inform in-service courses and teacher education activities, as is highlighted by previous research (Ashraf & Rarieya, 2008; Richards et al., 2001)

Given the inconsistency between Murad's intellectual/attitudinal and behavioural development, it could be argued that providing trainings specially designed for behavioral development could help in minimizing such gaps. The top-down CPD courses offered by the HEC and other donor agencies should focus more on enabling teachers to translate their intellectual and/or attitudinal development into behavioural development, as Evans (2014) argues. Such CPD courses should also offer dedicated sessions to teachers to share their professional experiences and challenges specifically related to the classroom. This will encourage teachers to tackle classroom-related issues as their colleagues handle in other institutions, as Richards et al (2001) highlight.

Moreover, I would also like to argue that narrowing such gaps (i.e. between teachers' intellectual/attitudinal and behavioural development) to improve classroom learning would be easier than investing efforts at teachers' intellectual and/or attitudinal development. In other words, the task of creating awareness among teachers about their intellectual and/or attitudinal strengths to be utilized to improve students' learning outcomes would be less challenging than the task of focusing on teachers whose intellectual and/or attitudinal development has not even occurred. However, since the relationship between cognition and behaviour is not necessarily always compatible (Burns et al., 2015), therefore, there is a need to understand and focus on those socio-cultural dynamics which shape teachers' cognitions and practices.

8.4. Strengths and Contributions

The aims of this study was to offer understanding about Pakistani university English teachers' cognitions so that policy makers and relevant authorities become aware of the effects of

policy and the educational regulatory approaches and activities on these teachers' cognitions. The significance of these cognitions cannot be ignored because they are translated into teachers' classroom practices and highly influence their performances as well as learning outcomes. Some of the key cognitions of the teachers identified and explained in this study are about:

- The curriculum materials and activities as well as the curriculum developers, curriculum makers and curriculum transmitters in these teachers
- The use of TL and L1 in teachers' classrooms and the impacts of using TL and L1 on learning outcomes
- The professional development opportunities available to these teachers and their intellectual, attitudinal and behavioral development as a result of these trainings.

One of the strengths of this study is that it is not limited to only exploring the cognitions but it also identifies the gaps between the idealized and situated cognitions of the teachers. This could allow the relevant authorities and the policy makers to design specific interventions for narrowing these gaps.

Apart from investigating teachers' cognitions and their classroom practices, this study also explored the various contextual and institutional factors which mediated and significantly shaped the interplay between these teachers' cognition and classroom behaviours. An account of these contextual and institutional factors could inform the stakeholders concerned while designing and implementing English language teaching programs.

This study could also be highly important for English language teachers in understanding the factors that may contribute to shaping teachers' cognition particularly since this study has resulted in two open access publications (in international journals) that would therefore be accessible to teachers (Imran & Wyatt, 2015; Imran & Wyatt, 2019). Teachers may also be able to identify some of the gaps in cognitions identified in this study in their own practices and approaches towards these practices. Reflecting on these gaps may allow them to narrow the gaps in their own idealized and situated cognitions which could be in turn beneficial not only for their own professional development but also for their students.

8.5. Limitations and Scope for future research

Although data for this study were collected over a period of five months, this study is a cross-sectional study. Due to the time and resources constraints, pre and post trainings data collection and analysis was not part of the study design to check specific effects of the trainings on the cognitions of the teachers. This could be considered as one of the limitations of this study. However, this provides opportunity for future researchers to conduct a similar study and explore the cognitions of the teachers before and after different formal and informal professional development activities.

Given the nature of this case study it focused on English language teachers of one university. A multiple case study, comparing and contrasting cognitions of the teachers in different universities, could have provided a detailed picture of the contextual factors within different higher education institutes that influence development of teachers' cognitions. Some interesting comparisons in this regard could have been between, public and private universities, newer and older universities, smaller and larger universities (as categorized by HEC), rural and urban universities. As this study was concerned with depth and richness of data within a single case to facilitate naturalistic generalization, conducting such a detailed study in multiple cases by an individual researcher was almost impossible. This also offers an opportunity for future studies where resources, manpower and time do not constraint the research process.

