

**Faculty of Education and Social Work
University of Sydney**

**The New Textbook for Teaching English
Language in Secondary Education in
Bangladesh: Teachers' Practices and Training**

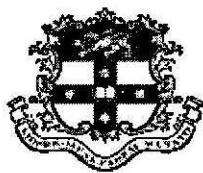
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The University of Sydney
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Division of Doctoral Studies

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

This is to certify that:

- I. this thesis comprises only my original work towards the Doctor of Philosophy Degree
- II. due acknowledgement has been made in the text to all other material used
- III. the thesis does not exceed the word length for this degree.
- IV. no part of this work has been used for the award of another degree.
- V. this thesis meets the *University of Sydney's Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) requirements for the conduct of research.*

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Date: *8 April 2010*

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ABSTRACT

In response to the growing importance of English in social and commercial contexts, the government of Bangladesh has taken initiatives to increase people's competence to communicate effectively in English. The English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP) is a major reform project aiming to relocate the teaching and learning of English from a traditional grammar based approach to a function-based communicative approach. Among other initiatives, ELTIP has introduced communicative textbooks up to the higher secondary level, as well as corresponding teacher's guides. The textbooks focus on engaging students in activities involving all the four skills of the English language and stress the need for students to learn to communicate in English rather than just to master the structure of the language. Along with ELTIP training centres, other organisations have arranged training programmes for teacher development. Such training focuses on the contents of the textbooks and aims to help teachers use the books effectively. This study shows how teachers use the textbook in secondary level and explores the extent to which teachers can implement what they have learnt in the training programs while teaching the textbook. In particular, it identifies the factors that influence teachers' use of the textbook. In-depth investigation has been carried out through interviews with secondary English language teachers in Bangladesh and classroom observations have been made of their teaching practices. The data reveal that there is a significant gap between educational policy and classroom realities. Various contextual factors hinder teacher's use of the textbook and the teacher's guide. Moreover, some of these factors create differences in teaching practice between rural and urban areas, despite teachers undertaking the same training programs. The study suggests ways in which policy and practice can be integrated and future teacher training can be developed in full acknowledgement of the teaching contexts.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to

my wonderful parents

who offered constant encouragement and endless love
throughout my journey of pursuing the doctoral degree

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List of Acronyms

BANBEIS-Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics

BEd- Bachelors in Education

BISE- Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education.

CEC- Communicative English Course

CLT- Communicative Language Teaching

DFID- Department For International Development

ELT- English Language Teaching

ELTIP- English Language Teaching Improvement Project

GoB- Government of Bangladesh

HSC- Higher Secondary Certificate

MEd- Masters in Education

MoPME-Ministry of Primary and Mass Education

MOE-Ministry of Education

NAEM-National Academy of Education Management

NCTB-National Curriculum and Textbook Board

SSC- Secondary School Certificate

TTC-Teacher Training College

1. Chapter One

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The Government of Bangladesh (GoB) has introduced changes in the last three decades in the country education policy with a view to raising people's overall level of competence in the English language. The government has introduced changes to develop students' communicative ability in listening, reading, speaking and writing skills. Started in 1998, the English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP) was one of the major reform projects. It was co-funded by GoB and the Department for International Development (DFID) of United Kingdom. ELTIP aimed to teach students the use of the English language for effective communication. It introduced textbooks with communicative activities up to the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) level with an emphasis on students' involvement in classroom activities. A teacher's guide was also published with the textbook to help teachers using each textbook. Training programs were arranged for English language teachers to familiarise them with the new approach and thus make them able to use the new textbooks. This study explores English language teachers' textbook use in secondary level of education and the extent to which the training programs are relevant to the teachers' use of the new textbook in the current phase of the transition of English language teaching reform in Bangladesh. It also explores whether other factors are influencing their teaching practice.

This chapter presents an outline of the study. It begins with introducing the context of the study by giving an outline of education in Bangladesh with a specific focus on English language education. This part also presents the gradual rise of the importance of English language teaching in the last three decades in education. The purpose of the study is stated in the next section with a discussion of previous studies on this topic. It focuses on the existing gap in the literature that creates the necessity for this study. The following two sections present the research questions and significance of the study. It concludes with providing an overview of each chapter of the thesis.

1.1. Context of the Study

This section presents the context of the study by describing the different aspects of education in Bangladesh, with special emphasis on secondary education and the recent changes in the curriculum¹ with regard to the teaching of English. Together, they provide the backdrop against which this study has been conducted.

1.1.1. Education and Schooling

Education in Bangladesh is comprised of three levels - primary, secondary and higher education. This study focuses on secondary education which is comprised of two years of schooling in Years 9 and 10. These are called Classes 9 and 10 in Bangladesh. This is the most important and biggest sub-sector in education in Bangladesh since it involves 18,500 institutions with a total number of 7,398,552 students and 238,158 teachers (BANBEIS, 2007). Bangla (or Bengali) and English are the two main languages of instruction and schools can be divided into two streams based on these languages of instruction, namely 'Bangla-medium' schools and 'English-medium' schools. The vast majority of secondary-level students attend Bangla medium schools offered by both the government and non-government sectors.

Schools within Bangla-medium education consist of general schools, religious schools or 'madrasahs', vocational and technical institutions. The majority of the students go for the general stream of Bangla medium education, which is the focus of the current study. Enrolment statistics for 2007 of the Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics (BANBEIS) show that 20% of students were enrolled in the secondary level in Madrasah (*Dakhil* classes) in the year 2002 (BANBEIS, 2007). The vocational and

¹ Curriculum, as used in this text, refers to designs for carrying out a particular language program. Features include a primary concern with the specification of linguistic and subject matter objectives, sequencing, and materials to meet the needs of a designated group of learners in a defined context (Brown, 2004)

technical institutions serve less than 2% of the students at the secondary level (Education Watch², 2005).

Students' assessment in Bangladesh is exclusively based on written examinations. In addition to half-yearly and year-final examinations in every class, public examinations are administered regionally by the respective Boards of Education and the questions are based on the uniform national syllabus. Students of Bangla medium schools of general education sit for the public examination Secondary School Certificate (SSC) at the end of Class 10. A total of 789,669 students participated in the SSC examination in 2006 (Education Board, 2008). This number is almost same every year. Such a large number of students participates in the SSC since the majority of the students of secondary level in Bangladesh participate in this stream (Bangla medium) of education. Results work as the basis for determining eligibility for admission to the next level of education. In other words, students need higher marks in order to get admitted into well reputed colleges. Employment opportunities in turn also depend on the result of the SSC for students who discontinue their studies after any of these public examinations. Hence the impact of SSC examination looms large in both the teaching, learning and policymaking practices of all involved in education in Bangladesh.

1.1.2. English Language Teaching in Bangladesh

English language plays an important part in education in Bangladesh. Although Bangla is the native language of 95 percent of the total population of the country and people use it in their everyday activities, English is taught compulsorily from year 1 to 12 across all streams of education.

The grammar translation method has always been the norm for teaching English language at all levels of education since Bangladesh gained independence in 1971 as it was the common trend of teaching language all over the world in 1970s and early 1980s (Brown, 2004, p. 42). Brown (2004) argues that this traditional method focused on

² Education Watch is a group of organisations in Bangladesh. It aims to review the state of basic education in Bangladesh through research

grammatical rules and classes were taught in the native language with little use of the target language. "Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis" (Brown, 2004, p. 19). In language classes in Bangladesh, the focus was on rote learning - grammatical rules, memorisation of vocabulary and translation of text and written exercises. Speaking and listening skills were not a focus of classroom teaching. Classes were conducted in the native language with little active use of the English language. The main emphasis was on grammar, encouraging students to learn the language but not how to use it in a given context (Hasan, 2004). Because of this, even though students in Bangladesh studied English for 12 years as a compulsory subject in schools and colleges, they had very poor communicative proficiency in English (Sultana, 2004). Therefore, students learned only the structure of the English language; they did not learn how to communicate in English using all the four skills of that language.

1.1.2.1. Curriculum Innovation³

Changes in English Language Teaching (ELT) in Bangladesh started taking place in the 1990s as it was obvious that the existing English subject did not improve the skill levels of the students adequately. The government started taking initiatives to ensure an improvement in the quality of English language education to turn its huge population into human resources for national economic development. Moreover, since Bangladesh has been emerging as a newly developed industrialised country, there is a need for increased communication with the outside world for various purposes i.e. job, foreign aid, mass communication. English has been recognised as an essential work-oriented 'skill' that is needed if the employment, development and educational needs of the country are to be met successfully. Proficiency in the English language is considered as

³ For Markee (1997) innovation is a 'managed process' of development which results in new teaching and testing materials, methodological skills, and pedagogical values (1997, p. 46). In this study, innovation is considered as an ongoing process, perpetually in flux and encompassing the tensions between planning and execution.

an indicator of material success since a good level of proficiency is a pre-requisite for getting a good job. In order to get into the public service, people have to pass competitive exams where English is a compulsory subject. The need for English language proficiency for obtaining successful jobs has therefore created societal, parental and learner urge to learn and use English.

To meet the consistently escalating demands for English proficiency, various projects started taking place in 1990s which were initiated by the Government, Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) and international developmental agencies (Rahman, 2007). The English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP) is one of the major reform projects in ELT. It has replaced the traditional grammar-based syllabus with a new syllabus which focuses on a communicative approach with a view to enabling students to gain competence to use English for communication. ELTIP was co-funded by the Bangladesh government and the Department for International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom. Run by the British Council and the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB), it started working in 1998 with the aim of improving the quality of English language teaching in secondary and higher secondary education in Bangladesh (ELTIP, 2000). ELTIP aimed to improve the standard of English in terms of both teaching and learning by bringing changes in three areas, namely introducing textbooks, changing examinations and arranging in-service teacher training. These three areas are discussed in the next sections.

Textbook

ELTIP produced textbooks up to the higher secondary level as part of the new curriculum. The textbooks were written by a team of Bangladeshi teachers who received training in the United Kingdom. The book *English for Today* is compulsory for Classes 9 and 10 in all schools and there is no option to choose an alternative textbook for teaching English. The activities in this new book focus on getting students to participate in activities which involve all the four skills of the English language- listening, reading, writing and speaking. It promotes student-centred learning and stresses the need for

students to learn to communicate in English rather than to just master the structure of the language.

A teacher's guide, *Teacher's Guide for English for Today* was also published with the textbook. Detailed teaching and learning activities were provided for teachers according to the new examination formats, with suggested methods and time allotment for the activities. It is intended that teachers will follow the guide while teaching the text.

Examination

ELTIP also aimed to change the examination system. It changed the question pattern of the SSC exam. The questions are set to assess students' use of grammar items within specific contexts - students are not examined on explicit grammatical knowledge. The tasks in the writing section provide the students with a realistic situation and an instruction to complete the task. It provides students both a context and a reason for engaging in the activities. At the time of transition to the new examination system, initiatives were taken to orient markers to the new standardised marking policy and procedures. For this, workshops on marking, question-setting and classroom testing were conducted and trialed all over the country.

In-service Teacher Training

One of the main aims of ELTIP is to train secondary teachers of English to teach in the communicative method so that they can use the newly written textbooks to develop learners' competence in all four skills of the English language. It focuses on helping teachers use the textbooks in class. It also teaches how to make the class student-centred by making the class interactive through pair work and group work activities. These training programs are 15 days long and are provided as in-service training to secondary English language teachers. A more detailed discussion of these three changes is made in the next chapter (see 2.3.1.1).

Other than ELTIP, some other organisations have arranged training programmes for the development of the teachers since ELTIP training facilities are insufficient compared to the number of teachers (Hasan, 2004). Training for communicative English is also

provided by the National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM) for teachers of both government and non-government schools. NAEM, in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, arranges 12-30 days training programs named Communicative English Course (CEC) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) for teachers of secondary and higher secondary levels on the communicative approach. Such courses aim to enable the trainees to demonstrate enhanced proficiency in communicative English and to improve their own English, handle the new textbooks efficiently and motivate learners to participate in various language practices. It also emphasises developing tests on listening, reading, writing and speaking (NAEM, 2005b).

Teachers can also take an English language course while doing a Bachelor in Education (BEd) training, which is an essential degree for teachers of the secondary level in Bangladesh. BEd is one of the training courses that provides teachers with professional training to build their understanding of the communicative approach. The syllabus of BEd has been changed since the innovation in ELT has taken place. The English course in BEd focuses on the content of the textbook as well as the teacher's guide (National University of Bangladesh, 2008, p. 34). It gives an overview of English in the Bangladeshi secondary curriculum, is linked to the needs of practicing teachers and focuses on encouraging communication in the classroom.

Together, by introducing new textbooks, a new examination system and teacher training, ELTIP attempted to introduce changes to the English language teaching and learning situation in schools of Bangladesh. The next chapter, Chapter 2, presents relevant details of education in Bangladesh with particular focus on English language education.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

Teacher training and textbooks are considered important ways to implement a new curriculum (Fullan, 2001; Richards, 1998). Teacher training is arranged to diffuse educational innovation. It is crucial in the preparation of teachers to implement a new curriculum. It plays a significant role in curriculum innovation since it develops

teachers' perceptions of the pedagogical practice (see Campbell et al., 1998; Hasan, 2004; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Textbooks have been introduced as the teaching material in Japan, Singapore and China where curriculum innovation in English language teaching has taken place (Silver & Skuja-Steele, 2005). Along with teacher training, textbook is considered as another important way to diffuse innovation. Introduction of a new textbook with a changed curriculum saves teachers' work and helps them to concentrate on coping with the new method introduced in the curriculum change (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Researchers (see Campbell et al., 1998; Hasan, 2004; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994) claim that when new teaching material is introduced as part of curriculum innovation, it is essential to arrange teacher training to introduce teachers to the new material.

As mentioned, the textbook *English for Today* is the textbook that has been introduced, as part of the curriculum innovation described above, for secondary level teaching in Bangladesh. English language teachers are meant to use this book to teach English language to the students. Curriculum planners have also arranged training programs to help teachers use the new textbook with the expectation that teachers will be able to implement the new curriculum with the help of the training (Hamid & Baldauf Jr., 2008).

The literature (Hu 2005b; Li, 2001; Shim & Baik, 2004) however shows that in many countries where a curriculum has been imposed by the government, as is the case in Bangladesh, classroom teaching does not change according to the plan. Curriculum planners arrange training programs and textbooks to make innovation successful by trying to ensure that teachers understand the new policies and practices of the enacted curriculum. However, these do not always help teachers to implement new teaching strategies. In their efforts to implement lessons learned in training, teachers encounter obstacles created by various socio-cultural factors. These factors sometimes even create regional disparity in teaching within the same country (Hu, 2002; Nunan, 2003). Kennedy (1988) also argues that the effect of these socio-cultural issues varies from context to context - where the same cultural factor might have much greater influence than another in a similar context.

Thus training programs and teaching materials, arranged to help teachers implement a newly introduced curriculum, do not always help teachers implement new teaching strategies. They can return to their previous teaching style after returning to their teaching context (Hu, 1992; Li, 2001; Wall & Alderson, 1993). Such issues are central to the research inquiries of this study.

There is a dearth of research in the area of curriculum implementation in Bangladesh. Intensive research has not been conducted to find whether teaching practices have been changed as a result of introducing new textbooks and teacher training. Hasan (2004) conducted research on textbook use in secondary level education in Bangladesh during the early stage of curriculum reform but the data of the study were collected before the publication of the teacher's guide. Further research is therefore needed to explore the present situation. In addition, research (see Sinha 2006; Quader, 2001) conducted on the use of the new textbook in secondary level education in Bangladesh has focused on data collected through questionnaires but in-depth investigation needs to be carried out through observation and interviews to find what is happening in the classroom and to what extent teachers can implement the training they receive. It is also very important to find out if any factors are impeding the adoption of the teaching methodology.

1.3. Research Questions

This study explores factors that influence English language teachers' use of the secondary textbook and to what extent training programs are relevant in helping these teachers use the new textbook in this transition phase of English language education reform. It also explores whether other factors are influencing their teaching. The following questions have been addressed in this study:

1. How do teachers use the new text book?
 - 1.1. What are the teachers' perceptions of the new text book and the teacher's guide?
 - 1.2. Do they teach the textbook following the instruction given in the teacher's guide?

2. Does teacher training bring any change in textbook teaching? If yes, how?
3. What are the factors that influence teachers' use of the textbook in the classroom?
 - 3.1. What factors interact with English Language Teaching (ELT) policies to facilitate or inhibit the adoption of the teaching methodology?
 - 3.2. Does any factor create a difference in teachers' use of textbook between rural and urban areas? If yes, why?

1.4. Significance of the Study

Curriculum planners in Bangladesh have arranged a number of training programs for English language teachers to make them familiar with the new approach and thus make them able to use the new textbook. This study will explore the intended and the enacted curriculum. It will generate information about the use of the textbook and will show whether teachers can implement what they learn in teacher training programs while teaching the textbook. The study will also explore whether other factors are influencing their teaching and if there are differences in teaching practices between rural and urban areas in Bangladesh. Results will show whether change in teaching practice has taken place across Bangladesh as a result of curriculum innovation. The study will provide information about teachers' perceptions of the enacted curriculum and the implementation reality of their teaching context. The results will help curriculum developers to bring about a closer alignment of the intended and enacted curriculum by bringing corresponding change in education policy, planning and training programs.

1.5. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is comprised of eight chapters. Chapter Two outlines the education system of Bangladesh, with special emphasis on secondary education and the recent changes in the curriculum with regard to the teaching of English. This chapter shows how English language education in Bangladesh has entered into an era of innovation and restructuring because of the striking renewal of interest. Chapter Three presents a

critical and detailed review of the literature related to curriculum innovation. It gives an account of the strategies used for the implementation of the innovation. It concludes with contemporary critical views on factors influencing curriculum innovation and the introduction of a theoretical framework to be used throughout the current study. Chapter Four presents the rationale for employing a case study approach for this study. It also details the sampling strategy, data collection methods and analysis procedures adopted in this study. The chapter ends with a discussion on the accuracy of the data and the ethical issues of the study. Chapters Five and Six discuss the findings of the study. Chapter Five presents participants' views on issues related to the importance of using the textbook, the teacher's guide and the importance of making lesson plans⁴. With these views from participants, this chapter also discusses how the participants use the textbook and the teacher's guide while teaching in the classroom. Chapter Six presents important aspects of teachers' pedagogical practice and their views on issues related to the teacher training they received in terms of how and what use they made of it in actual classroom teaching practices. The findings are then analysed and discussed in relation to the research questions and the theoretical framework in Chapter Seven. Chapter Seven also examines the difference in textbook use between rural and urban areas in Bangladesh. The final chapter provides recommendations to improve English language education in Bangladesh, directions for future research and conclusion to the study

The next chapter, Chapter Two, presents an outline of the context of the present study. It gives an outline of education in Bangladesh with particular focus on English language education to show the importance of this sector within the national education system.

⁴ Lesson Plan, as used in this text, refers to an outline or some points that would aid teachers with performing activities to be carried out in a particular class session. The outline might include objectives of the lesson, the time distribution for each activity and a list of teaching aids.

2. Chapter Two:

ENGLISH EDUCATION IN BANGLADESH: INNOVATION THROUGH REFORM

This chapter presents the context for the present study. It describes the different aspects of education in Bangladesh in general, with special emphasis on secondary education and the recent changes in the curriculum with regard to the teaching of English. It starts with a discussion on education and the schooling system which includes schooling structure, assessment, enrolment and discontinuation. It also discusses issues with regard to the management and administration of education, the teachers and the training programs arranged for these teachers. This section gives an idea of the basic structure of the education section and draws a picture of the vastness and the importance of this sector in Bangladesh. The next section focuses on the English language in the broader context of the curriculum, its history and its current status. It then explores different teacher training programmes currently in operation in Bangladesh. After providing a detailed account of development projects and initiatives - government, private and overseas-funded, this chapter concludes with a discussion on the recent changes that have occurred within the ELT scenario in secondary education in Bangladesh.

2.1. Education and Schooling

2.1.1. *Schooling System: Different Pathways*

Education in Bangladesh is three-tiered: primary, secondary and higher education. In 1990, the Government of Bangladesh made primary education compulsory for all children (Government of Bangladesh, 1990). This education is a five-year period from Classes 1-5. Secondary education is a seven-year stage with three sub-stages i.e. three years of junior secondary- from Classes 6-8; two years of secondary- from Classes 9-10 and two years of higher secondary, from Classes 11-12. This higher secondary stage marks the end of the 12-year schooling system and is usually followed by higher education in tertiary institutions.

This study focuses on secondary education which is the most important and biggest sub-sector in education in Bangladesh involving a huge number of institutions, students and teachers (Begum & Farooqui, 2008). The total number of teachers, students and institutions in the secondary level in urban and rural areas is presented below in Table 1 which shows that there is vast difference in the number of students between urban areas which are the municipality areas and rural areas which are the areas situated outside the municipality areas. Seventy five percent of the total number of students of the secondary level is from rural areas.

Location	No. of Schools	Teachers	Students
Rural	1,5973	190,214	5,951,058
Urban	2,527	47,944	1,447,494
Total	18,500	238,158	7,398,552

Source: BANBEIS (2005)

Table 1: Number of secondary⁵ schools, teachers and students by location

Based on the language of instruction, the schooling system can be divided into two systems namely 'Bangla-medium' schools and 'English-medium' schools. The vast majority of secondary-level students attend Bangla-medium schools offered by the government and non-government sectors. The English-medium schools, on the other hand, enroll less than one percent of the students at the secondary level (Imam, 2005) and are mostly located in the cities and major towns. There is a difference between the syllabi of these two types of schools. Except for English and religious studies, all courses are taught in Bangla in the Bangla-medium schools, whereas in English-medium schools, except for the Bangla subject, all subjects are taught in English using books mostly produced in the United Kingdom.

⁵ Indicates both Junior Secondary and Secondary levels

Schools in Bangla medium education consist of general schools, religious schools or 'madrasahs' (Arabic for educational institutions), vocational and technical institutions. The majority of students therefore go for the 'general' stream of Bangla medium education, which is the focus of the current study. Enrolment statistics of the Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics (BANBEIS) show that 20% of students were enrolled in the secondary level in Madrasah (*Dakhil* classes) in the year 2005 (BANBEIS, 2005). According to Education Watch, which is a group of organisations with the aim of reviewing the state of basic education in Bangladesh through research, the vocational and technical institutions serve less than 2% of the students at the secondary level (Education Watch, 2005). The rest (78%) of the schools within the general stream in secondary education are public and private mainstream Bangla-medium schools. Participants of this study are all attached to these schools.

2.1.2. *Assessment System*

Assessment is considered very important at all levels of education in Bangladesh. A good result is highly regarded by parents, students and teachers in the society. Thus classroom teaching is supposed to focus on getting good results for students. Students' assessment in Bangladesh is totally based on written examinations. In addition to half-yearly and year-final examinations in every class, public examinations are held at the end of Classes 10 and 12. Students of Bangla medium schools sit for the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) examination at the end of Class 10 and the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) examination at the end of Class 12. Students have to sit for these public examinations to get the level completion certificate. In English-medium schools, on the other hand, students sit for the Cambridge O-Level and A-Level examinations at the end of Class 10 and 12 respectively. Similarly, *Dakhil* and *Alim* examinations are held for students of Madrasahs at the end of secondary and higher secondary levels. A large number of students participate in the SSC and HSC examinations, since the majority of the students of secondary level in Bangladesh participate in general stream of Bangla-medium education. A total of 789,669 students participated in the SSC examination in 2006 (Education Board, 2008). The number is almost same every year.

The SSC and HSC examinations are administered regionally by the respective Boards of Education and the questions are based on the same syllabus. At present, seven Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education (BISE), one Madrasah Education Board (MEB) and one Technical Education Board (TEB) are responsible for the administration and accreditation of these public examinations, which in turn are overseen by the Ministry of Education.

Results obtained from the SSC and HSC exams have major implications for all students. The importance of these exams can be felt from the wide broadcasting of the results in the media. Results not only work as the basis for determining eligibility for admission to the next level of education but also implicate employment opportunities, mostly for students who discontinue their studies after any of these public examinations.

2.1.3. Enrolment and Discontinuation

A number of developments took place in secondary education in the last three decades. The National Education Commission (2003) reported that secondary education enrolment in Bangladesh has more than doubled since 1980. According to a report of Education Watch (2005), the rate of secondary education participation has increased to 45 percent in 2005 from 33 percent in 1998. Within this general increase, girls' enrolment has significantly improved over this period because of increased incentives such as stipends and tuition waivers for girls from rural areas (Education Watch, 2005). Haq (2004) states: "This phenomenon may largely be attributed to the Female Secondary Education Stipend Programme (FSSP) introduced by Government of Bangladesh (GoB) in 1994" (p. 31). The Government also provides tuition fees, SSC examination fees, book allowances etc. for female students in rural areas and these all contributed to the increase of their enrolment (UNESCO, 2004) in recent years.

Despite such encouraging statistics, the rate of discontinuation of education is very high in Bangladesh. A study conducted by Education Watch in 2002 involving 600 secondary level students shows that children increasingly need to go to work in rural areas which

prevents them from going to school (Education Watch, 2002, p. xxxvi). Thus poverty can be said to be the predominant cause of discontinuation in secondary education. Of all the enrolled students in secondary level, the drop-out rate of female students is 83.29 percent (BANBEIS, 2005). This number is slightly better at 76.54, with male students. Generally the discontinuation rate is an average of 80.02 percent (BANBEIS, 2005) which means that only 19.98 percent of the students enrolled in secondary level eventually complete their education.

2.1.4. Administration and Management

In terms of the number of people involved, the education system of Bangladesh is so huge and important that it functions under two separate ministries. The Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (MoPME) is responsible for primary and mass education, while the Ministry of Education (MoE) is responsible for secondary and higher secondary levels of education. MoE formulates all policy, planning and programs of secondary level, which is the biggest sub-sector of education in Bangladesh. There are various divisions under MoE to execute its functions. The Ministry executes its functions through its Secretariat which is headed by the Education Secretary, the Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education (DSHE), the Directorate of Technical Education (DTE), headed by Director Generals and nine autonomous Boards of Education. For field-level management of secondary education, the country has been divided into nine educational zones. Each secondary school within these zones is monitored and supervised by a total of 64 District Education Officers (DEOs) and 4 Assistant DEOs (ADEOs).

There are different types of management systems in schools which might result in differences in teaching context, as there are differences in a number of aspects among these schools. Some of these issues are discussed later in this study. There are two types of secondary educational institutions i.e. government secondary schools (or public schools) and non-government secondary schools (or private schools), differing in terms of ownership and management. According to the education statistics of the Ministry of Education (MOE), currently only 317 out of 13,224 schools are run by the government

(MOE, 2005). Thus nearly 98 percent of the institutions are non-government schools which are called 'MPO (Monthly Payment Order) schools' where the government provides 90 percent of the salaries of teachers and staff, the cost of the physical infrastructure development and durable educational supplies and equipment (UNESCO, 2004). The government schools are all located in urban areas and are mostly non-co-education, whereas most non-government schools are pre-dominantly co-educational. Only 14.5 percent of non-government schools are for girls and 21 percent for boys (Education Watch, 2005). The average number of students per class varies from 68 to 79 in all these three types of schools. According to a report of the National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM), the average number of students in each class of the public schools in urban areas, private schools in urban areas and private schools in rural areas are respectively 68, 79 and 76 (NAEM, 2005b).

School Managing Committees (SMCs) manage all non-government secondary institutions. These committees are comprised of teachers, businessmen, farmers and social workers. A UNESCO report on education in Bangladesh shows that these committees are responsible for the management of the schools: "This type of management structure was designed to provide participation of local stakeholders. It also provides the SMCs with the flexibility to hire teachers without going through a central bureaucratic system" (UNESCO, 2004, p. 28). The report also shows that such management has been designed to ensure community participation in the management of schools. Thus initiative is taken for successful management of individual schools.

2.1.5. School Teachers

Teaching in schools is a vast employment sector in Bangladesh. School teachers vary in qualifications and levels of training in Bangladesh. Currently, a total of 238,158 teachers are teaching in the secondary level (BANBEIS, 2005). According to a report of Education Watch (2005), 58 percent of these teachers have a Bachelor's degree, 26 percent have a Masters' degree, while 13 percent of the teachers have only completed the Higher Secondary Certificate. A total of 3 percent of teachers have a minimum qualification of SSC or below. There is, therefore, still a number of teachers who are teaching at

secondary level with educational qualifications of a low level. Teachers' educational qualifications in Bangladesh vary between rural and urban areas. Due to better payment and living standards, teachers who are university graduates prefer to teach in urban areas, whereas teachers of rural areas are less qualified and trained (Hasan, 2004).

Despite teachers' high social regard, they are paid low wages paid relative to the average earnings of people in other professions across the country, both in urban and rural areas in Bangladesh. The average salary of secondary teachers ranges between \$120-\$160⁶ per month (Chowdhury & Farooqui, 2009) whereas the per capita income of Bangladeshi people is \$470 (World Bank, 2007). A teachers' salary therefore arguably falls into the lower income bracket of the country.

Under these circumstances, private tuition is a major source of earning for these teachers, mostly in urban areas. They supplement their inadequate remuneration through providing private tuition outside of school hours (Latif & Johanson, 2000). Most teachers provide such supplementary tutoring outside the regular class hours. These tutoring prepare students for year final examinations and public examinations. According to a report the Education Watch (2006), on an average, parents spend \$214 annually on each child to provide this private education. This report also shows that 88 percent of students of public high schools and 78 percent of students of private high schools in urban areas receive private coaching or tuition.

2.1.6. Teacher Training

Several institutions provide training to the teachers as teacher training is a major sector of education. Teachers in different levels of education are required to have training in order to be eligible for the pay scale decided by the government in Bangladesh. At present, there are 54 public sector Primary Training Institutes (PTIs) which offer a one-year Certificate in Education (C in Ed) course for teachers of primary schools. Teachers at junior secondary and secondary levels are graduates from tertiary institutions with a

⁶ All prices are in US dollars unless otherwise indicated.

one-year teacher training from a Teacher Training College (TTC) in Bangladesh. There are 11 such public sector TTCs and about 50 privately owned TTCs currently in operation (Haq, 2004), which offer one-year Bachelor of Education (BEd) courses. In some of the TTCs, Masters in Education (MEd) is also offered for BEd degree or diploma holders. In addition, the Bangladesh Open University (BOU) offers a BEd course through distance-education mode. Various in-service short-term training courses on different subjects are also held in the National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM). These training programs are for both secondary and college teachers as well as for educational administrators.

This discussion of the different systems of schooling, management and training of education insights the importance and vastness of the education sector in Bangladesh which forms the backdrop of this study. In Chapters Six and Seven, participants make frequent references to some of the administrative and management related mechanisms mentioned above.

2.2. English Language in Bangladesh

English language has always been an important aspect of education in Bangladesh. Although Bangla is the native language of 95 percent of the total population of the country and people use this language in their everyday activities, English is taught compulsorily from year 1 to 12, that is, for 12 years in all streams of education.

People in Bangladesh learn English to meet two kinds of needs namely academic and occupational. Academic needs are solely to do with study and include reading books in English, listening to lectures, writing essays, term papers and dissertations. In schools, students need to pass examinations in English since the subject is compulsory and they need it at tertiary level to read textbooks, understand lectures and write in exams. Students also need English to prepare themselves for higher studies since every year a number of students go abroad for higher studies. There has been an increase in the number of such students seeking admission into overseas universities for higher studies

and the need for learning English is consistently growing for this reason (Rahman, 1999, February). People also learn English for occupational needs. In business, industry and government, workers are increasingly expected to possess proficiency in English. In relation to the need for learning the English language in Bangladesh, Imam (2005) reports "In Bangladesh it is now essential for even factory workers, who earn less than the minimum wage, to know some English, the language of the labels on goods and packaging" (Imam 2005, p. 480).

The need for English language proficiency in obtaining successful jobs has created an incremental, societal, parental and learner urge to learn and use English. Hossain and Tollefson (2007) state "English is widely seen as offering economic advantage, and virtually all economic rewards accrue to English" (p. 255). More importantly, since Bangladesh is emerging as a newly developed industrialised country, there is a need for increased communication with the outside world for various purposes i.e. job, foreign aid, mass communication. As a result of this growing demand for English, the concern to send students to English medium schools is also increasing. As Rahman (2007) states "The mushrooming of private English-medium kindergarten and primary/secondary schools and adult English language centers are evidence of the heavy demand among the population of English" (Rahman, 2007, p. 81).

Proficiency in the English language is considered as an indicator of success since a good level of proficiency is a pre-requisite for getting a good job (Farooqui, 2007). In order to get into the public service, people have to pass competitive exams where English, again, is a compulsory subject. Regardless of the job description, private and multinational organisations look particularly for proficient English language users because these organisations deal with people from overseas. Quader (1999, February) notes that in order to do well academically and to conduct one's work well in Bangladesh, one has to depend on English even though it now still has the status of a foreign (rather than second) language in Bangladesh. This feature will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.1. *History of English in Bangladesh*

The English language teaching in Bangladesh has reached to its present form after enduring numerous changes along the way. It was the medium of instruction in schools during the colonial period that ended in 1947, with the creation of India and Pakistan. East Pakistan and West Pakistan were the two states that emerged out of the partition of British India. Although Bangla was the native language of 95 percent of the people living in East Pakistan (Khan, 2004), the national language for both the states was Urdu. English was used as the official language at that time. Furthermore, the denial of the demand of Bangla speakers to make Bangla one of the official languages became an issue of conflict between the two states of Pakistan. This resulted in a major conflict known as the 'Language Movement', in which many people sacrificed their lives in 1952 to make it one of the national languages in Pakistan. In 1971, the land of Bangla speakers (East Pakistan) finally emerged as the independent Bangladesh.

Due to such historical events, English suffered a serious setback because of the people's strong nationalistic sentiment for the mother tongue. Bari (2002) states that the martyrdom of the language movement left a deep impression on the younger generation and locked in the secular linguistic character of Bengali nationalism. Due to the nation's emotional attachment with the mother language Bangla, further increased by the Language Movement of 1952, English came under severe attack by the people of Bangladesh in the post-independence time. Many of them suggested abolishing English altogether from the education of Bangladesh. Through the passing of the Bengali Introduction Law in the employment sector in 1983, the Bangladesh government made it compulsory for employees in government, semi-government and autonomous institutions to use Bangla in inter-office memos, legal documents and correspondence except in the case of communication with foreign countries and organisations (Rahman, 1999b).

2.2.2. *An Era of Change*

Change started taking place gradually as the government realized that, to keep pace with the growing demand of proficient English language users, it was necessary to retain English as a subject of study in the school curriculum (Rahman, 1999, February). English came to be recognised as an essential work-oriented 'skill' that was needed if the employment, development and educational needs of the country were to be met successfully. The report of the Bangladesh Education Commission (1974, in Khan 2004) defined the language policy in Bangladesh for the first time. It emphasised the importance of learning English for the first time in the history of Bangladesh. One of the points of this report was as follows:

It is not necessary to learn any language other than Bangla up to class V. From Class VI to Class XII, however, a modern and developed foreign language must be learnt compulsorily. For historical reasons and for the sake of reality, English will continue as a second compulsory language. (Khan, 2004, p. 113)

The government started taking initiatives to ensure the improvement in the quality of English language education to turn its huge population into human resources for its economic development (Imam, 2005). To this end, an English language Teaching Task Force was set up by the Ministry of Education in 1975 in order to assess the situation of English language teaching in Bangladesh. According to the findings of this Task Force, the English proficiency of students in Class 9 was two years and in Class 12 four years behind the level that is assumed in their textbooks. In 1976, English was introduced from Class 3 as a compulsory subject of study at the suggestion of the National Curriculum and Syllabus Committee (NCSC). This was the beginning of the development of English language policy in the education sector in Bangladesh (Khan, 2004).

Major changes have been introduced in the curriculum since 1974, as a response to the need of raising the English proficiency of students. Educational policy makers began to feel that English could no longer be neglected by Bangladeshi people due to its

increasing role in national development and its vital role in commerce with the outside world (Rahman, 1999, February). Rahman (2007) points out the most important educational planning related to the teaching of English since independence, which can be listed as follows:

- 1974: English was made a compulsory subject from Class 6 to Class 12.
- 1976: English was introduced as a compulsory subject from Class 3 to Class 12.
- 1986: English was introduced as a compulsory subject from Class 1 to Class 12.
- 1992: The Private University Act was passed in Parliament. It resulted in the creation of private universities modelled mostly on the US system of education operating through the English medium. This was done to enhance the employment potential of graduates and to stop students' declining standards in academic performance.
- 1994: English was introduced in undergraduate courses.
- 1996: Compulsory English language foundation course was introduced in some state university undergraduate classes.
- 1996: The retirement age of all government English teachers was raised by 3 years as a response to increased demands for English teachers.

(Rahman, 2007, p. 76)

This chronology clearly shows that English language education gradually received prominence in policy for all levels of education in Bangladesh.

2.3. English Language Teaching in Bangladesh

The grammar translation method was the common way of teaching language all over the world in 1970s and early 1980s (Brown, 2004) and it has always been the accepted, normative and policy endorsed norm for teaching English language at all levels of

education since the emergence of Bangladesh as an independent country in 1971 (Chowdhury & Farooqui, 2009). This traditional method focused on grammatical rules and classes were taught in the native language with little use of the target language (Brown, 2004). In language classes, the focus was on rote learning - grammatical rules, memorisation of vocabulary and translation of text and written exercises (Chowdhury & Farooqui, 2009).

Arguably, such English courses did not improve the skill levels of the students. As Sultana (2004) argues, even though students in Bangladesh studied English for 12 years as a compulsory subject in their schools and colleges, they had a very poor communicative proficiency in English. She points out that the reason behind this was that the teachers taught with a major focus on grammar and form, rather than on meaning and communication. The English textbook was mainly a collection of prose and poetry, with supplementary grammar books, mainly consisting of grammatical rules. The main emphasis of this method was on grammar- encouraging students to learn the language but not how to use it in a given context (Hasan, 2004). Students practised translating disconnected sentences from Bangla to English and memorised essays, paragraphs, and letters from grammar books. Speaking and listening skills were neither a focus of classroom teaching nor were tested in the exam, resulting in a situation where in both teaching and learning, certain parts of the English curriculum were favoured over others (Chowdhury & Farooqui, 2009). Therefore, students learned only the structure of the English language; they did not learn how to communicate in English using all the four skills of that language.

2.3.1. The Development Projects and Change

Change in English language teaching in Bangladesh started taking place since it was strongly felt that the existing English subject did not improve the skill levels of the students adequately (Farooqui, 2007). The government realised that people's proficiency in the English language would help to enhance the tremendous potential of the Bangladeshi workforce and give more people the chance to earn a better living as the neighbouring countries such as India, Sri Lanka and Pakistan (Billah, 2004). These

countries earn much foreign exchange through exporting English skilled manpower. “Now, it has come to the realizations of our policy makers that we are being deprived globally in many fields due to the lack of communication ability of our graduates” (NAEM 2005a, p. 2). Khan and Ismail (2000, November) also note that Bangladesh realised that English language teaching should aim at equipping the learners with the ability to communicate and use the language effectively rather than merely being taught the rules of language.

To meet the consistently escalating demands for English proficiency, various projects started taking place in 1990s which were initiated by the Government, Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) and international developmental agencies (Farooqui, 2007; Rahman, 2007). These initiatives were taken to change the curriculum and for the improvement of teacher training. Table 2 shows the major projects of English teaching and learning improvement since 1990. This list is by no means comprehensive but it shows the trend that various development projects have started working towards the overall improvement of ELT in Bangladesh.