There is clearly a need for further research, both in this and in other contexts. For example, the gap identified here between idealized cognitions regarding TL use (supporting the virtual position) and observed practices, sometimes justified with reference to arguments also drawn on by proponents of the optimal position (Macaro, 2001), demonstrates this. Without such research, educational policy can become divorced from reality. However, one of the puzzles this study did not shed much light on is the possibly deeply-engrained influence institutional and political expectations might exert on teachers' idealized cognitions regarding TL use in the Pakistani context. The teachers in this study, highlighting other influences, surprisingly made little reference to these pressures and expectations. It is possible that, rather than these influences being unimportant, the teachers may not have been conscious of their impact (on cognitions and behaviour) and were therefore unable to articulate them, even though their

cognitions were explored in-depth. This leads us to suggest that additional research methods may possibly be required to supplement similar research in future, e.g. introspective methods, such as diaries/journals kept by teachers (Burns et al., 2015) and/or cultural-historical activity theory.

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Appendices:*Appendix A: Interview Protocol***Interview protocol****Borg (2006)**

- Q1. What according to you are the most difficult aspects of learning English?
- Q2. What sort of attitude your learners should have toward English?
- Q3. Do you think English is an imp language?
- Q4. How do you identify and respond to students' individual abilities and needs?
- Q5. How do you identify students' learning problems?
- Q6. How do you define effective teaching?
- Q7. Do you think it is imp to speak native-like English/accents?
- Q8. What teaching methods do you try to implement in your classroom?
- Q9. What teaching resources do you make use of?
- Q10. How do you think about the role of grammar? Do you teach it explicitly or implicitly?
- Q11. What are the advantages of being an ESL teacher?
- Q12. What are the disadvantages of being an ESL teacher?
- Q13. By problems do you mean that sometimes it causes embarrassment?
- Q14. How could you improve your teaching?
- Q15. What preparation do you make before proceeding to the class?

- Q16. Do you think your teaching addresses students' needs?
- Q17. What changes do you think you should bring in your teaching?
- Q18. Have you received some pre-service education or training before joining this profession?
- Q19. Have you received some in-service training?
- Q20. To what extent do you think pre-service training is necessary?
- Q21. What are your expectations from your students?
- Q22. How do you make your students aware of your expectations?
- Q23. What are the qualities of a good teacher?
- Q24. How would you see/maintain your role in the class?
- Q25. How do you catch the bored student's attention?
- Q26. To what extent do you value classroom discipline?
- Q27. How do you make sure your students understand you?
- Q28. How do you respond to students' side-questions?
- Q29. What kind of student-teacher relation so you expect/prefer in the class?
- Q30. What kind of student-student interaction do you prefer in the class?
- Q31. What, according to you, is the role of text and teaching materials?
- Q32. What is your opinion of instructional objectives?
- Q33. How do you develop your instructional objectives?
- Q34. How do you determine if you are able to accomplish your goals?

Q35. Do you set goals for each lesson?

Q36. If, sometimes, you aren't able to achieve your goals, then what you do?

Appendix B: Participant Invitation Letter

Said Imran
PhD Student
School of Languages and Area Studies (SLAS)
Email: said.imran@port.ac.uk
Cell no: +447424027798

Dr. Mark Wyatt
Senior Lecturer & First Supervisor
School of Languages and Area Studies
Mark.Wyatt@port.ac.uk
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Dr. John Naysmith
Head of School & Second Supervisor
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john.naysmith@port.ac.uk
Telephone: +44 (0)23 9284 8484

| |
|--------------------------------------|
| Participant Invitation Letter |
|--------------------------------------|

Study Title: Exploring Pakistani University ESL teachers' Cognitions

REC Ref No:

Dear Potential Participant,

I would like to invite you to participate in a research study on exploring Pakistani university ESL teachers' cognitions.