Projects	Funded by	Year
Orientation of Secondary School Teachers for Teaching English in Bangladesh (OSSTTEB)	Department for International Development (DFID)	1990-95
English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP) Phase-1	Department for International Development (DFID)	July 1997-June 2002
(ELTIP) Phase-2	National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) and seven Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education (BISE)	July 2002-June 2005
(ELTIP) Phase-3	NCTB and seven BISEs	July 2005-June 2008
Secondary Education Sector Improvement Project (SESIP)	Government of Bangladesh	2000-2005
Teaching Quality Improvement Project (TQI)	Asian Development Bank (ADB) and Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA).	2005-2010

Table 2: Major Development Projects in ELT in Bangladesh

All of these development projects aimed to enhance the quality of secondary education by improving the quality of teaching. The OSSTTEB and ELTIP worked towards modifying the English curriculum, designing textbooks and teacher training. All other projects worked on improving teacher training facilities and strengthening in-service

and pre-service teacher training (Rahman, 2007). The last two decades thus saw a striking growth and renewal of interest in ELT in Bangladesh. English language education has entered into an era of innovation and restructuring which held promises for enormous change.

The English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP) was a major project as it replaced the traditional grammar-based syllabus with a new syllabus which focused on a communicative approach with a view to enabling students to gain competence in using English for communication. Before ELTIP was started, a baseline survey was undertaken in 1990 by the NCTB in connection with a British government Overseas Development Administration (ODA) project to survey the situation of English language teaching at the secondary level. This survey was carried out to help take initiatives in the ELTIP project. The findings of this project showed that “the majority of students did not have the proficiency required from them by their class textbooks. The situation was more serious in non-government rural areas” (Khan, 2004, p. 116). The new curriculum of ELTIP aimed to facilitate the teaching and learning of English with a methodology that would encourage students to acquire communicative competence in English through regular practice of these skills in the classroom.

2.3.1.1. The English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP)

ELTIP was co-funded by the Bangladesh government and the Department for International Development (DFID) of United Kingdom and it started in 1998. Run by the British Council and the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB), ELTIP aimed to improve the quality of English language teaching in secondary and higher secondary education in Bangladesh (ELTIP, 2000). The new curriculum involved a radical departure from previous teaching methods by transferring the focus from a grammar-based, teacher-centred to a communicative, student-centred approach.

ELTIP emphasised students’ involvement in activities and aimed to improve the standard of English in terms of both teaching and learning by bringing changes in three

areas, namely textbooks, examinations and in-service teacher training (see also 1.1.2.1).

Figure 1 shows the initiatives taken under ELTIP.

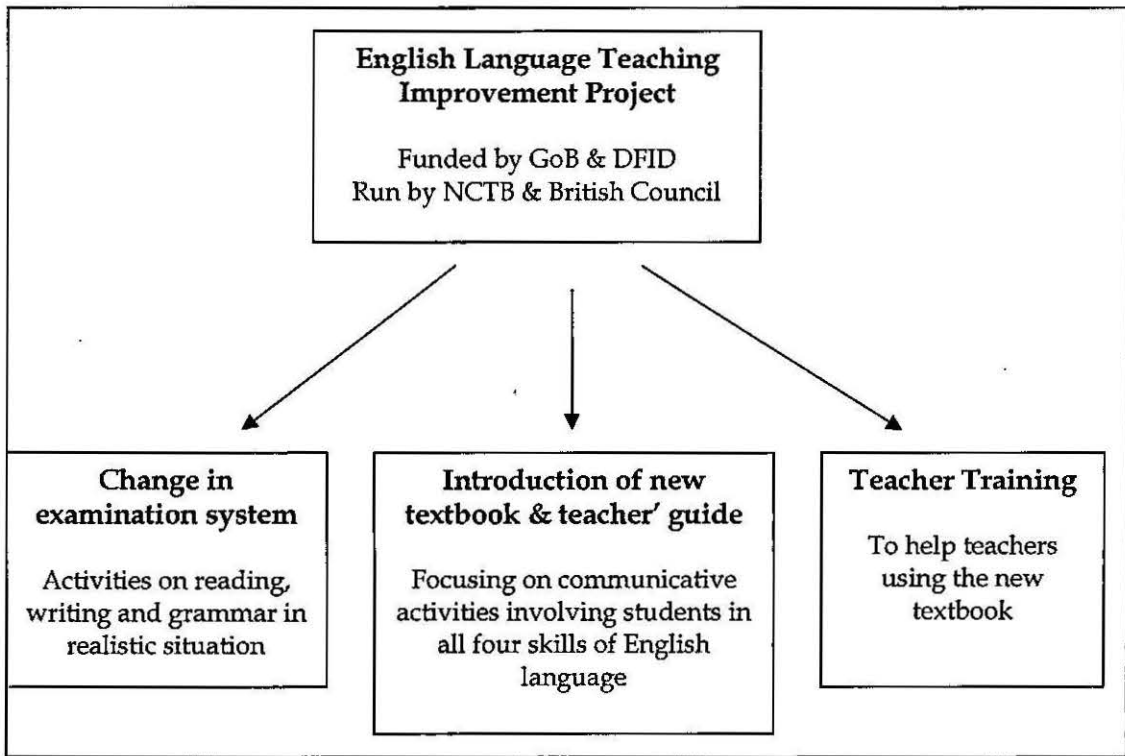


Figure 1: Initiatives taken under English Language Teaching Improvement Project

Textbook

ELTIP introduced new textbooks for the junior secondary level (Classes 7 and 8), secondary level (Classes 9 and 10) and higher secondary level (Classes 11 and 12) as part of the new curriculum. The textbooks were written by a team of Bangladeshi teachers who received training in the United Kingdom. The National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) in Bangladesh produces these books. All schools, from primary to higher secondary levels, use the same sets of books. The book *English for Today* is compulsory for Classes 9 and 10 in all schools. There is no option to choose an alternative textbook

for teaching English. Farooqui (2008) outlines the main features of the new text book as follows:

- Getting students to participate in activities which involve all the four skills of English language;
- Emphasising the teaching of listening and speaking skills;
- Promoting small group and pair activities as the most common in class, interaction strategy. In every lesson, there is more than one activity involving students in pair work or group work;
- Using a wider range of topics and themes that cover different issues and events, knowledge of different disciplines and subjects. The social, historical, cultural and environmental factors of Bangladesh are reflected in this book. Reading texts and dialogues are on a variety of themes, such as, *Space Technology, Using a Library, Exploring Mars, Sports and You* etc.;
- Using illustrations and diagrams to make the lessons more interesting;
- Using many authentic resources in the text. For example, advertisements from newspapers, application forms for bank loans, newspaper articles etc.;
- Teaching grammar in context—grammar is not taught separately;
- Using English language as the only language of instruction. There is no option of using native language in any activity in the book.

(Farooqui, 2008, p. 194)

A teacher's guide has also been published with the textbook to help teachers in making lesson plans and getting answers to the exercises given in the textbook. In this guide, details have been provided of what a teacher should do before, during and after the class. For example, teachers have been instructed to make lesson plans before entering the class.

Before you enter the class, you should prepare a lesson plan. If you are an experienced teacher, the plan does not have to be a detailed account of things you and your students will be doing in the class. It could be just an outline or

some points that will remind you of the activities you will be carrying out during the class. However, you should write or think about the following points before you enter the class. (Shahzadi, Rabbani, & Tasmin, 2002, p.ii)

Teachers have also been given guidance on how to teach grammar and conduct activities involving all four skills of language. They have been suggested to make notes after the class on how the class went, what activities the students enjoyed and how a task or activity that went wrong could be improved. These notes are intended to stimulate reflexive practice among teachers and help them to plan and conduct the subsequent classes. The guide emphasises teacher's use of English as language of instruction: "Make sure that the language of communication between you and your students, and most importantly between students and students, should be English. This is essential for the students to practise and develop their language skills" (Shahzadi, Rabbani, & Tasmin, 2002, p. i). It is intended that teachers will follow the guide while teaching the text. The teaching principles, as suggested in the guide are as follows:

- Student-centred learning should take place. The teachers should guide and encourage students to participate in every activity;
- All the four skills - listening, reading, writing and speaking, should be equally emphasised;
- It is important for the students to learn to use English.

(Farooqui, 2008, p. 195)

Since one of main aims of the new curriculum is to encourage the practice of listening skills in English, there are many activities on listening comprehension. The book does not include any listening comprehension passages, even though exercises on listening comprehension are suggested in almost every lesson. The corresponding passages are given in the teacher's guide with the intention that teachers will read them aloud and students will do the exercises after listening to them. No audio cassette or compact disc (CD) has been provided with the book.

In short, the new curriculum stresses the need for students to learn to communicate in English rather than to just master the structure of the language. Chapter Seven discusses to what extent actual teaching practices espouse and follow the abovementioned guidelines and policy orientations, which constitute the key enquiry of this study.

Examination

ELTIP also aimed to change the examination system. The SSC examination, under the new curriculum, was held for the first time in 2003 when the first cohort of students completed work in the textbooks for Classes 9 and 10. ELTIP had considerably changed the question pattern and format. The questions of the SSC exams are now set to test students' use of grammar items within specific contexts - students are not examined on explicit grammatical knowledge as before. The writing tasks of the SSC examination held under the previous curriculum used to ask students to write on topics they memorised but the tasks in the writing section of the current examination provide the students with a realistic situation and an instruction to complete the task. It provides students both a context and a reason for engaging in the activities. ELTIP also aimed to orient markers to the standardised marking policy and procedures. For this end, workshops on marking, question-setting and classroom testing were conducted all over the country. In Chapter Six, some participants talk about the effect of this new examination system.

Teacher Training

One of the main aims of ELTIP is to train secondary teachers of English to teach in the communicative method so that they can use the newly written textbook to develop learners' competence in all four skills of the English language: "The goal of ELTIP is to contribute to the improvement in the quality of English language teaching in secondary and higher secondary education in Bangladesh. ELTIP is about changing teachers' classroom behaviour" (Khan, 2002, p. 35). It focuses on helping teachers use the textbook in the class: "In ELTIP Training courses, teachers have been trained in communicative language teaching so that they can make the possible uses of the newly written communicative textbooks with a view to developing the four language skills (reading,

writing, speaking and listening) of their learners" (ELTIP, 2007, p. 3). An annual report on the ELTIP project ends with the following statement:

ELTIP hopes and believes that more training programmes will be conducted in the coming years to develop teacher's basic understanding of communicative language teaching for Bangladeshi secondary school reality. It will enhance teacher's understanding and effective use of *English for Today* course book. The training will ensure the teacher's ability to make full use of teacher's guides, which is essential for effecting day-to-day classroom teaching. (ELTIP, 2007, p. 8-9)

The in-service teacher training programs of ELTIP are 15 days long and are conducted by Regional Resource Centers (RRCs) and Satellite Resource Centers (SRCs). The RRCs are based in four major cities and support the SRCs for running training sessions. Through its seven RRCs and 27 SRCs, ELTIP trained about 17,328 teachers by June 2005 (ELTIP, 2007). It aimed at training 34,560 teachers by June 2008 but the report was not yet available at the time this study was undertaken.

Thus by introducing new textbooks, examination systems and teacher training, the government, through the ELTIP project, attempted to bring changes in the English language teaching and learning situation in schools of Bangladesh.

2.3.2. *English Language Teachers*

Teachers of English in Bangladesh traditionally enjoy greater esteem and are regarded as more knowledgeable than people in other professions. The current interest in ELT reform also means that they are perpetually at the centre of attention and discussion by both the school administration, the government as well as trainers and policymakers.

As discussed earlier (see 2.1.5), in Bangladesh, English is taught by teachers with varying qualifications and levels of training. Teachers who teach English language in schools of Bangladesh do not need to have an academic degree in English or training on

ELT. They usually come to this profession after completing a Bachelors degree. Except in some urban areas, regardless of their academic background, teachers teach all subjects and there is no teacher just to teach the English language (Hasan, 2004).

English language teachers in Bangladesh do not always have proficiency in teaching the skills of English language. As Hasan (2004) argues: "In most of the rural schools and many urban schools, the common picture is that their teachers are not fluent in listening, speaking, reading and writing. They just know the grammar of English and how to teach it" (Hasan, 2004, 2.5).

Educational qualifications of teachers who teach English in Bangladesh vary between rural and urban areas. People who graduate in English have the prospect of getting a job of high status and high salary. Such people rarely go for teaching English in rural areas. People have to get a good result in the SSC and the HSC or in the admission test in order to be allowed to study English in Universities or colleges.

2.3.2.1. Training for English Language Teachers

English language teachers receive various training programs which now mostly focus on the implementation of the new curriculum. The Bachelor of Education (BEd) is one such training course that provides teachers with professional training to build their understanding of the communicative approach. BEd training programs are carried out by the Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) situated in different parts of the country, which offer one-year BEd courses. It was once offered only by public TTCs alone, but due to the increase in the number of teachers, currently some private training colleges administer these programs as well. In all, there are 11 public sector TTCs and about 50 privately owned TTCs currently in operation (Haq, 2004).

Teachers have the choice of taking the English language course while doing BEd training, which is an essential training for teachers of the secondary level in Bangladesh. The syllabus of BEd significantly changed after the innovation in ELT took place. The

English course in BEd focuses on the current content of the changed textbook as well as the teachers' guide (National University of Bangladesh, 2008, p. 34). It gives an overview of English in the Bangladeshi secondary curriculum and is linked to the needs of practicing teachers. On the whole, it focuses on encouraging communication in the classroom. In an evaluative study of the syllabus of the BEd training course, Rahman (1999a) states that it reflects the innovation that has taken place in English language teaching.

Other than BEd, some other in-service teacher training programs are arranged exclusively for English language teachers. These in-service training courses aim to improve upon perceived deficiencies in initial teacher training by providing teachers with practical classroom skills and techniques to which they had so far not been exposed. The ELTIP in service training is one such training. Some other organisations have also arranged training programmes for the development of the teachers as ELTIP training facilities are insufficient compared to the number of teachers. Training for communicative English is also provided by the National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM) for teachers of both government and non-government schools. NAEM, in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, arranges 12-30 days training programs named the 'Communicative English Course' (CEC) and 'Communicative Language Teaching' (CLT) for teachers of secondary and higher secondary levels on the communicative approach. Such courses aim to enable the trainees to demonstrate enhanced proficiency in communicative English and to improve their own English, handle the new textbook efficiently and motivate learners to participate in various language practices. It also emphasises developing tests on listening, reading, writing and speaking (NAEM, 2005). According to the training brochure issued to trainers of CEC.

The course covers a wide range of basic classroom teaching skills and practical techniques for developing listening, speaking, reading, writing and communicative grammar using teaching aids and materials in class and other

areas of competencies in the light of *English for Today* and Teachers' Guide. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 2)

These various initiatives have been taken by the government to implement the new curriculum by training teachers in the use of the new textbook following the communicative approach.

2.4. Summary of Chapter

This chapter outlined the education system in Bangladesh with particular focus on English language education. It started with a discussion of education and the schooling system followed by a section that described the current status of English language education and how its position has changed over a period of almost four decades. The chapter ends with a detailed description of English language teaching in Bangladesh. This section also discussed the overall situation of English language teaching with a focus on teacher training and the development projects that have been initiated by the government to improve the ELT situation in Bangladesh. The numerous initiatives taken by the government, the non-government and international bodies reflect the awareness of the importance of English language education. Such issues form the core concern of this study, as outlined in the previous chapter.

The next chapter, Chapter Three, discusses the theoretical framework and presents a review of the literature related to the implementation of curriculum innovation. It also presents a theoretical frame for the study.

3. Chapter Three

DIFFUSION OF INNOVATION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

The previous chapter showed how curriculum innovation has taken place in English language teaching in Bangladesh in recent years. Similar innovations have been taking place in the English language teaching of other countries in response to the evolving global need for competent users of the English language. As part of these innovations, the communicative approach has been introduced in many places to improve students' communication skills. Teachers are often trained to teach the new curriculum when such curriculum innovation takes place since such innovation necessitates corresponding changes in pedagogical practices and also because teachers are key players in determining the direction of the ultimate shape of the changed curriculum. New textbooks are often introduced as part of curriculum change in the English language teaching scenario where a communicative approach has been introduced. It is therefore important to arrange training for the teachers in order to use the new textbook and implement innovation by changing their teaching styles. Curriculum implementers thus arrange training and textbooks to make innovation successful by ensuring that teachers understand new policies and practices of the enacted curriculum. However, literature shows that such training does not always help teachers in implementing new teaching strategies. In their efforts to translate theory into practice, teachers encounter obstacles created by various socio-cultural issues. These issues might work as hindrance in implementing the training arranged for teachers. Despite these obstacles, the ultimate objective is always that innovation still has to work.

Using evidence from conceptual as well as empirical studies, this chapter presents the theoretical framework and a critical and detailed review of the literature related to the implementation of curriculum innovation and the introduction of training and textbooks as strategies that are used to change teaching practice in the transition phase of innovation. This review considers the rationale for using these strategies to implement

the innovation of curriculum. Finally, based on the review of the literature and the research questions, a theoretical frame for the study is presented. Later chapters of this study allude to this theoretical framework in the analysis of the findings.

3.1. Theoretical Framework

This section starts with a discussion on innovations in English language teaching with a focus on communicative language teaching. It then explores the top-down approach of innovation in English language teaching. The importance of training to change teaching is then discussed. The next part explores the use of textbooks as another vehicle of curriculum innovation. The following section focuses on the importance of training in facilitating the use of a new textbook. The specific importance of training to use a textbook written in the communicative approach is considered in the next part. The last part discusses other factors that might influence the implementation of a new curriculum.

3.1.1. Innovation in English Language Teaching and Introduction of the Communicative Language Teaching

Within the English Language Teaching (ELT) scenario, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach has been introduced as part of curriculum innovation in the last four decades in many parts of the world (Butler, Lauscher, Jarvis-Selinger & Beckingham, 2004). The communicative approach started in the late 1970s in Europe and gained momentum in the early 1980s (Hu, 2002; Li, 1998).

ELT has always played an important part in the education of many countries in the world. Nunan (2003) reports that most countries of the Asia Pacific region introduced English as a compulsory subject in lower-grade levels. Korea, Taiwan and Japan introduced English language instruction at the elementary level with an emphasis on developing oral skills in English (Butler, 2004). Wu (2001) mentions that as a response to the need for English, the Ministry of Education in China organised major curriculum reforms for schools and introduced major and non-major English programs at

universities nationwide. Hu (2002) also shows that the English language has gained importance and popularity in China as it is perceived as a language to promote international exchange. "English is perceived as a key to promoting international exchange, acquiring scientific knowledge and technological expertise, fostering economic progress, and participating in international competition" (Hu, 2002, p. 93).

The growing demand for competent users of English in the job market, especially in developing countries, has also triggered the need for innovation in ELT. Stoyhoff (in Stoller, 1994) argues that changes in the English language program take place in response to the evolving needs of ELT students, faculty and the educational programs themselves. This section discusses the concept of the CLT approach and why it has been introduced in those countries as part of curriculum innovation.

Various countries of the world in recent decades have been implementing the communicative approach in place of the traditional grammatical approach since the traditional teaching-learning style of English failed to improve students' English language proficiency. In a study on the educational policy and practices in seven countries of the Asia-Pacific region, Nunan (2003) found that some form of CLT was introduced in English language education in China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan and Vietnam to improve the effectiveness of classroom teaching. Similar initiatives have also been taken in Turkey (Kırkgöz, 2007). The socio-economic histories of these countries have seen the continuation of English language teaching following grammatical approach. CLT breathed in fresh air with the promise of a more effective pedagogical platform. "The basic goal of the policy is explicitly stated as the development of learners' ability to perceive the foreign language as an opportunity for communication and participation in classroom activities" (Kırkgöz, 2007, p. 179). Researchers (Anderson & Wall, 1993; Hu, 2005; Khan, 2002; Li, 2001; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Yumchi, 2006) report that this 'imported methodology' (Hu, 2005, p.635) has been introduced in these countries to improve the English language proficiency of the people.

Many countries introduced changes in their English language education policies to improve people's English language proficiency in response to the growing need for English communication (Butler, 2004). Previous language instructions mostly focused on grammar and translation which did not help students to acquire sufficient communication skills, by contrast CLT emphasised learning English through communication. It promotes collaborative learning through pair work and group work activities and provides learners with opportunities to share information and learn through communication (Hu, 2002). Brown (2004) summarises the learning theory underlying CLT. He argues that CLT focuses on student-centred activities that involve real communication, promote learning and in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks. It also emphasises on providing students tasks which will equip them with the skills necessary for communication in contexts outside the classroom (p. 43).

The main reason for introducing CLT in Asian countries was to improve students' communication skills through promoting student centered learning (Gorsuch, 2000; Khan, 2002; Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2007). Littlewood (2007) claims that national policies and syllabuses of the English language in East Asian countries have shifted towards various versions of CLT to increase people's effectiveness in communication. "Educators and governments in East Asia are intensively addressing the need to increase the number of people in their population who can communicate effectively in English" (Littlewood, 2007, p. 243). Students are expected to interact with one another, either through pair work and group work or in their writings (Finocchiaro & Brumfit in Li, 1998, p. 679). Activities are often carried out by students in small groups. Indeed "almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent" (Larsen-Freeman cited in Li, 2001, p. 150).

Gorsuch (2000) states that the communicative approach was introduced in Japan in 1992 and it was a marked contrast to the existing classroom practices which were concerned with grammatical form and translation of English literary text into Japanese. Little attention was paid to developing students' skill for communication. Unlike the traditional approach, CLT focuses on the functional aspects of language as well as on the

grammatical and structural features of language (Brown, 2004). Celce-Murcia (1991) claims that language should be taught at the discourse level rather than at the level of sentence, as most traditional approaches do. Learners need opportunities to use the target language for communication and to learn the language through using it because CLT focuses on language learning for effective communication (Butler, 2004; Nunan, 2003), as Savignon (1991) states:

The focus has been the elaboration and implementation of program and methodologies that promote the development of functional language ability through learner participation in communicative events. Central to CLT is the understanding of language learning as both an educational and political issue. (Savignon, 1991, p. 265).

As in other countries, CLT has been introduced in Bangladesh to increase the communicative skills of people. The English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP) aimed to facilitate the teaching and learning of English within a communicative environment that would encourage students to acquire communication skills (Farooqui, 2008). The new curriculum was organized around student-centred activities based on communicative principles. "Introducing English at the earliest grade possible and 'going communicative' were two recent English Language Teaching (ELT) policy initiatives to develop Bangladeshi human capital" (Hamid & Baldauf Jr., 2008, p. 16).

3.1.1.1. Top-Down Innovation

Innovations in ELT have been introduced following a top-down approach in most of the countries discussed in the previous section. Markee (1997) claims that a more centralised innovation was introduced in developing countries, where decision makers use "power-coercive strategies" (Chin & Benne, 1976) trying to force people to change or act in some way considered to be beneficial. This is usually tackled with an imposed set of plans (Rahman, 1999a). Smith and Lovat (2003) point out that this strategy results in quick changes because often sanctions or penalties are imposed by those in power. Sanctions can be in the form of paying teachers higher for teaching in new ways or setting

questions on new topics in students' compulsory examinations. Smith and Lovat also argue that in such situations, once the sanction or penalty is removed, implementers usually return to the previous system and do "what they were doing before the change was imposed" (Smith & Lovat, 2003, p. 198). Within innovative shifts, such forward and backward movement constitute some of the main concerns of this thesis.

Generally it was the power-coercive strategy has been followed in introducing curriculum innovation in most of the countries in Asia. The model for such an approach is called the "Center-Periphery Model" (Markee, 1997). In this strategy, innovation is initiated by policymakers and officials of the Ministry of Education who are at the centre of the decision making process. They are people who are at the upper level in hierarchical position. Rondinelli, Middleton & Verspoor (1990) state that in such a model, decision makers derive the right to exercise authority based on the hierarchical positions they occupy in a bureaucratically organised institution. Teachers do not have the power to make decisions. They are merely asked to implement the decision that has been taken by the authority. As Markee (1997) states: "Teachers who are on the periphery of this decision making process, merely implement the decisions that are handed down to them" (p. 63).

Similar power-coercive strategies have been followed in the innovative strategy in Bangladesh, as reflected in Markee's (1993) observation: "This occurs when a ministry of education decides to develop and disseminate a new syllabus country-wide" (p. 237). This strategy tries to force people to change or act in some way considered to be beneficial by the policymakers. Such a strategy assumes inertia in the system and is tackled with an imposed set of plans (Chin & Benne, 1976). Rahman (1999a) claims that educational policymakers of a country like Bangladesh where the educational ideology is authoritarian, have to deviate from the standard ideas of innovation where change is expected to occur from people as rational human beings.

On the other hand, in developed countries like North America, Britain and Australia where the educational management follows a more decentralised tradition, curriculum

innovation takes place following a 'rational empirical strategy' (Chin & Benne, 1976). In such innovation, it is expected that people will automatically adopt the change if they are shown that benefits will come from adopting the innovation (Markee, 1997). Such a strategy provides information and attempts to convince teachers of the merit of the new curricula (Hayes, 1995).

Innovations in ELT have been introduced following a top-down approach in most of the countries mentioned in previous section. However many countries still striving to introduce CLT though such innovations (the top-down approach) have seen a lower rate of success (Li, 2001). In the current literature a host of researchers have criticised the top-down Center-Periphery Model. According to Bailey (2000), for example, in such a top-down approach to change, teachers are considered as the 'rank and file implementers of change' while bureaucrats are 'designers and advocates of change' (p. 112). Such changes do not take teachers' perspectives or expertise into consideration. They are asked to work on change that has already been introduced. As Bailey (2000) states:

A top-down process of mandating change discourages teachers' abilities to set goals, develop skills, respond to feedback, and become engaged in improving their practice; instead, it encourages teachers to become dependent on the latest innovation, driving them further from a sense of their own expertise and professionalism. (Bailey, 2000, p. 120)

Top-down innovation has failed in many places possibly because it does not include the individual initiatives of teachers in making an innovation successful. Markee (1997) claims that teachers sometimes do not understand the change process in such a model of educational change because they are not given any power or recognition in taking part in the process. The Centre-Periphery Model essentially discourages such initiatives. "It turns teachers into passive recipients of change agents' dictates" (Markee, 1997, p. 64). Markee, (1997) also claims that despite the success of agents in using this approach to force repeat change, research in North America, Britain and Australia shows that such imposed innovation does not promote long lasting, self-sustaining innovation. For

example, even though reform started taking place in ELT in China since late 1980s following a top-down approach but it failed to make the expected impact on ELT (Hu, 2002). CLT was introduced as part of the reform but various factors worked as constraints on its adoption. Hu (2002) also reports that in many parts of China, the top-down promotion of CLT has not changed pedagogical practices in classrooms fundamentally.

In spite of the efforts and resources expended, numerous Chinese teachers and learners of English do not seem to have gone through any fundamental changes in their conception of effective language instruction and in their daily practices. That is, CLT has not received widespread support and the traditional approach is still dominant in many a classroom. (Hu, 2002. p. 94)

Shim and Baik (2004) similarly report that in South Korea, conflicting demands have sometimes led to situations where teachers continue teaching in the previous style "teachers are left with no other choice than to write up reports that comply with government recommendations while continuing to practise examination-oriented classroom instruction" (Shim & Baik, 2004, p. 246). Pandian (2004) similarly notes that in Malaysia, teachers go back to their previous teaching style after the initial excitement of the innovation "when the initial euphoria of implementing the concepts laid down by the New Primary and Secondary School Curriculum under the notion of communicative competence had died down, classroom teaching seems to have returned to the chalk-and-talk drill method" (Pandian, 2004, p. 280).

3.1.2. Diffusion of Innovation Through Teacher Training and Textbook

Diffusion of innovation is regarded as crucial in the field of language teaching since it provides curriculum specialists, material developers and teachers a set of guiding principles for the implementation of language teaching innovations (Markee, 1993). Textbook and teacher training are considered important strategies in diffusing the innovation since it plays important part in changing teachers' teaching practices and implementing a new curriculum (Fullan, 2001; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Richards,

1998). The effectiveness of educational policy depends on teachers' pedagogical practice and their ability to carry out the proposals (Schmidt & Datnow, 2005; Widdowson, 1993). The key player in any educational reform is the classroom teacher (Markee, 1993), who determines the direction and ultimate shape of the curriculum. According to Fullan (1991) therefore, educational change depends on what teachers do and think – it is as simple and complex as that. "Teachers are at the heart of the reform process" (Hayes, 2006, p. 154). Li (2001) acknowledges the importance of teachers' understanding of the new teaching approach as he argues "How teachers as the end users of an innovation perceive its feasibility is a crucial factor in the ultimate success or failure of that innovation" (Li, 2001, p. 163). As can be seen from this discussion, teachers and their teaching practices are the means through which the success of innovation is ultimately translated.

3.1.2.1. Teacher Training

"Teachers are at the heart of reform process" (Hayes, 2006, p. 154) and therefore, teacher training is the main vehicle for the introduction of educational innovation as it is crucial in the preparation of teachers to implement a new curriculum. Lack of teacher training might lead merely to a different pattern of the previous teaching style instead of bringing about new and enhanced practices. "If teachers are to implement an innovation successfully, it is essential that they have a thorough understanding of the principles and practice of the proposed change" (Carless, 2001, p. 264). Carless (2001) also claims "There is no curriculum development without teacher development" (p. 273). "Without sufficient training and support, even teachers initially enthusiastic about an innovation may become frustrated by implementation problems, turn against the project and revert to the security of their previous teaching methods" (Carless, 1998, p. 355). Vandenberghe (2002) similarly argues that it is essential to arrange training for teachers in order to implement an innovation successfully.

Teacher training not only provides teachers with a set of skills to carry out specific tasks related to their jobs in hand within a well-defined role (Rahman, 2001) but it also involves teachers acquiring knowledge or skills through appropriate individual or

group instruction (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1990). Widdowson (1997) states that training provides specific instruction to teachers in practical techniques to cope with predictable events. Sparks & Loucks-Horsley (1990) also argue that trainers select activities such as lectures, demonstrations, role playing, simulation, micro-teaching etc to help teachers achieve the desired outcomes. In short, the role of teacher training in relation to the implementation of innovative changes cannot be underestimated.

In-service training is an essential preparation for a new curriculum (Carless, 1997; Fullan, 2001). Carless (1997) argues "teachers need to be retrained with new skills and knowledge, particularly when the required methodology is highly different from the existing one" (p. 352). Fullan (1990) calls staff development itself a "strategy for implementation" (p. 4). He says that it is essential for any successful implementation of curriculum: "The essence of educational change consists in learning new ways of thinking and doing, new skills, knowledge, attitude etc. It follows that staff development is a central theme related to change in practice" (Fullan, 1991, p. 84).

Teacher training plays various roles in diffusing innovation by developing teachers' perceptions of pedagogical practices. It is important to develop teachers' perceptions of what constitute good teaching when a new curriculum is introduced. Markee (1997) emphasises providing training to teachers to develop such perceptions. In addition to understanding new concepts and new ways to interact with the students, training also helps teachers to understand new ways to interact with students (Vandenberghe, 2002).

Teacher Training in Top-Down Innovation

Teachers' professional development through training works as a top-down approach in places where the new curriculum is applied following that approach. These training programs are centrally determined, where the central authority controls these programs to achieve targets of a long term program set by the government. Such expert-driven top-down approach runs the risk of casting teachers as 'technicians' whose job is to implement defined algorithms for teaching (Palincsar, 1999). Fullan (2001) and Miller (1998) claim that such programs cause 'separation from teachers' daily work' and 'lack

of transfer of knowledge into classroom practice'. Butler, Lauscher, Jarvis-Selinger and Beckingham (2004) and Collins (1998) also criticise the traditional top-down approaches of professional development because these training programs are expert driven and are typically designed to provide teachers with information and resources which they are expected to translate into action.

Such traditional approach of training has many limitations. Training programs arranged following the top-down approach are mostly offsite, in that trainees are taken outside the context where they teach. Roberts (1998) has outlined the positive aspects of such offsite training. According to him, teachers can reflect upon their own teaching practices when they are taken away from their daily routine. Such courses 'give teachers time out' (Roberts, 1998, p. 273). However, researchers criticise such training because offsite training takes the teachers out of the classroom realities even if it is important for in-service programs to work with existing classroom realities (Bax, 2003; Bitan-Friedlander, Dreyfus & Milgrom, 2004 ; Hayes, 2006). Bitan-Friedlander, Dreyfus & Milgrom, (2004) similarly argue that teachers might have problems implementing offsite training programs since they do not deal with existing classroom realities.

When, after taking part in an in-service program, the teachers return to their classes and attempt to implement an innovation, they are left practically alone to struggle with the interpretation and the solution of the various problems which arise out of their everyday teaching activity. (Bitan-Friedlander, Dreyfus & Milgrom, 2004, p. 608)

Hayes (2006) argues that teachers are likely to discard the lessons learnt in such training. "If teachers are asked simply to replicate techniques and activities from an in-service course, it is likely that they will try things once and discard them if not immediately successful" (Hayes, 2006, p. 148). Advocating the importance of onsite training, Bax (2003) recommends focusing on context rather than methodology saying that teaching will only be successful if teachers are trained to know how to deal with the context while teaching English following a communicative approach.

Any training course should therefore make it a priority to teach not only methodology but also a heightened awareness of contextual factors, and an ability to deal with them--infact, to put consideration of the context first and only then consider the teaching approach. (Bax, 2003, p.283)

On the whole, researchers have argued that teachers need to have both onsite and offsite training in order to implement a new curriculum (Carless, 2001; Roberts, 1998). Carless (2001) emphasises that teachers need training prior to and during the implementation with the support of school management and innovation trainers. He also focuses on teachers' needs to understand classroom applications of innovation especially in the context where teachers are not well trained or lack sound subject knowledge. He recommends that along with offsite training, it is necessary for teachers to have onsite training, "to relate the innovation to the realities of the specific school context" (p. 264). Roberts (1998) also suggests arranging onsite activity along with the offsite since "implementation of training or of a new curriculum is done within the realities of one's school culture and classroom conditions, and furthermore that these conditions vary" (Roberts, 1998, p. 273). However, Roberts further argues that if providers design a teacher training program which takes place outside the context of the teaching, they should take into account some strategies which link the training with the context wherein they teach. One of the strategies he considers is "supporting teachers in experiment and monitoring in their own classrooms" (Roberts, 1998, p. 238).

Despite considerable argument in favour of and against the objectives of and motivations of teacher training, it can be said that without doubt that in the process of innovation, teacher training is one major vehicle of implementation that has to be considered. Later chapters of this study exemplify the tensions between training offered and their applicability in the classroom.

3.1.2.2. Textbook

Along with teacher training, textbooks are considered another important way to diffuse innovation. A textbook helps teachers in many ways in teaching in new ways when changes in the teaching approach take place. McGrath (2006) calls it "Central element in teaching-learning encounters" (p. 171). Regarding the importance of written materials in helping teachers implement a new curriculum, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) state that written material is structured and thus it helps to change the classroom practice: "the highly structured approach is more effective in getting curriculum change into the classroom" (Van den Akker in Hutchinson & Torres, 1994, p. 322). Similarly, according to Richards (1998), a textbook provides a map that lays out the content of the lesson and gives the structure of the entire course: "Only the textbook can really provide the level of structure that appears to be necessary for teachers to fully understand and 'routinize change'" (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994, p. 323). McGrath (2006) also agrees with these researchers and states that textbooks guide teachers in teaching "They will tend to dictate what is taught, in what order and, to some extent, how as well as what learners learn" (McGrath, 2006, p.171).

Hutchinson and Torres (1994) also argue that the introduction of a new textbook relieves teachers from the burden of sole responsibility in introducing changes since an assumed group of people work behind the introduction of the textbook through its writing, publication and management. Moreover, these textbooks also create a supportive environment for teachers to work in as these textbooks are almost always based on findings from current theory and research. "The most effective agents of change will thus be those that can create the supportive environment in which teachers will feel able and willing to take on the challenge of change" (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994, p. 322).

The introduction of a new textbook with a changed curriculum saves teachers' work and helps them to concentrate attention on coping with the new method introduced in curriculum change. According to Hutchinson & Torres (1994), "Textbook saves time, gives direction to lessons, guides discussion, facilitates giving of homework, making teaching easier, better organized, more convenient" (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994, p. 318).

It relieves teachers from the burden of making new teaching materials by themselves and thus helps to concentrate on other things such as making lesson plans and managing classes (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Harmer (1991) supports this claim saying "good textbooks also relieve the teacher from the pressure of having to think of original material for every class" (p. 257).

In particular, in the context of developing countries, textbooks are considered as an essential teaching material in implementing new curriculum. St. George (2001) argues that teachers are generally trained to be independent of text in developed countries because even if in these countries teaching resources are available, they occupy a dominant position in the school system. As Altbach & Kelly (in St. George, 2001) state "Textbooks contribute to the base of school knowledge in Third world countries" (p. 15). To implement an intended curriculum in developing countries, teachers are not offered teaching resources to choose from; they have to teach from one textbook that is fixed by educational policy makers (Quader, 2001; Wall & Alderson, 1993). As previously mentioned, in the case of Bangladesh, this is *English for Today*, which was published as part of curricular changes.

In many cases when a new textbook is published, a teacher's guide is also published as a part of the curriculum innovation to help teachers use the textbook. "The teachers' guide is the main if not the only way curriculum writers can establish a direct link to teachers and clarify their intentions to them" (Shkedi, 1995, p. 155). It presents the material and activities to be conveyed to the students. Richards (1998) supports Shkedi's claim saying that a teacher's guide can function as a teacher training manual by giving detailed advice on how to use a particular approach. It helps teachers in conducting classroom activities such as doing pair work and group work and by providing them with advice on how to do error corrections and possible approaches to grammar teaching in the communicative class (Richards, 1998). "Textbooks and teacher's manuals can help inexperienced teachers develop skills in teaching (Richards, 1998, p. 130). Hutchinson and Torres (1994) support this claim by saying: "Through structured scripts (particularly

when supported by a teacher's guide) it can show as explicitly as possible what to do" (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994, p. 323).

English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP) introduced textbooks for the junior secondary, secondary and higher secondary levels to support the new approach in Bangladesh. The use of the textbook *English for Today*, which is the focus of this study, has been published as part of the initiatives taken by the ELTIP. The new curriculum and this textbook both advocate a communicative learner-centred approach. The textbook is the only teaching material used in language classrooms - it is considered as a core element that defines the curriculum. Course books at different levels are structured in a similar way. The learner is expected to develop his/her communication skills in writing, reading, speaking and listening. There is also an emphasis on the process of learning. Many activities are interactive, asking students to work in pairs and groups. *English for Today* is compulsory for Classes 9 and 10 in all schools and there is no option to choose an alternative textbook for teaching English. A supplementary teacher's guide - *Teacher's Guide for English for Today* has also been published with the textbook to help teachers in making lesson plans and getting answers to the exercises. In this guide, detailed teaching and learning activities are provided for the teachers according to the new textbook, with suggested methods and time allotment for individual activities.

In sum, researchers have emphasised introducing a new textbook in order to aid changes in the teaching approach when a new curriculum is implemented. If a textbook is introduced as part of a curriculum innovation, it helps the teachers with a structured guideline for teaching in the classroom.