I am a PhD student at Portsmouth University, supervised by Dr. Mark Wyatt and Dr. John Naysmith. The purpose of this research is to explore practicing/in-service ESL teachers' cognitions in one of the public sector universities of Pakistan, Kohat University of Science and Technology (KUST). The main aims of the research are:

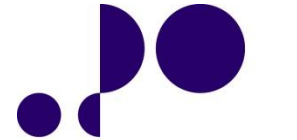
- To explore KUST ESL teachers idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours

- To explore the extent to which KUST ESL teachers cognitions affect their classroom behaviours
- To explore the extent to which contextual factors influence KUST ESL teachers idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours

For the above stated purpose, this study will involve 10 ESL teachers as research participants from the Dept. of English, KUST. You have been chosen as one of those teachers appropriate for the purpose of this study. Along with this letter there is also an information sheet attached providing information on the purpose, nature of your involvement, procedure, possible benefits and risks, confidentiality of your person, details and data and a consent form to be signed (if you decide to participate). If you have a query or concern about any aspect of this study, you can contact the researcher and/or his supervisors (contact details given on right top of this letter) who will do their best to answer your questions. Your participation in this study is voluntary and you can expect withdrawal in the course of study at least up to the level of data analysis.

Thank you for taking time to read this invitation letter. If you decide to participate in this study you will be given an information sheet to keep and a separate consent form to be signed.

Appendix C: Participant Information Sheet



University of
Portsmouth

Said Imran

PhD Student

School of Languages and Area Studies (SLAS)

Email: said.imran@port.ac.uk

Cell no: +447424027798

Dr. Mark Wyatt

Senior Lecturer & First Supervisor

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Telephone: +44 (0)23 9284 6080

Dr. John Naysmith

Head of School & Second Supervisor

School of Languages and Area Studies

john.naysmith@port.ac.uk

Telephone: +44 (0)23 9284 8484

Participant Information Sheet

Study Title: Exploring Pakistani University ESL teachers' Cognitions

REC Ref No:

You are invited to take part in the research study. Before you decide I would like you to understand why this research is being done and what it will involve. Talk to others about the study if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear

1. What is the purpose of the study?

I am a PhD student at Portsmouth University, supervised by Dr. Mark Wyatt and Dr. John Naysmith. The purpose of this research is to explore practicing/in-service ESL teachers' cognitions in one of the public sector universities of Pakistan, Kohat University of Science and Technology (KUST). The main aims of the research are:

- To explore KUST ESL teachers idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours
- To explore the extent to which KUST ESL teachers cognitions affect their classroom behaviours

- To explore the extent to which contextual factors influence KUST ESL teachers idealized cognitions and classroom behaviours

2. Why have I been invited?

For the above stated purpose, this study will involve 10 ESL teachers as research participants from the Dept. of English, KUST. You have been chosen as one of those teachers appropriate for the purpose of this study.

3. Do I have to take part?

It is up to you to decide to take part in the study. I will explain the study and go through this information sheet. If you decide to participate, I will then ask you to sign a consent form.

4. What will happen to me if I take part?

As the research will last for almost one complete semester (5 months), therefore, your participation will also be required for the same duration. The nature of your involvement in this study includes some interview/s, classroom observations and stimulated recalls. The purpose of interview/s is to know your cognitions regarding English language learning and teaching including the role of your prior language learning experiences, the role of professional trainings, the influences of contextual factors and the role of experience. The duration for each interview will be from 50 to 60 minutes and each classroom observation and stimulated recall will last for almost 60 minutes depending on how much time you have available. The interview/s, classroom observation/s and stimulated recall/s will all be audio-taped with you permission. The recordings will be then written up and you will be offered a copy of the transcript, encrypted and sent via email to keep.

5. What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

Your participation in this study will involve no possible disadvantage and risks. The schedule of this study is quite flexible and will avoid the inconvenience of your participation in this study.

6. What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The possible benefits of this study would be a better understanding of KUST ESL teachers' cognitions and classroom behaviours which could inform curriculum development, syllabus designing and professional development programmes for KUST ESL teachers.

7. Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

All information that will be collected from you during the course of the research will kept strictly confidential. All interview, observation and stimulated recall recordings will be destroyed at the end of the research. Your name or any contact details will not be recorded on transcript data. Moreover, any details which potentially could identify you will also be removed or changed. My academic supervisors will have access to the anonymised transcripts of data and I will be the only person to have access to the original recordings of the interview, observation and stimulated recall, your consent form and any of your contact details.

8. What will happen if I don't want to carry on with the study?

Your participation in this study is voluntary and you can expect withdrawal in the course of study at least up to the level of data analysis. After the data have been analysed, it would not be possible for you to withdraw your contribution.

9. What if there is a problem?

If you have a query or concern about any aspect of this study, you can contact the researcher and/or his supervisors (contact details given on right top of this letter) who will do their best to answer your questions.

10. What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the study will be used in my PhD thesis as well as presented at academic and professional conferences and in academic journals. You will not be identified in any report/publication unless you have given your consent. The results will also be shared with research community who work on language teachers' cognitions. Results from this study will contribute to developing a better understanding of language teachers' cognitions in an ESL/EFL context.

11. Who is organising and funding the research?

This study is being sponsored by Kohat University of Science and Technology (KUST), Pakistan.

12. Who has reviewed the study?

Research in the University of Portsmouth is reviewed by an independent group of people, called a Research Ethics Committee, to safeguard your interests. This study has been reviewed and given a favourable opinion by Portsmouth University Research Ethics Committee.

Further information and contact details

Faculty Research Degree Coordinator, Chair, FRD COMMITTEE Dr Kay Peggs
Tel: +44(0)2392846093

Email: kay.peggs@port.ac.uk

Concluding statement

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet. If you decide to participate in this study you will be given this information sheet to keep and a separate consent form to be signed.

Appendix D: Consent Form



Said Imran
 PhD Student
 School of Languages and Area Studies (SLAS)
 Email: said.imran@port.ac.uk
 Cell no: +447424027798

Dr. Mark Wyatt
 Senior Lecturer & First Supervisor
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Dr. John Naysmith
 Head of School & Second Supervisor
 School of Languages and Area Studies
john.naysmith@port.ac.uk
 Telephone: +44 (0)23 9284 8484

Consent Form

Study Title: Exploring Pakistani University ESL teachers' Cognitions

REC Ref No:

Name of Researcher: Said Imran

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated.....
 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information,
 ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

- 2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason up to the point when the data are analysed.
- 3. I understand that data collected during the study, may be looked at by individuals from University of Portsmouth or from regulatory authorities. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my data.
- 4. I agree to my interview, classroom observation and stimulated recall being audio/video recorded.
- 5. I agree to being quoted verbatim.
- 6. I agree to the data I contribute being retained for future, REC approved, research.
- 7. I agree to take part in the above study.

Name of Participant: _____ Date: _____ Signature: _____

Name of Person taking consent: _____ Date: _____ Signature: _____

When completed: 1 for participant; 1 for researcher's file.

Appendix E: Ethical Approval

Said Imran
PhD Student
SLAS
Copy to Mark Wyatt

REC reference number: 11/12:29
Please quote this number on all correspondence

6th March 2012

Dear Said

Full Title of Study: Exploring Pakistani University ESL teachers' Cognitions

Documents reviewed:
Protocol
Invitation letter
Consent Form
Participant Information Sheet

Further to my email, I apologise again, for the oversight which led to the delay of your ethical review. As a result of your adherence to the templates I provided I am pleased to confirm that there are no outstanding ethical issues and I can confirm that your research has been given a favourable ethical opinion.