Teacher Training for the New Textbook

When new teaching material is introduced as part of curriculum innovation, it is essential to arrange teacher training to introduce teachers to the new material because research has shown that teacher training impacts on teachers' perceptions and teaching practices (Campbell et al., 1998, Hasan, 2004; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994), as has been

discussed in the previous section. Campbell et al. (1998) and Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue that new textbooks must be accompanied by training sessions (both in-service and pre-service training) so that teachers know how to use them because training affects how teachers use new teaching material in class. *Figure 2* shows how teacher training and textbooks are used to implement innovation by changing teaching practice. These training programs help teachers effectively use the new textbook. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue

If we are to understand the value of the textbook and fully exploit its potential as an agent of lasting and effective change, we need to see textbook development and teacher development as part of the same process. (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994, p. 326)

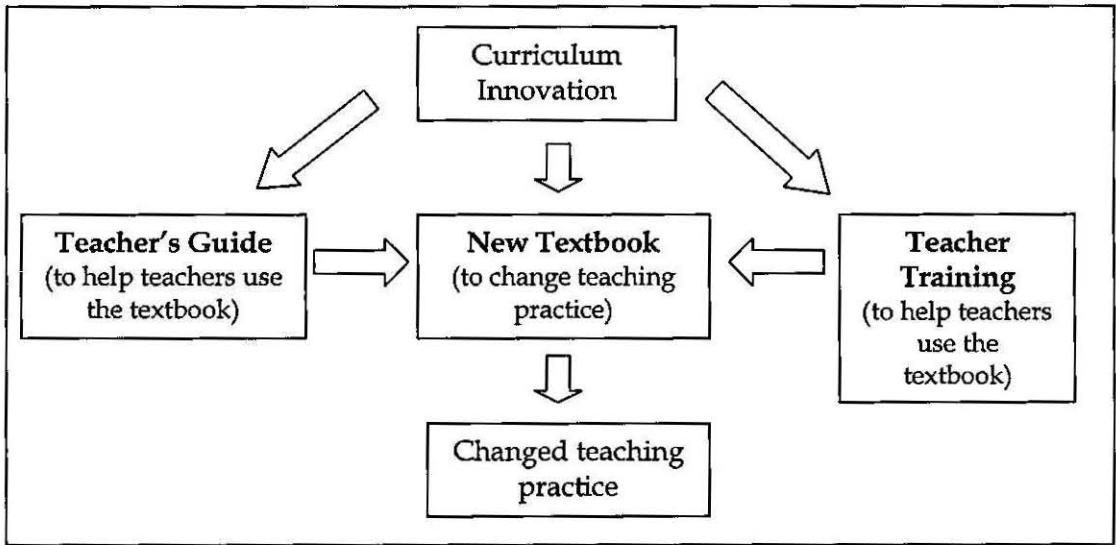


Figure 2: Introduction of teacher training and new teaching material to change teaching practice in curriculum innovation (adapted from Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Richards, 1998).

As has been argued before, it is essential to arrange teacher training when a textbook with communicative activities is launched for the first time. Hasan (2004) emphasises the

importance of teachers' familiarity with the newly introduced communicative approach in Bangladesh: "Introduction of communicative textbooks in schools necessitates for the teachers to be trained in communicative methodology of teaching English" (Hasan, 2004, 5.4.4). Campbell et al. (1998) argue that unless training is provided, giving communicative material to teachers who are more familiar with the grammar translation method may not lead to any actual change in teaching practice. They argue

Introducing new course books can have an enormous effect on the way teachers work. However, they are just as likely to have no effect at all if the teachers exploit them as if they were still using the older grammar translation, teachers-centered, knowledge-based books. (Campbell et al., 1998, p. 340)

With a view to meeting these prerequisites, curriculum planners in Bangladesh have arranged training for English language teachers to familiarise them with the new approach and thus make them able to use the new textbook effectively. These training programs introduce teachers to the concept of teaching following an interactive, student-centred approach involving activities as pair work and group work. Teachers also learn effective ways of teaching different skills to the students as part of these trainings.

"Successful change involves learning how to do something new" (Fullan, 1990, p. 4). Before ELTIP was launched, Sultana and Hoque (1995) argued that it was essential to arrange teacher training to implement the new curriculum. They also argued that:

Perhaps the single factor that is most responsible for the falling standards of English in Bangladesh is the serious lack of trained teachers. Good books may be written, but if the teacher does not know how to use them, effective language learning will never take place. Therefore, teacher training is the priority issue in the whole of our ELT programme, and needs to be addressed immediately and frontally. (Sultana & Hoque 1995, p. 3)

Teachers who are teaching in schools all over Bangladesh attend these training programs. Their backgrounds, educational qualifications and teaching contexts are vastly different. Upon completion of training, they return to teach in their own schools which are contextually different from others. Regarding the importance of the training programs arranged to teach the new textbook, Hamid and Baldauf Jr. (2008) observe: "Equally importantly, since teachers were the real users of the new ELT model, their training was essential for shifting their orientation to CLT from the old grammar translation-based methodology" (Hamid & Baldauf Jr., 2008, p. 17).

Training programs arranged for English language teachers in Bangladesh follow the traditional top-down approach where "teachers are provided with information and resources that they are expected to translate into action" (Butler et al., 2004, p. 436). The Ministry of Education provides a guideline for designing the training program for teachers of elementary, secondary and higher secondary levels with details of the program's purposes, principles and total training hours. However, these training programs do not follow the 'rational-empirical' strategies of providing information and attempting to convince teachers of the merits of the new curricula, since the educational management in Bangladesh still follows a primarily centralised tradition. Regarding BEd training in Bangladesh, Rahman (1999a) states: "it is still influenced by the classical educational ethos that favours a top-down transmission of knowledge" (p. 61). With its 'authoritarian educational ideology' (Rahman, 1999a, p.56), it has to deviate from the rational empirical strategy.

These training programs emphasise transferring conceptual knowledge about the new curriculum. Rahman (1999a) claims that the BEd training focuses on the theoretical knowledge of the communicative approach: "Thus the principle underlying the syllabus appears to be the transmission of knowledge about the English language and about language teaching rather than on educating teachers to become able practitioners themselves" (p. 52). Such a principle is reflected in other training programs as well where the context and practical applications are usually not taken into consideration.

Researchers consider it essential to arrange teacher training to introduce teachers to changes when a new teaching material is introduced as part of curriculum innovation, since, as we have seen, training significantly impacts on teacher's perception, knowledge and teaching practice. Training has also been arranged in Bangladesh to implement the new curriculum by helping teachers teach the new textbook.

3.1.3. *Factors Influencing Teaching Practice*

In educational reform, decision makers should take contextual constraints into account along with providing good teaching material and in-service training (Fullan, 2001). Fullan argues that one of the reasons for the failure of educational reform is that planners often introduce changes without attempting to understand the situation in which the changes take place: "In short, one of the basic reasons why planning fails is that planners or decision-makers of change are unaware of the situations faced by potential implementers" (Fullan, 2001, p. 98).

Curriculum implementers arrange both training programs and textbooks to make innovation successful by ensuring that teachers understand the new policies and practices of the enacted curriculum. However, these do not always help teachers in implementing new teaching strategies. In their efforts to implement lessons learned in training, teachers encounter obstacles created by various factors. Kennedy (1988) claims that innovation operates within a hierarchy of interrelated social sub-systems and these various systems of the society might work as constraints in the process of curriculum innovation. He argues that cultural values shape participants' behaviours, which is the most powerful factor, followed by political conventions, administrative, educational and institutional practices. In different degrees and in different ways, these all shape participant behaviour. Orafi and Borg (2009) support this claim when they say "How teachers interpret, filter, modify, and implement curricula will be influenced by contextual factors in and around their workplaces" (Orafi & Borg, 2009, p. 244). *Figure 3* shows how curriculum innovation can be influenced by various factors in a given society.

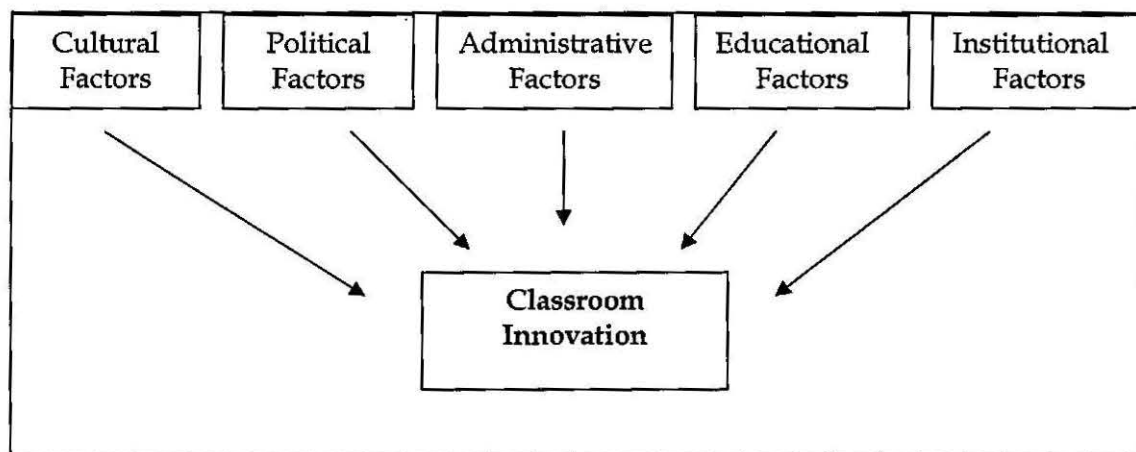


Figure 3: Factors influencing implementation of curriculum innovation (adapted from Kennedy, 1988).

Kennedy also argues that the effect of these socio-cultural issues varies from context to context - where even the same cultural factor might have much more influence than another in a similar context. Markee (1997) agrees with Kennedy and says that it is not possible to make a comprehensive checklist of variables that are likely to affect curriculum innovation. Indeed, it is not even possible to say which variables are the more important ones: "The relative importance of each factor varies from one context of implementation to another" (Markee, 1997, p. 56).

This section has discussed concepts related to the introduction of teacher training and textbooks as vehicles of curriculum innovation. It has also discussed factors that are likely to work as constraints in teacher's implementation of curriculum innovation when considering aforementioned changes in the secondary education of Bangladesh.

3.2. Literature Review

This section explores a number of empirical studies based on the concepts presented in the previous section. It presents a critical and detailed review of the literature related to the implementation of curriculum innovation and the introduction of training and

textbooks as strategies that are used to change teaching practice while an innovation takes place. The focus of this review is primarily on Asian countries as the teaching contexts are vastly similar to those in Bangladesh. It shows how teacher training and new textbooks have been introduced in these other Asian countries and what impact it has made in these countries. In addition, it discusses what other factors influence teaching practice in these similar contexts.

3.2.1. Importance of Teacher Training in Diffusing Innovation

Training programs and seminars are organised and in-service training workshops are conducted to facilitate the diffusion of innovation (Karavas-Doukas, 1995; Khan, 2002; Kırkgöz, 2008). Teachers' understanding is profoundly influenced by such training and it prepares teachers to implement a new curriculum by introducing them to the changes that take place as part of the curriculum innovation. As Kırkgöz (2007) claims "The first element in the innovation diffusion process is how innovation is communicated to the practicing teachers, as the implementers of innovation" (p. 181).

Empirical studies have shown that training influences teachers' perceptions about the new curriculum (Karavas-Doukas, 1995; Khan, 2002). For example, Karavas-Doukas (1995) shows that secondary school teachers in Greece had negative perceptions of an innovation where a communicative syllabus was first introduced. Later it was found that teachers had an incomplete understanding of the innovation and this contributed to their negative perception. He shows that teachers' incomplete understanding of a communicative syllabus in a Greek school resulted in misconception about the innovation and it led to a negative perception of innovation.

A study carried out by Khan (2002) support this claim in the Bangladeshi context. This study aimed to find the impact of an 'ELTIP' training which was offered as an in-service training to secondary school teachers in Bangladesh after the innovation in ELT took place. One of the aims of the study was to find if teachers' perceptions of the new curriculum had changed as an effect of the training. Data collected from four urban

schools in Bangladesh showed that the training had a positive impact on the teachers as they understood the reasons behind implementing the new approach of teaching. Most teachers agreed that teaching the four skills was useful and it enhanced students' involvement in classroom practice.

Teacher training also plays a significant role in the degree of implementation of curriculum innovation in that it influences teachers' understandings and their classroom practices. When a curriculum is introduced, teachers need to first understand the new approach in order to implement change. Teacher training helps them to understand this (Carless, 1998; Hasan, 2004; NAEM, 2005b). In a case study conducted in Hong Kong, Carless (1998) showed how English teachers of primary schools reacted to and implemented an innovation: "If teachers are to implement an innovation successfully, it is essential that teachers have thorough understanding of the principles and practice of the proposed change" (Carless, 1998, p. 355).

Another study conducted in Bangladesh by the National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM, 2005b) on secondary schools of the public and private sectors also shows the influence of training on teacher' understandings. The findings showed that only 28 of 126 teachers were trained in communicative English language teaching. These teachers were not aware of the professional responsibilities and one of the reasons was their lack of knowledge about teaching English. NAEM claimed that teachers' knowledge was not upgraded as they lacked subject-based training.

Such influence of teacher's knowledge and perception on teaching practice makes it important to have professional development training in order to implement communicative activities in the classroom (Li, 2001; O'Sullivan, 2001). In a study that was conducted by Li (2001) through a survey with South Korean secondary school teachers, it was found that teachers mentioned that without teacher training they found it difficult to take the risk of trying the communicative approach leaving the old grammar based approach. They did not have a sound understanding of how CLT

worked as they did not learn how to use it while teaching in the class by attending teacher training programs.

Teachers need to participate in professional development programs and training to understand the communicative approach. O'Sullivan (2001) argued that teachers' lack of sufficient training presented teachers conducting communicative activities effectively in classrooms in Namibia. The study aimed to investigate the applicability of the communicative approach in Namibia and showed that developing the professional capacity of teachers was important in the implementation of the communicative approach. The classroom observations showed that teachers found it difficult to implement communicative activities like pair work and group work since they did not have the experience nor were they trained to do it: "Teachers had never been exposed to these before and needed considerably more training to develop their ability to use them effectively" (O'Sullivan, 2001, p. 57). They felt the need of training in order to develop skills conducting for communicative activities in their classes.

The importance of training in the effective practice of communicative activities has been reflected in another study conducted in junior secondary level in Bangladesh by Quayyum, Roy, Akhter, Haider and Huda (2000). This research was carried out to find out the effectiveness of the training program just after these teachers had received the newly introduced ELTIP training program in Bangladesh. The research aimed to see if these trained teachers were able to conduct pair work or group work activities with the students. Quayyum et al. collected data from 13 teachers who were teaching in the junior secondary level. Data were compared to a survey that was carried out with the same teachers before they received the training. From classroom observation, the researchers found that teachers could use the pair work and group work activities successfully only after they had received training. The training helped them to involve the students in practising listening and speaking skills which was one of the changes required by the new curriculum. Teachers were observed in this study just after they had received their training when they expected to be observed by the trainers to support them in using CLT in their classes. This issue is discussed in more detail in Chapters Six

and Seven. Researchers called it the "activation stage of training" (Quayyum et al., 2000, p. 25) and pointed out that the same study might have yielded different results if it had been carried out a year later because the effect of the training was still fresh in their minds at the time of the observation. It is however not certain from this study whether the training helped the teachers in Bangladesh to develop their understanding in the same way as it helped teachers in other countries of the world and this needs more investigation.

3.2.2. *Importance of Textbook in Diffusing Innovation*

Education policy makers have long considered instructional material to be an essential component of instructional design in communicative language teaching. As seen, as part of curriculum change, textbooks are introduced in many places where the communicative approach has been introduced to teach the English language. The literature shows that textbooks have been introduced to support such new approach in Japan, Singapore, China, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh (Hasan, 2004; Skuja-Steele, 2005; Wall & Alderson, 1993). More specifically, Silver and Skuja-Steele (2005) argue that textbooks have been written to align with the mandated syllabus in Japan, Singapore and China. Textbooks were introduced in these countries to establish uniformity in teaching content across schools. "Policymakers may see a unified syllabus and approved textbooks as means to ensure similar content and high quality instruction across schools: all students receive the same materials and, therefore, the same opportunities for learning" (Silver & Skuja-Steele, 2005, p. 116). Indeed, some other studies on curriculum innovation in ELT have shown that textbooks were published as part of curriculum innovation in Greece, Turkey and Libya (Karavas-Doukas, 1995; Kırkgöz, 2007; Orafi & Borg, 2009).

Textbooks are considered an essential teaching material in implementing new curriculum in developing countries as has been shown in a study conducted in Ethiopia by St. George (2001). She argues that teachers have weak subject knowledge and are poorly trained in Ethiopia and textbooks help these teachers to enact changes in the

curriculum by providing detailed guidelines. In such conditions where they know only a fraction more than their students do, "textbooks are necessary to guide the teachers in implementation of the content and to propose more effective teaching techniques" (St. George, 2001, p. 16-17).

Along with the new textbook, a teacher's guide is also introduced in many places to help teachers use the new textbook (Farooqui, 2008; Karavas-Doukas, 1995; Shkedi, 1995). In Greek secondary schools, a teacher's guide was published along with textbooks as part of the curriculum innovation which advocated a communicative learner centred approach (Karavas-Doukas, 1995).

However, although a teacher's guide helps in many ways in teaching, the literature shows that teachers do not always follow the teacher's guide (Shkedi, 1995). The study of Shkedi (1995) in Israel shows that although some teachers were in favour of using a teacher's guide as it helped them to have an overview of a curriculum unit and deal with material that was new, most of the teachers interviewed expressed the opinion that they could get along using the textbook without any reference to the teacher's guide. They preferred to adopt the curriculum to their own instructional needs rather than adhering to the guide. They said that they used the teacher's guide by choosing among suggestions and adopting them to their needs, deciding on additions as necessary (p. 163). Teachers stated that they did not need to use the teacher's guide since a good textbook itself served the purpose of the guide by fulfilling their instructional needs.

3.2.2.1. Teacher Training for New Textbook

The importance of training in practicing activities following the communicative approach has been reflected in an empirical study conducted in Bangladesh by Hasan (2004) who establishes a theoretical framework for the analyses of different components and levels of curriculum development. Data collected through questionnaires show that teachers were not familiar with the teaching method of the textbook which was newly introduced when the study was conducted. The classroom observations showed that the teachers taught only writing and reading skills, leaving most parts of *English for Today*

untouched. Hasan states that teachers were not familiar since they did not have training on the new teaching method; that teachers' lack of training was one of the reasons for teachers' failure in understanding the approach of the revised *English for Today* book in Bangladesh. They did not know how to teach listening and speaking skills since they did not receive any in-service training for teachers addressing these components.

Many teachers were not acquainted with the modern development in the field of language teaching. They failed to understand the approach of the revised *English for Today* books. They failed to adopt a communicative method and left many parts of the books untouched. (Hasan, 2004, 7.2)

He argues that teachers' ability to conduct classroom activities is very important in the application of the communicative approach and they need proper training in order to develop the ability. The current study shows the importance of introducing training when a new textbook is launched.

3.2.3. *Factors Influencing Teaching Practice*

This section of the literature review discusses some of the practical and conceptual concerns that have affected the implementation of CLT. The literature discussed here indicates that even after receiving training, teachers cannot apply the training to implement the innovation by introducing the new teaching methodology. Contextual factors which do not support the changes that the innovation promotes, hinder the implementation of the new curriculum. Karavas-Doukas (1995) shows, in his study on the implementation of curriculum innovation in Greece, that teachers stated various contextual factors which made them reject the innovation. "The failure of the innovation to cater for or mesh with the realities of the classroom and wider educational context were found to be important causes of teachers' resistance to or rejection of the innovation" (Karavas-Doukas, 1995, p. 66). Studies conducted by other researchers have also reflected this finding (Hasanova & Shadieva, 2009; Hu, 2002, 2005; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Sinha, 2006). Some of these are discussed in the following sections.

Factors discussed here have been grouped according to the factors mentioned by Kennedy (1988). Although this part discusses some studies conducted in Bangladesh, it mainly focuses on studies conducted in Asian countries since CLT has been introduced as a top-down approach in these countries (Nunan, 2003) and the teaching contexts are more or less similar in these countries. Since most of these studies have reflected teachers' voices, the findings reflect what teachers consider important in implementing new teaching methods. This is important for the current study which also investigates teachers' voices.

3.2.3.1. Cultural Factors

Different aspects of the manners of a particular group or the values and knowledge of a society impact on its teaching practices. Studies have shown how the culture of learning influences the implementation of the communicative approach in China and Japan (Hu, 2002; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008).

The communicative approach failed to make the expected impact on ELT in China and as a reason for that Hu (2002) mentions that the culture of learning worked as one of the main constraints on the adoption of educational innovations of foreign origin in the Chinese context. "Some of its most important tenets and practices clash with expectations of teaching and learning that are deep rooted in the Chinese culture of learning" (Hu, 2002, p. 94). Traditional Chinese culture embodies philosophies about the nature of teaching and learning which are different and even opposing to the philosophies embedded in CLT. The learning strategies and roles and responsibilities of teachers and students embodied in Chinese culture are quite different from those assumed by CLT. "Education is conceived more as a process of knowledge accumulation than a process of using knowledge for immediate purposes, and the preferred model of teaching is a mimetic or epistemic one that emphasises knowledge transmission" (Hu, 2005, p. 653). Such differences pose challenges in the implementation of CLT.

In addition to the concept of 'education', the culture of the teacher-student relationship also impacts on teaching. While describing the Chinese culture of learning, Hu (2002)

explains that Chinese students are expected to respect and cooperate with their teachers and not to challenge or present their own ideas. This threatens the core of the communicative approach which encourages students to interact with teachers. This issue of the culture of learning was also an influential factor in implementing CLT in Japan (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008), as students considered teacher-centred instruction more important and effective than learner-centred instruction, since the latter demanded additional responsibilities on part of the learner, some of which were at odds with the social positioning of the Japanese student in relation to their teachers.

3.2.3.2. Political Factors

Issues which resulted from the socio-cultural structure of a country sometimes impact on teaching. The use of English is one such issue.

Use of English

The perceived value and use of English in a given country influences teaching (Hu, 2005a). Due to the increasing socio-economic development in China, there is a growing demand for English proficiency in various professions in developed regions whereas there are fewer opportunities to use English in less developed regions. This difference has created attendant difference in values which results in disparity in the teaching-learning of English (Hu, 2005a) across different regions in China.

Hasan (2004) found similar differences in students' use of English between urban and rural areas in Bangladesh. Due to globalisation, people of urban areas now have wider access to the Internet, satellite television and English newspapers. These facilities give them chances to use English in greater ways than their regional counterparts. Students of rural areas do not get the chance to use these; thus they are not exposed to the English language through these communication technologies: "This opportunity is not plainly distributed to all population of the country across villages and towns... Students from urban areas are seen to go to cyber cafes, watch cable television while rural students lack these facilities" (Hasan, 2004, 2.3.2.1). However, Hasan's study did not show whether

this difference impacts on teaching and creates regional disparity in Bangladesh. The current study addresses this issue in later chapters.

3.2.3.3. Administrative Factors

This part discusses factors related to the management of schools. These factors are decided by the central authority of education.

Low Income

Teachers' low income has been seen as an important influential factor in determining teaching practice (Crookes, 1997; Hasanova & Shadieva, 2009; Tudor, 2001; Yumchi, 2006). Tudor (2001) claims that differences in teachers' payments sometimes cause divergence in teachers' qualifications and this in turn impacts on their classroom teaching.

Inadequate training, low status or poor salaries can seriously undermine teachers' ability to invest the time and energy which is required to help students find that essential sense of personal meaningfulness in the learning process. (Tudor, 2001, p. 213)

Low income also influences teaching by reducing teachers' motivation to implement new methodology. Yumchi (2006) mentions this factor as one of the challenges Palestinian teachers of English face in their work. She says "Teachers' low salary (about \$350 per month), plays a role in reducing their motivation to spend more time on lesson preparation or in helping their students after hours" (Yumchi, 2006, p. 864). Hasanova and Shadieva (2009) also mention that highly qualified teachers left the profession of teaching in Uzbekistan when the salary range degraded as a result of political issues. The people, who are still in the profession, are less motivated to implement the new methodology as they do not find the salary supportive enough. "Those who remain seem less passionate about devoting time and energy to understanding the new methodologies promoted by the current curriculum. This attitude is perhaps

understandable, given that supporting oneself on a teacher's salary has become increasingly difficult" (Hasanova & Shadieva, 2009, p. 142).

In addition to lack of motivation, teachers sometimes do not have enough time for classroom teaching as a result of earning low wages. While investigating the factors that influence second and foreign language teachers and their teaching, Crookes (1997) mentions that teachers' low earning works as a hindrance to professional development activities since teachers are obliged to take a second job to cover the expenses of life and it takes time away from developing their professional abilities. Crookes also mentions that teachers in such situations put pedagogic concerns as their second priority, setting 'survival' at the top. This point has been further supported in an empirical study conducted by Shamim (1996) on classroom teaching in Pakistan. She mentions that teaching in the new methods demands more time and energy of the teachers. The data of the case study conducted in Pakistan reveal that if teachers are not paid high enough and this remains unchanged, the classroom might not be taught in newer ways.

In Bangladesh teachers receive very poor payment, especially in rural areas (Quader, 2000, November). In a study in Bangladesh, Khan and Ismail (2000, November) highlighted the conditions of teachers in rural areas. They state that combined with a meagre income and a low status work in a drab work environment, teachers find themselves low down the social ladder. These studies do not show whether teachers' low income affects their motivation as it does in other teaching contexts.

3.2.3.4. Institutional Factors

This section discusses the more immediate, tangible physical circumstances of the classroom that pose obstacles in the way of effective implementation of the communicative teaching. Factors such as large class sizes and lack of teaching time both have been seen as major hindrances in the variety of settings.

Class size

Class size is considered as one of the most important institutional factors that influences classroom teaching (Li, 1998; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Sinha, 2006; Su, 2006). In a case study conducted in a South Korean secondary school English teachers' understanding of the implementation of CLT, Li (2001) shows that while teachers talk about several different reasons, all of them think that class size was invariably a problem in influencing CLT practices in the class. They said that even though practising speaking skills and monitoring the students' activities closely were two important characteristics of this approach, these two activities were difficult to conduct in a Korean class which usually consisted of 48-50 students at the secondary level. It was difficult for a teacher to physically move around to monitor what students did in class. Thus teachers felt that classes consisted of such a huge number of students worked as a major hindrance to implementing the communicative approach.

A more recent study conducted by Su (2006) in Taiwan yields similar findings and shows that classes with large numbers of students created problems causing noise. This research aimed to find what the teachers of elementary level thought about government policies with regard to making English compulsory at the elementary level. The data show that the teachers do support the policy but they mention several factors which work as obstacles in teaching English and, once again, class size appeared to be a major reason among them. If everyone starts doing communicative activities such as pair work and group work, the class becomes noisy, raising objections from the teachers from the next class. Thus they find it difficult to implement such activities in a large class room. Such finding is also reflected in a study conducted in Japan by Nishino and Watanabe (2008) who claim that classes of 30-40 students in Japan do not present "optimal conditions for communicative approach" (p. 135)

Sinha (2006) conducted a survey involving 50 teachers of the secondary and higher secondary level in Bangladesh to identify the difficulties these teachers faced with the new method and the new textbook. Data collected through questionnaires show that 93% of the teachers mentioned 'large class size' as the main problem in implementing

the new approach while teaching the new textbook. The rest of the participants mentioned it as a problem 'to some extent' but everyone chose it as a problem. This study, however, did not show why the large class was a problem for the teachers or what problems teachers faced as a result of having a large class.

Time

In addition to class size, limited time for instruction was another major reason mentioned by teachers. Karavas-Doukas (1995) reveals that three hours of English language instruction in secondary level in Greece was inadequate and teachers claimed it to be a major constraint in implementing the innovation that aimed to change the English language teaching scene in a radical way. Lack of teaching time is also mentioned by Kırkgöz (2007) as a major constraint in implementing CLT in Turkey as teachers do not get enough time to complete the syllabus. "The teaching hours allocated for each grade made it difficult to complete the syllabus and do some additional activities" (Kırkgöz, 2007, p. 186).

3.2.3.5. Educational Factors

Sometimes, factors which are part of or caused by the educational system of a country impact on teaching. These issues have been discussed in this section.

Examination

Examination has also been considered as yet another important educational factor that influences students', teachers' and parents' attitudes alike and ultimately influences classroom behaviour (Chen, 2003; Luxia, 2005; Wall & Alderson, 1993). A number of empirical studies have been conducted on the effect of examination in classroom teaching and these studies show that the nature of the exams significantly influences classroom teaching practice. Literature suggests that in many countries where teaching has become more communicative, the nature of testing still operates within the traditional pattern consisting of discrete items, lower order thinking and a focus on form rather than meaning (Brown, 2004). Even within an effectively communicatively

oriented teaching program, tests given to assess performance tend to emphasise the learners' knowledge of discrete grammatical points because these are the kinds of tests and test items that exist (Eckes et al., 2005). If students are given such tests, they will want to be taught in a way that ensures them a 'pass' which defeats both the teachers' and the students' goal of enabling students to actually use the target language in everyday communicative events. "Teachers and learners alike will be reluctant to embrace any curriculum change that is not reflected in the targets set by the major examination boards" (Jenkins, 2006, p. 42).

Literature on the impact of examinations therefore shows that tests exert a powerful influence on how teaching takes place in the classroom, as discussed above. However, the effect of such examinations on classroom teaching is termed 'washback' (Wall & Alderson, 1993). As Andrews, Fullilove and Wong (2002) state "the term 'washback' is used to refer to the effects of test on teaching and learning, the educational system and the various stakeholders in the education process" (p. 208). This washback effect is not the same everywhere. It operates in different ways under different situations and many factors work behind the influence of the test. The next two sections discuss the impact of examinations and the factors that cause such differences.

Examination exerts an impact on how teaching materials are actually used in the classroom (Chen, 2003; NAEM, 2005a; Wall & Alderson, 1993). It narrows the curriculum by making the teachers focus on those items which are instinctively deemed as important for the examination. Wall and Alderson (1993) studied the impact of tests on how teachers chose their teaching content from the textbook in a study conducted in Sri Lanka. Although a textbook, based on the communicative approach, was published as part of the curriculum innovation in Sri Lanka, teachers still placed importance on the public examinations which led the teachers to teaching to the test, rather than to the stated objectives of the textbook. As Wall and Alderson (1993) argue:

For teachers, the fear of poor results and the associated guilt, shame or embarrassment might lead to the desire for the pupil to achieve high scores in

whatever way seems possible. This might lead to 'teach to the test' with an undesirable narrowing of the curriculum. (p. 118)

This study also showed that some teachers did practise all the activities of the textbook with students as the examination was meant to test any of the contents in the textbook. However, even in such cases, listening lessons were consistently skipped over since this skill was not tested. The findings of the research show that teachers may not use the material in the way the designers of the book expect them to. They teach in a way that helps students to get a good score regardless of fulfilling the objectives of the book. The result of this study is reflected in more recent studies conducted in Japan (Gorsuch, 2000; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). Gorsuch (2000), for example, reveals that preparation for the university entrance examination had a major influence on Japanese high school English education. He also mentions that students' expectation to prepare them for the university entrance examination resisted teachers attempt to use English as a language of classroom instruction. Since speaking and listening skills are not tested in examinations, students did not see the use of English as the language of classroom instruction.

Examinations are seen to enhance the use of parallel examination materials in many places (Spratt, 2005). Teachers emphasise making students familiar with examination techniques because they want students to practise the questions which reflect the techniques considered useful in the examination. Alderson and Wall (1993) show that teachers use examination related publications more as the examination gets closer. Teachers want them to obtain good results by practising those papers repeatedly. A study conducted by Andrews, Fullilove and Wong (2002) shows how change in the public examination affects the nature of teaching in Hong Kong. Teachers spent two-thirds of the class time using published examination related papers to prepare students for examinations in the classroom. Spratt (2005) calls these teachers 'exam slaves' since they practise past exam papers to prepare students for examination.

However, the degree of this impact of the examination varies for a number of reasons. The importance of a test also influences how greatly it will affect teaching practice. High-stakes tests affect teaching by narrowing curriculum to practical and immediate needs of students (Crocker, 2005; Popham, 2001; Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt & Ferman, 1996; Spratt, 2005). High-stakes test are those tests which are seen by students, teachers, administrators as an important decision maker. A person is expected to score high in such examinations and is judged in the society by the result. Popham (2001) argues that it is very common to see that teachers do not pay attention to any subject that is not included in the high-stake test. He argues:

If people find themselves in a context where the rewards come from X and there are no rewards for Y, which do you think will typically be promoted? Teachers are no more or less susceptible to such reward/punishment structures than anyone else. (Popham, 2001, p. 19)

Regarding the effect of high stake tests, Crocker (2005) similarly argues:

With high-stakes assessments, teachers will be shackled to teaching content that is easily tested in restricted formats and forced to subvert their professional judgment and restrict their efforts to covering only that content likely to appear on high-stakes tests at the expense of more comprehensive student learning. (Crocker, 2005, p. 165)

In China, where the English test is a high stake test, Luxia (2007) shows that teachers and students focus on the items important for examination: "Teachers and students focused only on the aspects of writing that they believed would help to achieve higher test scores, while completely ignoring the need to be able to write communicatively in real life situations" (p. 65). Shohamy et al. (1996) note that since high-stake tests have important consequences, this can in turn shape the teaching and learning situation. For this, it is important in many countries that policy makers bring corresponding changes to high-stake tests.

The extent of the effect of tests on teaching sometimes depends on the amount of pressure administrators place on teachers for a better score for the students. Principals put pressure on teachers to do well in examinations to gain a good reputation for the school because, as Chapman and Snyder (2000) mentions, schools and teachers are sometimes evaluated on the basis of students' scores in the examination. Teachers can even withhold new instructional and teaching practices for fear of disadvantaging the students on the examination (p. 460).

These studies show that examination exerts a powerful influence on how teaching takes place in class. Many factors work behind influences of the test. The washback effect is particularly strong when it is a high stake test. The SSC is a high-stake public examination in Bangladesh. The result plays a crucial role in the decision on college admission. According to the studies conducted, this examination has a strong washback effect and since it still follows the traditional system, it is likely to have the effect of curricular reductionism. Although the new SSC examination has been in operation since 2002, insufficient research has been carried out to investigate its effect on classroom teaching. This study addresses this issue to find out the impact of the format and social expectation of the SSC examination on classroom teaching in Bangladesh.

English Language Proficiency

In addition to the impact of examinations, the English language proficiency of teachers and students plays a significant role in teaching practices. Literature shows that teacher's English language proficiency level significantly impacts teaching (Nunan, 2003; Orafi & Borg, 2009) While exploring policies and practice in China, Nunan (2003) shows that the communicative approach which is the current trend of teaching English language cannot be applied properly due to a lack of teachers with a high level of proficiency in English. The situation is more serious in rural areas than it is in urban areas due to fewer proficient teachers in these areas. Nunan finds similar differences in the teaching practice in Malaysia. This study reflects findings by Orafi and Borg (2009)

that show that teachers' language proficiency level cause problems practising speaking skills with students in Libya. "The new curriculum, though, aims to develop students' oral communication skills and teachers' own limitations in this respect are therefore problematic" (Orafi & Borg, 2009, p. 251). Nishino and Watanabe (2008) find a similar situation in Japan.

The English language proficiency of students also impacts on teaching. Their English ability causes problems for teachers in Japan to practise speaking skills as Gorsuch, (2000) notes "Japanese students are extremely unwilling to speak up in class for fear of making a mistake. This may cause teachers to give up speaking activities or other activities considered difficult in favor of less risky, more passive activities" (p. 686). Students are reluctant to participate because they have the fear of making mistakes. Students' reluctance sometimes causes teachers to give up doing these activities. This is similar to the findings by Li (2001) who claims that teachers in Korea find it difficult to do oral communicative activities since students have limited command of the English language structure. Student proficiency in English is a problem in class participation in Libya (Orafi & Borg, 2009). Teachers in this study claim that students lacked vocabulary and they could not speak English and for that, they could not do the activities required by the curriculum.

In sum, the literature on the innovation of curriculum shows a number of different factors which affect the implementation of teacher training. This section explored the literature related to the implementation of curriculum innovation and the introduction of training and textbooks to change teaching practice while an innovation takes place. It also discussed various cultural, political, administrative, educational and institutional factors that work as constraints in implementing intended teaching practice. The review of the literature on English language teaching shows that a number of different factors affect teaching practice and all these might provide hindrance in implementing innovation in curriculum.

3.3. The Theoretical Frame for the Study

This study explores the factors that influence teachers' use of the textbook *English for Today* and the impact of teacher training programs on teaching practices. To guide the study, this chapter has reviewed the literature related to curriculum innovation in English language teaching, the importance of teacher training when a new curriculum is introduced, as well as factors that influence teaching. It has discussed how innovation has taken place within different scenarios of English language teaching and how the new curriculum or the teaching material which is introduced as part of the curriculum innovation is implemented, with special emphasis on some Asian teaching contexts, which in many ways are similar to Bangladesh.

As previously mentioned, the textbook is the only teaching material used for teaching English in Bangladesh in the secondary level which was introduced as part of the curriculum innovation. Curriculum planners have arranged training programs to help teachers use the new textbook with the expectation that teachers will be able to implement the new curriculum with the help of the training. However, as we have seen, a number of factors influence teachers' teaching practice. Consequently it is in the actual classroom where it can be identified to what extent teachers actually implement what they learn in training programs while using the textbook.

Taking the above into consideration, the research questions of the current study will focus on three issues: 1. How do the teachers use the new text book? 2. Does teacher training bring any change in textbook teaching? 3. What are the factors that influence teachers' use of the textbook in the classroom?

In the light of the literature review, a theoretical framework has been developed. It demonstrates the implementation of teacher training while teaching the textbook, taking into account the possible influence of contextual factors (*Figure 4*). This model is based on the models defined by Hutchinson and Torres (1994), Richards (1998) and Kennedy (1988). Kennedy looks at innovation as a process operating within a hierarchy of interrelated socio cultural issues, such as cultural values, political conventions, and

administrative, educational and institutional practices. He claims that cultural values are the most powerful shaper and these are followed by other issues. The model of Kennedy has been adapted here so that in this theoretical framework, the factors are considered as separate, not operating in any hierarchical order.

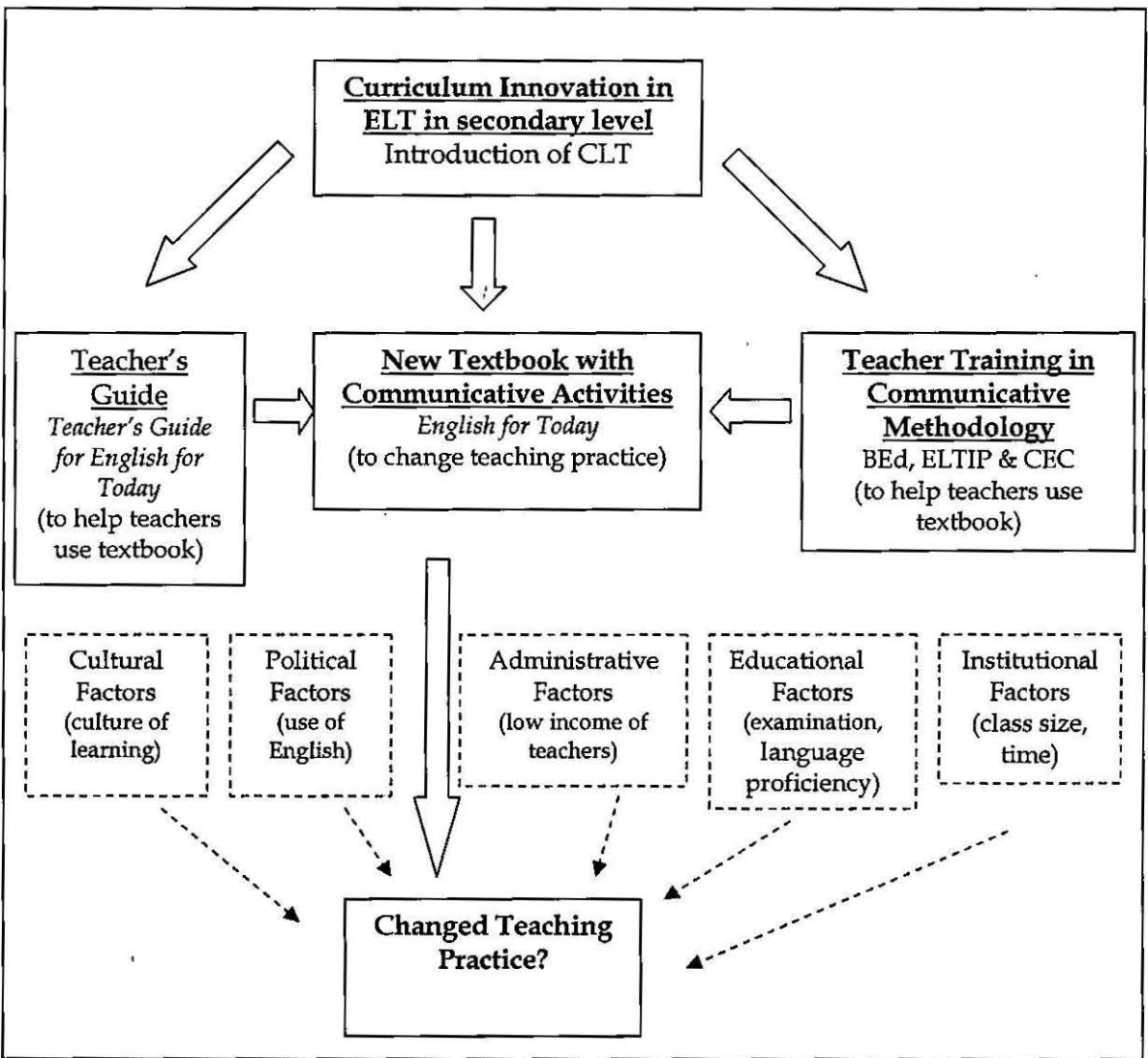


Figure 4: Model of impact of teacher training and contextual factors on using textbook (adapted from Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Kennedy, 1988; Richards, 1998).