I wish you well with your continuing research

Kind regards

David Carpenter
Chair: FHSS REC

Appendix F: Data Sample-1

A sample of multiple factors affecting cognition and teaching behaviours

| Date | 12/11 | 02/12 | 03/12 |
|-----------------------------|---|--|--|
| Impact of PLLEs | | <p>I remember that I learnt most from those teachers who were friendly, who didn't terrorize us with punishment and who treated us kindly. So we had enough confidence to ask questions from them, we had enough interest to appear in their classes regularly and to take notes.</p> <p>He taught us very systematically ... he gave us practice at the same time ... Almost 100 % I copy those teachers from whom I've learnt these good things. Because I learnt that way and I believe that my students can learn that way as well. I want to repeat that because I think that's the best way.</p> | <p>Yes I believe that the pressure that I had from my teachers was an undesirable thing. ... when I was in 8th class ... sometimes I would be late and then just out of the fear that the teacher would punish me I would avoid to go to the school the whole day. So the point is that sometimes the students who can't tolerate a lot of pressure go on the negative side if pressure is mounted on them.</p> |
| Impact of CFs | <p>Well, first and foremost you get a job. People learn English here for practical purpose and that's getting job and getting respect in society. So being one of the past colonies we still think high of English and if you are an ESL teacher people give you respect also. So I mean these are the advantages.</p> <p>The only disadvantage is that people in Pakistan prefer executive jobs. Teaching is not posited in the high level jobs. It's ranked as one of the low professions i.e., income-wise and respect-wise in society. Of course a teacher doesn't receive that much of protocol from society which is the only disadvantage.</p> | <p>You go by the environment of the university. ... You see the demands of your institution from you, so you also try to do that. I avoid administrative meetings during class time (as I'm the acting chairman) but I really had meetings which fall during class time. ... So this is another influence of the environment on me.</p> <p>Culturally also when you are teaching literature you've to scan certain things, you've to avoid discussing certain things. Especially we know cultural taboos and in co-education you've to be careful in Pakistan and this is what happens here as well.</p> | <p>Professionally you have another disadvantage which needs to mention here and that's you teach English out of context ... You teach English out of its culture, the sensibilities are different, the world view is different. So it's difficult for you to teach students in an easy way, in a convenient way. It's difficult for you to create that environment and context.</p> |
| Impact of experience | <p>I don't carry my lesson plan on a page that's well designed; no it's not the truth. I just have a rough idea of my lesson plan, my timing and the topic I have to teach and how I've to teach.</p> | <p>I'm much better equipped now because my thinking has changed about teaching over the years now. I've gone through certain educational trainings in all this period ... They gave me a lot of things to learn and I'm really benefiting from those things. ... I try to get the students involved in different activities and activities are the most important thing</p> | <p>Previously I wasn't so much aware of the importance of the materials, syllabus and other things. Previously I thought that my knowledge was everything, my sincerity with my profession was everything. But now I know that no, it's more of a skill. Skill is the most important thing, the</p> |

| | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | | that I have introduced in my. | way you plan your lesson, the way you deliver it practically. ... All these things have taught me a new way of teaching. |
| Impact of higher education | | <p>Well, there's a phenomenal difference. The difference is in the level of students and therefore in the whole methodology of teaching. You see that if you are teaching at school level in Pakistan you have to teach them, you've to get them learn the thing, you've to conduct test daily, you've to check their notebooks. But on university level you're more relaxed as a teacher because the students' level is now better and they can work for themselves more than school children can do.</p> <p>Another very interesting thing is that children are very mischievous and naughty and many a times they disturb your class proceedings. So one of the things is to bring discipline and this is one of the most demanding tasks at school level. But on university level there's no such problem, no question of discipline. I mean the students are already disciplined, they understand things, they understand their own benefits. They are more motivated themselves; they aren't distracters but helpers in your teaching (HI. 2, 02/12)</p> | |