3.4. Summary of Chapter

This study explores how English language teachers in Bangladesh implement their training while using the new textbook and the possible influence of various factors within which the curriculum innovation has taken place. To this end, this chapter has introduced a number of important issues related to the implementation of teacher training in English language teaching. Using arguments conceptual and empirical studies, it gives an account of the reasons for introducing teacher training and textbook to implement the innovation of curriculum. The first two sections start with a discussion on innovations in English language teaching with a focus on CLT which is followed by a discussion on the top-down approach of innovations in English language teaching. The importance of training and textbooks to change teaching was discussed in the next two parts. A discussion on the implementation of training that follows a top-down approach of curriculum innovation is made in this section. With a focus on importance of training to use textbook written in the communicative approach, the next part explores the importance of training to use a new textbook. The chapter also discussed factors that might influence the implementation of innovation. To guide the exploration of the implementation of teacher training while using textbook, a theoretical frame has been created in the final section on the basis of the literature review.

The next chapter, Chapter Four, will discuss the methodology of this research.

4. Chapter Four

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology employed in this study. The first section outlines the research design chosen for this study. Along with rationalising the choice for qualitative research, this section defines the cases used in this study. The second section describes the setting and participants of the study. The role of the researcher is discussed in the next section. The sections that follow provide a description of data collection procedures, methods used for the data analysis, interpretation and presentation. The chapter concludes with a discussion on ethical issues relating to the collection and interpretation of data.

4.1. Research Design

4.1.1. *Qualitative Research*

A qualitative approach has been used in this study to explore the group perspectives of English language teachers teaching in the secondary school level in Bangladesh. Qualitative research is conducted for the purpose of understanding social phenomena which is described in words instead of numbers or measures (Mcmillan, 2003). Gubrium and Holstein (1997) suggest that one of the main characteristics of qualitative research is that it seeks to understand social reality in its own terms and provides rich descriptions of people and interaction in natural settings. In this regard Punch (2005) states:

The researcher's role in qualitative research is to gain a "holistic" overview of the context under study: its logic, its arrangements, its explicit and implicit rules....A main task is to explore the ways people in particular settings come to understand, account for, take action, and otherwise manage their day-to-day situation. (Punch, 2005, p. 141-142)

A qualitative method attempts to understand naturally occurring phenomena in their naturally occurring states (Gubrium & Holstein, 1997), in this case the qualitative design helped to carry out an intensive analysis of the teaching practices of English language teachers in their natural setting. A qualitative approach has been used in this exploratory research to generate information about the ways the participant teachers actually teach the textbook; to investigate to what extent teachers implement what they learn in training and to explore whether other factors are influencing their teaching. The aim is not to develop a body of knowledge in the form of 'generalisations', but to gather comprehensive and in-depth information that illuminates a particular context by revealing inherent complexities and disjunctions (Erlandson et al., 1993). Since this study focuses on teachers who are teaching English language in secondary schools situated in six areas of Bangladesh, it is context specific and the results are not expected to be generalised to all secondary English teachers in the country.

4.1.2. Multiple-Holistic Case Study

Within the qualitative orientation, a case study approach has been chosen for this study since it explores how the teachers in secondary level in Bangladesh use the textbook to teach English language and the reasons behind using the book in particular ways. Punch (2005) states that a "case study aims to understand the case in depth, and in its natural setting, recognising its complexity and its context" (p. 144). Yin (2009) further argues that case studies are the preferred strategy when 'how' and 'why' questions are asked (p. 4). Within the context of education, Freebody (2003) outlines the case study in education as follows:

Case study methodologists stress that teachers are always teaching some subject matter, with some particular learners, in particular places and under conditions that significantly shape and temper teaching and learning practices. These conditions are not taken to be "background" variables, but rather lived dimensions that are indigenous to each teaching-learning event. (Freebody, 2003, p. 81)

Such study consists of multiple holistic cases (Yin, 2003) where each single case has been considered as typical and unique. According to Yin (2003), in such case studies there is one unit of analysis in each single case and the study can contain several such cases. The primary unit of analysis of the cases in this study is individual English language teachers. In this research, 26 cases have been integrated in one single study to learn about teachers' use of the textbook. The aim is to gain insight into factors influencing these teachers' use of the textbook. The data gathered from each case have been assumed to be reflective of the experiences of the particular English language teacher teaching in a specific context. This multiple case study method has been used in this study because, as Yin (2009) argues, the evidence collected from multiple cases is considered convincing and such a study is considered as being strong.

Vaughan (1992) points out that case studies help researchers connect the micro level (the actions of individual people), to the macro level (large-scale social structures and processes). Involving 26 teachers teaching across 14 schools situated in urban and rural areas of Bangladesh, the present study gives an account of how the teachers of these areas might be teaching and the factors that are influencing their teaching. It explores whether or not the teachers of rural and urban areas can implement what they learn in the teacher training programs.

4.1.3. *Strategy of Sampling*

This research followed the strategy of 'purposeful sampling'. According to Patton (2002), "The logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research, thus the term *purposeful sampling*" (p. 46). This is a "maximum variation sampling" (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006, p. 141) - a type of purposeful sampling technique where the participants represent different demographic variables and for this, they are likely to have different views on the issues being studied. Such sampling is appropriate for the current study as it aims to generate complexity rather than generalization.

To establish the participants in the sample, the target population i.e. teachers who teach English language in secondary education in Bangladesh and had training on English language teaching, were selected from both rural and urban areas. The reason for selecting teachers from different geographical locations was to gather a range of perspectives of teachers since teachers' qualifications and teaching context may vary according to which part of Bangladesh they teach in. For example, as discussed in Chapter Two (see 2.3.2), relatively more qualified teachers teach in cities since they get better payment and facilities there. Some qualified teachers also teach in schools of semi-rural areas but teachers with good qualifications rarely go to rural areas of Bangladesh since they do not get any facilities and their pay scale is low. In short, qualified teachers are not interested to teach in remote rural areas (Hasan, 2004). Therefore, there is a difference between teachers of rural and urban areas as far as their educational qualifications are concerned.

Twenty six teachers from a total of 14 secondary schools participated in this study. The schools were selected from six areas, i.e. Dhaka City and Comilla City, and rural areas of Dhamrai, Savar, Manikganj and Comilla. The main concern in the selection was to consider trained teachers who were teaching English language in secondary levels in rural and urban areas. Moreover, the researcher selected the secondary schools which were easy for her to get access to, through help from people she personally knew. In six schools, she had to approach the authority of the schools directly as she could not find someone who could facilitate access for her. Participants were selected from both Public and Private schools to see whether the administrative hierarchy and managements of schools affected teaching.

Participants represented a wide variety of demographic variables. While their ages ranged from 33 to 62 years, professionally they represented a broad range of experience from 3 to 41 years. Among them, 20 were male and 6 female. Such an uneven gender distribution is typical and representative of the gender balance among English teachers in secondary levels in Bangladesh since a recent statistic of BANBEIS shows that among

a total of 232,929 teachers teaching in 18,500 secondary institutions, 46,983 are female teachers and 185,946 are male (BANBEIS, 2005). Thus participants represented a wide spectrum of experience, qualifications, age and teaching contexts. (Group profiles of the participants are discussed in the next section). While 11 out of 26 participants in this study had ELTIP training, all of them had completed a BEd qualification, which is a one year teacher training course, either as a pre-service or in-service training. Fifteen of the teachers had completed their Masters and also had a Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree. All participants in this study have been assigned with pseudonyms to provide anonymity. Their name codes are used when their views are noted in Chapters 5 and 6.

4.2. Settings and Participants

To conduct an in-depth investigation of the way teachers in urban and rural areas implement the lessons learned in teacher training programs in using the textbook, data was collected from 14 schools situated in three urban and three rural areas of Bangladesh. The following two sections introduce the settings and the participants of the study and present the details of their teaching context. It shows how the data gathered from the selected participants present a rich description of the teaching practice of rural and urban areas in Bangladesh.

4.2.1. Setting of the Study

The cities of Dhaka, Comilla, and Manikganj are the three urban areas selected for this study. The largest city in Bangladesh, capital Dhaka, is situated in the Dhaka District in central Bangladesh. Comilla city is located about 100 kilometres south east of Dhaka City while Manikganj is about 100 kilometers at the north- west of Dhaka city. The rural areas that form the sites of this study include Dhamrai, Savar and Comilla (Rural). Dhamrai and Savar are two Upazilas (sub-districts) within Dhaka District and are both located at the northwest of Dhaka city. The third rural area selected, Comilla (rural), is a rural part of Comilla District, about 30 kilometres from the city. These three are rural parts of the Dhaka division and are close to the urban areas but they are all situated outside the municipality. For this, these areas have been considered as rural areas.

Six schools from three urban areas were selected for this study. These schools were bigger than those of the rural areas. Typically an urban school had around 1000 students, with about 25 full-time teachers. The teacher-student ratio was usually 1:40. Most of the schools operated in two shifts because the large number of students could not be accommodated in a single shift. Students in public schools paid Tk 15 (\$0.25) monthly as tuition fees and an additional Tk 30 (\$0.5) for tiffin. Students of urban areas paid higher fees than students of rural areas. They mostly came from financially advantaged families since the economy of the urban areas was based on trade. Two of the six urban schools were private (MPO) schools and the rest were public.

In addition to the urban schools, eight schools from the three rural areas were selected for this study. Those schools were almost invariably smaller than their urban counterparts, where about 500 students were studying in the secondary section with about 13 full-time teachers in each school. Although the schools were smaller in terms of number of students and teachers, these schools had bigger campuses with large playing fields. There was usually a one-storeyed building in the compound. Some were situated at riversides and some had ponds inside the campus. The teacher-student ratio was usually 1:35. Four of these eight rural schools were located at the fringe of the rural centres, which made a difference in the number of students and teachers. Schools situated in remote rural areas were usually smaller than other rural schools. The rural schools were mostly coeducational. Students of rural areas paid less fees because they mostly came from financially disadvantaged families as the economies of the rural areas are typically based on agriculture, farming and fishing. People who work in these sectors usually are not well off. One of the eight urban schools was public school and the rest were private (MPO) since public schools are situated mostly in urban areas of Bangladesh.

Schools in the urban areas operated in double shifts - morning (9.00 am - 12.00 pm) and afternoon (1.00 pm - 4.00 pm) shifts - commonly referred to as the 'morning shift' and the 'day shift' respectively. On the other hand, in rural areas, school day generally

started at 7.30 am and went on until 12.30 pm. Before the classes started, the morning rituals took place at 7.20 am, during which the entire school assembled to sing the national anthem as the national flag was raised. A regular school day consisted of this 10-minute morning assembly and eight or nine successive class periods with each one lasting 30-40 minutes. After the first 4 classes, students got a 10-minute break which was called a 'tiffin break' in urban areas or 'leisure' in schools situated in other areas. In schools outside the urban areas, classes in English, Bangla and mathematics were taken in the first half of the school time because, as teachers mentioned, many students often left school during tiffin time.

4.2.2. *Participants of the Study*

Flick (1998) argues that "it is their relevance to the research topic rather than their representativeness which determines the way in which the people to be studied are selected" (p. 41). In order to explore the teaching practices of teachers in urban and rural settings in Bangladesh, the participants of this study were selected from secondary schools situated in both urban and rural areas. Thirteen participants from urban areas and thirteen from rural areas provided a wide spectrum of views of the teaching-learning situation in Bangladesh. The participants of this study represent teachers with various educational, social and religious backgrounds. They are teachers who teach in both public and private schools situated in urban and rural areas of Bangladesh. Although their diverse backgrounds, they all had one thing in common; they had all received training on teaching the English language. Results gathered from the data cannot be said to be generalisable but will help to know in detail the factors that influence the teaching practice of teachers with different backgrounds in Bangladesh.

4.2.2.1. *Group Profiles of the Participants*

The details of the participants are discussed in the following two sections grouping them into urban and rural areas.

Participants of Urban Areas

A total of thirteen English language teachers from six schools from the three urban areas participated in this study. In two of these six schools, there were subject specific teachers for English who taught English in different classes of junior secondary and secondary level. In other schools, teachers taught English along with all other subjects. Profiles of the participants have been given in the table below. The profile shows that these teachers are all well qualified. Ten of the thirteen teachers completed Masters and the rest completed Bachelors. All these teachers had BEd training and seven of them had received specific training in English language teaching.

	Name	Gender	Teaching Experience	Academic Degrees	General Training	Training on ELT
Dhaka City	Anisur	M	10	MA	BEd,	ELTIP, ELT
	Shamim	M	5	MA	BEd	ELTIP, ELT
	Ayesha	F	11	MA	BEd	---
	Anjali	F	27	MA	BEd	ELT
Comilla City	Ramia	F	10	MA	BEd, SBA	---
	Asif	M	15	MA	BEd	BELT, ELTIP
	Sharif	M	10	MA	BEd	ELTIP, ELT
	Wadud	M	15	MA	BEd	ELTIP
Manikganj	Sajjad	M	12	BA, Graduate Diploma	BEd, MEd	---
	Hafiz	M	13	MA	BEd, SBA	---
	Monowar	M	41	BA	BEd	---
	Jalal	M	27	MA	BEd	ELTIP
	Hanif	M	29	BA	BEd	---

Table 3: Profile of the Participants of Urban Areas

Participants of Rural Areas

Thirteen participants teach English language at the secondary level in eight schools situated in three rural areas i.e. Dhamrai, Savar and Comilla (Rural). These teachers

were usually residents of the villages of the areas. In all eight schools, teachers teach English along with teaching all subjects. Profiles of the participants are given in the table in next page. The profile shows that teachers of rural areas are less qualified compared to teachers of urban areas. Four of them have completed Masters while the rest have completed Bachelors. Nine of these teachers had BEd training and eight of them had received specific training on English language teaching. Of the 13 participants from rural areas, 10 were male and three female.

	Name	Gender	Teaching Experience	Academic Degrees	General Training	Training on ELT
Dhamrai	Lokman	M	35	BA	BEd, MEd	---
	Akbar	M	9	BA	BEd	---
	Sunil	M	21	BA	BEd	ELT
	Jamil	M	20	BA	BEd	---
	Ashish	M	10	BA	BEd	ELTIP
Savar	Amrin	F	11	MA	BEd, MEd	ELTIP
	Rubaba	F	22	BA	BEd	ELTIP
	Rahman	M	3	MA	---	ELTIP
	Rahela	F	24	MA	BEd	CEC
	Aref	M	4	MA	---	ELTIP
Comilla (Rural)	Belal	M	14	BA	BEd	---
	Bashar	M	20	BA	BEd	CEC
	Kabir	M	18	MA	---	ELTIP, ELT

Table 4: Profile of the Participants of Rural Areas

4.2.2.2. Negotiating Access to the Schools

The Principals of the selected schools were given a letter of invitation to participate in this study (see sample of invitation letter in *Appendix 2*). A copy of the formal permission obtained from the Assistant Director of Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education in Bangladesh was also provided to the Principals. The Principals of the schools were asked to recommend teachers who received pre-service or in-service teacher training from among those teaching English in their respective schools. The names of participants were therefore all recommended by the principals of the schools. The teachers were then invited to participate and were given the 'Participant Information

Statement' (see *Appendix 3*). All the teachers who were invited agreed to participate in the study. They signed the 'Participant Consent Form' (see *Appendix 4*) to participate in the study.

This section has introduced the settings and participants of this study. Data have been collected from the secondary schools situated in urban and rural areas of Bangladesh. Teachers of both public and private schools were included in the sample. The profiles show that the participants represent a broad range of experience. While some have just started their teaching career, some have been teaching for more than 20 years. This sample presents teachers from diverse backgrounds. However, although the participants present a wide range of diversity in the social and academic backgrounds of the participants, they are all teaching English in secondary level in Bangladesh.

4.3. Role of the Researcher

Researchers have talked about the importance of the role of a researcher in data collection (Louisy, 1997; Wolf, 1996). Wolf (1996) argues that "only those who are of a particular race or ethnic group can study or understand others in a similar situation" (p. 13). Louisy (1997) similarly states that "When the researcher's insight and the subject's own view of the reality being researched spring from a common cultural and social experience, the findings and the conclusions derived from there can be stimulating and powerful" (p. 201). The fact that the researcher was a Bangladeshi and a native speaker of the language that participants spoke, as well as one who worked as an English language teacher in Bangladesh allowed her to be considered as an insider to the participants. It helped her understand participants' points of views with an insider's perspective. The enthusiasm of the participants was displayed when they were approached to participate in the study. They appreciated and valued a research project which was exploring an important issue in English language education in Bangladesh. No prospective participant refused to participate and two teachers participated out of their own interest after knowing about the research. The researcher could feel the advantage of such interaction in that participants felt free to confide in her, as a person with a similar social, cultural and professional background, personally sensitive issues.

This greatly helped her build rapport with the participants, which is important in a qualitative case study of this nature.

Despite sharing such similarities in social, cultural and professional backgrounds, the researcher nevertheless actively played the role of an outsider in collecting data for this project since she had never taught in the contexts where the participants were teaching. The researcher also found that the participants' educational backgrounds, teaching perceptions and practices were quite different from hers. This is in line with Lewin's (1990) argument that all researchers are in a sense outsiders since they have "an agenda which is over and above any participation which they have in the activities that are the subject of their research" (p. 211). Thus while the status as an English language teacher in Bangladesh positioned the researcher as an insider, she was also an outsider since the teaching conditions of the participants and hers were mutually exclusive and very different.

4.4. Data Collection Methods

According to Neuman (2006), "Qualitative data involve documenting real events, recording what people say, observing specific behaviors, studying written documents, or examining visual images" (p. 157). Data of this study were collected through multiple sources following Punch (2005), who stresses that a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context where multiple sources of evidence are used (p. 145). The techniques that have been used for the data collection in this case study were semi structured interviews and non participant classroom observation. Each participant was interviewed twice, once before the classroom observations and once after. The first interview was conducted to elicit an understanding of the teachers' experience, teaching qualifications and how they were planning to teach in the next class; while the second focused on factors that shaped the actual observed lesson (see *Figure 5*). Observation of classrooms helped to get a broader picture of how teachers actually used the textbook in the classes. In addition to interviews and observations, curriculum materials were reviewed in this study to

understand the context of the school by gaining insights into the focus of teaching and examinations in these schools.

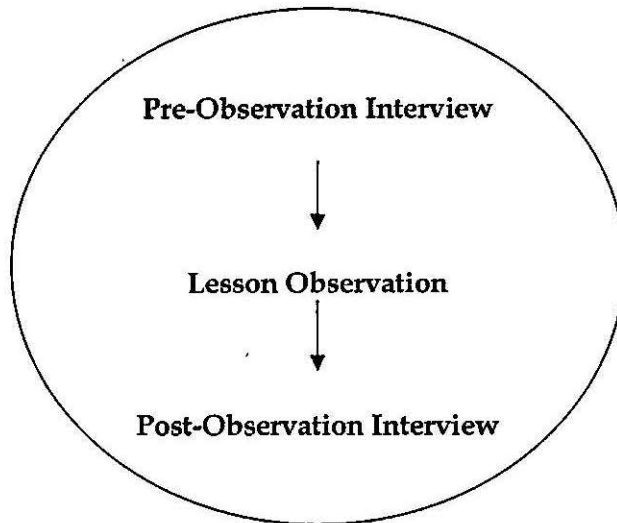


Figure 5: Data Collection Methods

The rationale for selecting and employing these data collection techniques and the details of the data collection procedure are discussed in the following two sections

4.4.1. Interview

Teacher interviews formed the basis of the data collected for this study. "The purpose of interviews is to generate detailed and desired information about an event, programme or person that would not otherwise be possible to obtain by means of observation or artifact collection" (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004, p. 198). Since this study aimed to discover the factors influencing teachers' textbook use, it required an in-depth investigation of these teachers. According to McGrath (2006), interview is the preferred method for researching attitude since it permits issues to be explored in greater depth. It is also one of the most powerful tools for understanding others. Interviews were

conducted to collect personal oral narratives about teaching and to generate content about an event from the insiders' perspectives (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004).