Appendix G: Data Sample - 2

A sample of classroom observation features

| No. | Observation features | Description/Examples | Contributions of the CFs |
|-----|--|--|--|
| 1 | Identification of students' learning problems | As against the teacher's statement students' learning problems were partially identified e.g., the teacher asked a few questions and got responses from the front row students only during lecture | Teacher's lack of experience, influence of PLLEs, class management issue |
| 2 | Use of teaching method/s | Instead of using DM and CTM as the teacher had reported the teaching method was a mixer of DM and GTM e.g., the teacher dominated the class for the entire period, wrote definitions and examples on WB, used mother tongue frequently and didn't involve students in activities/tasks | Large classrooms, Unmotivated students, teacher's lack of experience, students' low and mix level |
| 3 | Role of Grammar | The teaching of grammar was explicit as the teacher had reported e.g., the teacher focused on structure by defining and explaining the rules for forming Adjective and wrote it on WB | Exam-oriented teaching |
| 4 | Teacher's role | Contrary to the teacher's reported preference for the role of a facilitator in the class he performed the role of a controller and assessor e.g., the teacher dominated the class throughout and casually checked students' understanding/ knowledge by asking questions | Students' attitude and disciplinary issues, Unmotivated students, students' low level |
| 5 | Classroom discipline | Despite the high significance the teacher had attached with classroom discipline the classroom environment was crowded and noisy e.g., the students were having verbal and non-verbal interaction among themselves during the lecture, the frequent entry and exit of students during the lecture made it disturbing | Large classroom, lack of students' interest and motivation, students' attitude problem, teacher's lack of experience |
| 6 | T/Ss interaction | Unlike the teacher's statement there was minimum T/Ss interaction e.g., the | Issues of lengthy course and time shortage in semester system, |

| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
| | | teacher was delivering lecture and the students were passively listening except in the start when the teacher asked questions from students in previous lecture | disciplinary issues |
| 7 | Ss/Ss interaction | No Ss/Ss interaction e.g., it was an entirely teacher-fronted class where the teacher didn't involve students in activities/tasks | Students' attitude and disciplinary issues, Unmotivated students, students' low level |
| 8 | Role of textbooks/ teaching materials | Dominant role of textbook and teaching materials e.g., the teacher completely relied on the textbook by reading and consulting it during his lecture | Exam-oriented approach, teacher's lack of experience, students' low level |
| 9 | Target language (TL) use | The TL was used along with the mother tongue (MT) e.g., the teacher used a combination of the TL and MT throughout the lecture | Students' low/mix level |

Appendix H: Ethics Review Checklist

FORM UPR16

Research Ethics Review Checklist



Please include this completed form as an appendix to your thesis (see the Postgraduate Research Student Handbook for more information)


| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Postgraduate Research Student (PGRS) Information | | Student ID: | 510564 |
| PGRS Name: | Said Imran | | |
| Department: | SLAS | First Supervisor: | Dr. Sherria Hoskins |
| Start Date: (or progression date for Prof Doc students) | October, 2010 | | |
| Study Mode and Route: | Part-time <input type="checkbox"/> | MPhil <input type="checkbox"/> | MD <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | Full-time <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | PhD <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Professional Doctorate <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | |
|---|--|
| Title of Thesis: | Pakistani University English Language Teachers' Cognitions and Practices |
| Thesis Word Count: (excluding ancillary data) | 81,172 |

If you are unsure about any of the following, please contact the local representative on your Faculty Ethics Committee for advice. Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University's Ethics Policy and any relevant University, academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study

Although the Ethics Committee may have given your study a favourable opinion, the final responsibility for the ethical conduct of this work lies with the researcher(s).

| | |
|--|--|
| UKRIO Finished Research Checklist: (If you would like to know more about the checklist, please see your Faculty or Departmental Ethics Committee rep or see the online version of the full checklist at: http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/) | |
| a) Have all of your research and findings been reported accurately, honestly and within a reasonable time frame? | YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Have all contributions to knowledge been acknowledged? | YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Have you complied with all agreements relating to intellectual property, publication and authorship? | YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) Has your research data been retained in a secure and accessible form and will it remain so for the required duration? | YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/> |
| e) Does your research comply with all legal, ethical, and contractual requirements? | YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | |
|---|---|
| Candidate Statement: | |
| I have considered the ethical dimensions of the above named research project, and have successfully obtained the necessary ethical approval(s) | |
| Ethical review number(s) from Faculty Ethics Committee (or from NRES/SCREC): | 11/12:29 |
| If you have <i>not</i> submitted your work for ethical review, and/or you have answered 'No' to one or more of questions a) to e), please explain below why this is so: | |
| | |
| Signed (PGRS): |  |
| Date: | 18 th July, 2017 |