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the English language teachers from a range of educational institutions. "In semi-structured interview, the interviewer has a general idea where he/she wants the interview to go, and what should come out of it, but does not enter the interview with a list of predetermined questions" (Nunan, 1992, p. 149). The semi-structured interview was therefore chosen because the investigation started with a clear focus i.e. finding the factors that influence teachers' use of the new textbook. Bryman (2004) states

If the researcher is beginning the investigation with a fairly clear focus, rather than a very general notion of wanting to do research on a topic, it is likely that the interviews will be semi-structured ones, so that the more specific issues can be addressed. (Bryman, 2004, p. 323)

Semi-structured interviews helped to solicit as much information as possible without confining respondents to particular themes or topics.

The interviews were thematically framed to investigate what caused teachers to teach the way they did. While asking questions to each teacher, the researcher focused on the following six issues based on the research questions

- Teachers' perceptions of the new textbook;
- The teachers' actual teaching practices in class i.e. what kind of activities they actually do in class;
- The extent of teachers' use of the textbook i.e. if they follow the guidelines provided in the textbook and the teacher's guide while teaching the textbook in class;
- The effect of teacher training on teachers' textbook use in the classroom;
- Factors that influence teachers' teaching practices in class;

Based on the teacher's answers in the first interview and the lesson observation, the second interview pursued more specific questions. These questions went from the general to the specific in order to elicit more detail about how each factor influenced their teaching of the textbook and how it affected the implementation of the lesson they learned in training.

4.4.1.1. Building Rapport

Establishing rapport has been recognised as an important phenomenon of interview by researchers. Fontana and Frey (2000) state:

Because the goal of unstructured interviewing is understanding, it is paramount that the researcher establishes rapport with respondents; that is, the researcher must be able to take the role of the respondents and attempt to see the situation from their viewpoint, rather than superimpose his or her world of academia and preconceptions upon them. (Fontana & Frey, 2000, p. 655)

To build rapport with the participants, the researcher started all the interviews with casual conversations in which they talked about their backgrounds and the researcher asked the participants generally about the schools. Lichtman (2006) considers this to be a very important part of the interview since it generates meaningful and useful data by building rapport between the researcher and the participant. This also made participants feel comfortable and at ease with the researcher.

The researcher's familiarity with the setting itself brought a certain degree of informality to the interviewing process (Louisy, 1997, p. 215). She tried to make them feel that she was one of them - an experienced teacher of Bangladesh with a sound understanding of the context within which they worked. She also talked about the aim of the research and the significance of the research outcome thereby giving them a sense of purpose. Scheyvens and Nowak (2003) suggest such explanations help a researcher to create a good impression if the researcher can show that he or she is knowledgeable about the

research issue and the context and can show that the research questions are worthy of investigation. Such information sharing helped to create a good impression which is indispensable to the successful completion of research programs (Scheyvens & Nowak, 2003, p. 100).

4.4.1.2. Interview Data Collection Procedures

The first interview was conducted before observing the classrooms. A wide range of information was collected in that pre-observation interview in relation to teachers' personal and professional details to gain an understanding of their experience, educational qualification, teaching qualifications, teaching context and their plans for teaching (pre-observation interview prompts are provided in *Appendix 5*). Personal information included names of all teachers, their age and sex. The education qualification part included teachers' years of schooling and their academic qualifications while the training part included the types of professional training received by these teachers. They were also asked about numbers of classes they were required to take in a week, number of subjects taught, and the length of their experience. Teachers were asked how and what they planned to teach and the reasons behind their planned teaching strategy. Data on teacher number and numbers of English teachers in schools, student numbers, and performance of the students in Secondary School Certificate (SSC) examination were also collected. This information gave a more holistic understanding of the schools in relation to each other and helped supplement the background discussion in Chapter Two.

The second interview followed the classroom observation. The questions of this post-observation interview focused on the factors that shaped the actual lesson (post-observation interview prompts are provided in *Appendix 6*). Participants were asked to look back at the lesson and reveal what had been going on and the decision making processes about how to teach. There were also questions regarding teaching, the attitude of students towards learning and the impact of the SSC examination on teaching and learning. This was particularly important since examinations are the only assessment

system in Bangladesh and the SSC is considered very important, as discussed in Chapter Two.

The questions of both the interviews were open ended which helped to address more specific issues (Bryman, 2004; McDonough & McDonough, 1997) relating to the teaching of the textbook. For example, when the teachers talked about the factors influencing textbook use, the researcher pursued detailed information regarding how these were influencing them and in turn in what ways they responded.

The post-observation interviews were taken usually during the teacher's free class period immediately following the observation if they had one. However, school teachers in Bangladesh remain very busy taking classes of all subjects. The participant teachers of all the schools were busy taking classes one after another. For this, the researcher, on some occasions, waited for their free class period whenever it was on the same day. On some occasions, the researcher had to go to the same school on another day for the second interview complying with the teacher's class schedule.

All participants were interviewed in the schools where they taught. The purpose of the study was explained at each interview and the participants were allowed five minutes for reflection on the issues. The interviews took 20-35 minutes each and were conducted in the participants' native language Bangla as they were more comfortable in speaking in their first language. The interviews were recorded with a tape recorder and transcribed for the purpose of analysis at a later time. During the interview, the researcher took notes of the participants' answers to frame follow-up questions for subsequent interviews and correspondence. She also took notes of small, apparently trivial and insignificant activities which happened each day of data collection as suggested by Fontana and Frey (2000). Notes were taken on the physical aspect of the places where interviews were held, how she was treated, if teachers said something before or after interview. These were reviewed later in order to determine if any latest theme emerged from these supplementary field notes.

Researchers stress the importance of taking interviews in a quiet and secure place where participants can talk freely (see Bryman, 2004; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Neuman, 2006). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) argue that "The interviewer will need to establish an appropriate atmosphere such that the participant can feel secure to talk freely" (p. 279). Interviews could not be taken in quiet places. Interviews with six participants had to even be conducted in front of other people in the teachers' staff room because it was difficult to find space or a quiet room to take interviews with teachers. During interviews with participants, other teachers often interfered in a way of cooperating with the participant in answering the questions. Such behavior is culturally approved and the researcher did not find it practical to ask them to refrain from such unwanted interference. Other teachers in the staff room were very interested to know about the study and asked the researcher questions related to her study. These sometimes obstructed participant's natural flow of talk. In such cases it was necessary to deviate the conversation and redirect the focus on the interview. Furthermore, in this study, three participants in two schools had to talk in the room of the Principal. Since the staff rooms were noisy, the Principals asked the researcher to take the interviews in their rooms. This might have affected teachers' responses as they might have avoided mentioning politically sensitive issues related to the administrations of those schools.

4.4.2. Observation

In this study, the first interview was followed by observation of an English class of the participant teacher. "Observation is one of the most important methods of data collection because it entails being present in a situation to record one's impressions of what takes place" (Somekh & Lewin, 2005, p. 138). The purpose of the classroom observation was to understand how the teachers conducted the activities given in the textbook. It provided important stimuli for the subsequent interview by allowing the researcher to ask questions based on their classroom teaching.

Collecting data through observation involves watching the way teachers act in their own teaching context (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). It was important to see how teachers actually used the textbook in the class, which could not be sufficiently understood from

the data gathered by interviews alone. Weir and Roberts (1994) point out "Observation is the only way to get direct information on classroom events, on the reality of programme implementation. This can be used to assess the achievement of programme objectives and to illuminate participants' expressed perceptions and beliefs" (p. 164-165). There was a wide range of issues that was simply not amenable to interview, so observing the teachers represented the only viable means of finding out about them within a qualitative research strategy.

The classroom observations were unstructured in which certain predetermined issues were observed. A checklist of the actions was used to observe what the teacher-researcher expected to observe in the given setting. This was done because some structure in data collection procedure helps cross-case comparability in multiple-case study research (Bryman, 2004). Lankshear and Knobel (2004) state that such observation, with some data collection goals, helps processing enormous amounts of information in qualitative research.

4.4.2.1. Observation Data Collection Procedures

Classroom observation offered evidence of how teachers actually used the textbook in the classes. The observations were conducted between two rounds of interviews. Together, the 26 unstructured observations of the classrooms revealed how teachers used the textbook while teaching English in secondary education in Bangladesh. The classes were observed with a view to recording the aspects of teaching that had been emphasised as important in the new teaching system (see *Appendix 7*). For example, it was recorded whether the teacher used warm-up activities or went to the main topic directly. It was also recorded if the teacher was interacting with the students during the activity, for example, whether it was with individual students, or groups of students, which language (English or Bangla) the teacher was using while doing each activity, what skills they practised. Use of any other teaching material was also recorded. Direct quotes of teaching instructions were also recorded in many instances. The researcher

jotted down her reflections, thoughts and questions related to the teaching in the 'reflective field notes' (Verma & Mallick, 1999, p. 119) which then became part of the post-observation interview. "Reflective field notes allow the researcher to reflect on their own feelings, values, and thoughts in order to increase their awareness of how these might be influencing their observations" (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006, p. 121).

The classroom observations were non-participant, where the researcher only observed from the back of the classroom and she did not participate in any of the classroom activities. In non-participant observation, researchers "remove themselves as much as possible from the context they are observing" (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004).

Negative effects of an observer's presence can be reduced, as McDonough and McDonough (1997) point out, by informing the participants, in advance, of the purposes of the observation, how the data will be used and who will be given access to them. During classroom observations, the participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to find out how the teachers were using the textbook in the classrooms. The researcher also explained to the participants how she would use the information obtained from the observations. To this end, the researcher explained her role and the purpose of the research to the observed teachers in detail. However, considering that knowledge of what issues the researcher might be most interested in might result in making them behave differently than they usually did, the researcher was careful not to inform them of the specific issues that would be observed since she realised that full information might affect their teaching practice and performances.

Thus data collected through non-participant unstructured observations provided empirical evidence of teaching-learning practices in English language classrooms in secondary education in Bangladesh. It showed whether teachers followed the guidelines provided in the teacher's guide and these findings showed to what extent they implemented what they learned in training programs in terms of using the textbook.

4.4.3. Document Examination

In addition to the data gathered from the pre and post-observation interviews and the classroom observation, course outlines and examination questions were collected and reviewed for obtaining contextual information about the school. According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992) these materials are 'internal documents' (p. 136) since these are circulated inside the organisation. Course outlines were available in four of the six schools in the urban areas but were not available in any of the rural schools. These schools did not publish these internal documents since it was an additional expense to publish such materials. Question papers of term final exams were collected from all the schools and the participants helped the researcher to get the documents.

The selected documents helped gain insight into those factors that were emphasised by the schools because these internal documents revealed information about the internal rules and regulations of an organisation (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). The course outlines gave an account of the contents of the textbook that is focused on in classroom teaching while the question papers gave an outline of what are focused on in exams in these schools. In this manner, the documents provided an insight into the current priorities of the schools and helped to understand the context of the school in a more holistic way.

4.5. Data Analyses

This section describes the analyses of the qualitative data collected for this study. It starts with the interview data analysis which is followed by a description of the analysis of the observation data. It ends with discussing the curriculum material analysis.

4.5.1. Interview Data Analysis

A translation from Bangla to English was made of all the records of interviews and observations by the researcher. The interview transcripts, observation sheets and field notes taken during the observation were read and re-read with the aim of pursuing recurrent as well as conflicting themes and patterns. The researcher had to listen to some

of the recorded interviews repeatedly since the background noise made it difficult to understand what teachers said in some cases. (A sample of transcription is given in *Appendix 8*). Due to physical constraints, the transcripts could not be sent to the participants for verification. It was particularly difficult to contact the teachers of rural areas and send the transcripts to them since the communication system is not very developed in those places. Teachers agreed with this arrangement prior to the interviews.

The transcripts were read multiple times to identify topics, themes or issues and coding was used to bring similar kinds of data together. This is often an effective starting point of qualitative data analysis and an integral part of data analysis in qualitative research (Bryman, 2004). With regard to coding Bazeley and Richards (2000) point that "It is one way to manage data and store knowledge gained from the documents, or interpretations made" (p. 23). Codes were developed considering - "What is this item of data about?" (Bryman 2004, p. 408). It involved a close examination of the data, identifying conceptual categories both implicit and explicit in the data (Punch, 2005). Coding brought material together on the same topic. In other words, it was a 'descriptive coding' (Punch, 2005, p. 200) that captured information provided in the text.

In this study, data were coded using computer software NVivo where each topic or concept was stored in a Free Node (*Figure 6 in Appendix 9* provides example of Free Nodes). 'Nodes are items that you create to represent anything at all in or about your project, and to hold information about it, code text about it, etc' (Bryman, 2004, p. 423). The Free Nodes for pre-observation interview transcripts were 'Education', 'Training, Perceptions', and 'Planning of the lesson'. The Free Nodes for post-observation interview transcripts on the other hand were 'Language Proficiency', 'Physical Constraints', 'Exam Effect', 'Time Issues' and 'Ways to Improve'. These Free Nodes were later ordered based on their themes. For example, perceptions of the textbook and teacher's guide were put together. The 'Influential' factors were also put together. Later they were all grouped based on how they were perceived to be influencing teaching.

Teachers raised issues such as 'short classes', '6/7 classes a day', 'private tuition', 'closure of school' 'activities are time consuming'. These issues were 'Free Nodes', which were grouped under Tree Nodes, such as, in this case, 'Contextual Constraints'. Tree Nodes helped organise the free nodes into conceptual groups (*Figure 7 in Appendix 9* provides example of Tree Nodes). Seven Tree Nodes were identified, which were named keeping the research questions in mind. For example, the Tree Node 'Textbook' captured the data related to the research question - 'How do the teachers use the textbook?'. Similarly the Tree Node 'Teachers' reaction to teacher training' captured the data related to the second research question - 'Does teacher training bring any change in textbook teaching? If yes, how?'. Teachers raised a large number of diverse factors relating to the third research question - 'What are the factors that influence teachers' use of the textbook in the classroom?'. It generated an enormous amount of data. Teachers' responses related to this and related questions were captured under three different Tree Nodes: 'Contextual Constraints', 'Teacher's Problems' and 'Washback'. The extra information which was collected as part of the semi-structured interview was grouped under the Tree Nodes 'Suggestions' and 'Miscellaneous'.

Creating nodes led the researcher to think about the shape of the categories. It also led to asking questions about the relations of these categories. Information that neither fitted into any category nor seemed to form a new category were placed into a 'miscellaneous' pile which was reviewed later in order to determine if it could be reassigned to one of the existing categories or assigned to a new category. These categories were developed in a way that described category properties and distinguished each category from the others. In this process, whenever a new category emerged, it was compared with the old categories and then decided whether to put the new one under the old Tree Node or to make a new Free Node.

4.5.2. Observation Data Analysis

Analysis of the observation data was partly done immediately after the observation was conducted, since the questions of the second interview were mostly based on the

findings of the observation data. The observation checklist and the reflective field notes were both analysed to generate the prompts for the second interview. After all the data were collected, the notes taken during the observation were read. Coupled with the interviews, these observation notes were reviewed to find whether classroom teaching was related to the context or the demographic variables of the teachers. Analysis was supported with evidence from interviews.

The observation instrument checklist itself (*Appendix 7*) consisted of measures where during real-time observation, the researcher ticked off 'yes' or 'no' to items such as use of medium of instruction, teaching methods employed (including activities and practice), skills covered, the degree of student participation and use of teaching material (the textbook and/or guidebooks), which were supplemented by additional remarks on teaching practice. As well as using this instrument to generate prompts for the second interview, the researcher collated the yes/no responses in terms of the identified themes to quantify the 26 class sessions into identifiable pedagogical practices in relation to the key practices endorsed in teacher training. These practices, often at odds with teacher perceptions, are discussed in the next two chapters. The additional remarks were also categorised based on teachers' views from the first interview. In cases where contradiction or conflict was found between perception and practice, these remarks provided the basis for additional questions in subsequent interviews.

4.5.3. *Document Analysis*

Analysis of the observation data was followed by creating 'Document Summary Forms' (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 54) of the curriculum materials for keeping track of a document's origins, its significance within the study as well as the contents of the document. The course outlines and the question papers collected from the schools were kept together based on the places they were collected from. After analyzing the data gathered from interview and observation, these documents were studied to understand the focus of classroom teaching and the exams which gave an outline of the priorities of the schools.

In the end, the analysis of the interview transcripts, observation data and the curriculum materials demonstrated how the teachers implemented teacher training while teaching the textbook and what other factors influence their teaching.

4.6. Validity and Reliability of Data

In the study, various techniques were used to establish the validity and reliability of the data and to make an in-depth investigation of the way teachers implemented the lessons learned in teacher training programs while using the textbook and whether any other factors were influencing their practice. Details of the techniques are provided below.

4.6.1. Validity

Validity in qualitative research refers to the match between the researcher's categories and interpretations and what is actually true (McMillan, 2000). To ensure the validity of this qualitative research, data were collected through multiple methods (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008). According to Freebody (2003), multiple data collection and analytic procedures are used in case-study methodology to provide researchers the opportunity to compare and contrast information and to expand the relevance of the project by developing unforeseen findings and interpretations. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) suggest: "The use of multiple methods, or triangulation, reflects an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question" (p. 5). Wiersma and Jurs (2009) also argue that triangulation in data collection shows if the collected data are enough. They state:

Triangulation is comparison of information to determine whether or not there is corroboration. It is a search for convergence of the information on a common finding or concept. To a large extent, the triangulation process assesses the sufficiency of the data (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009, p. 287).

The observation that was conducted between the two interviews, provided significant supplementary data for the triangulation of the data gathered from interview (Chen, 2003). "Triangulation has been generally considered a process of multiple perceptions to clarify meaning, verifying the repeatability of an observation or interpretation... triangulation serves also to clarify meaning by identifying different ways the phenomenon is being seen" (Stake, 2000, p. 443-444).

Two kinds of triangulation, i.e. triangulation by data source and triangulation by method (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 391) were used in this study. Triangulation by data source was done by collecting information from the 26 informants who have been teaching in rural and urban areas in Bangladesh. Moreover, more than one participant was selected from each teaching context. The collection of data using multiple methods i.e. interviews and observations, established triangulation by method. In addition, curriculum materials were also reviewed in this study. These triangulation techniques in data collection methods enhanced the credibility of the research by verifying the information elicited from one source of data.

To further increase the validity of the research, along with collecting data through multiple methods, initiatives were taken to reduce 'researcher effect' (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 265). During classroom observations, a researcher's presence in class may influence the teacher's behaviour (Bryman, 2004; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). As a result, what is recorded through this kind of observation does not necessarily show what would take place naturally. Initiatives were therefore taken to reduce the effect of the presence of the observer. The researcher remained unobtrusive by sitting at the corner of the rear end of the classroom and by not participating in the class (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005). Such caution and distancing made the teacher and the students get accustomed to and forget the presence of the researcher.

4.6.2. *Reliability*

McMillan defines the reliability of qualitative research as "the extent to which what is recorded as data is what actually occurred in the setting that was studied" (McMillan,

2000, p. 272). To enhance the reliability of the research, details of the research procedure and results have been presented (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). Characteristics of the sample population and the researcher's role and status have been outlined in detail in the study to provide a view of the context under study. Detailed field notes were taken to ensure better comprehensiveness and accuracy (McMillan, 2000). Moreover, interviews were recorded with a tape recorder and were revisited several times in order to ensure accuracy. The numerous quotations of participants in next two chapters provide specific description that constitutes visible evidence for these assertions.

4.7. Ethical Considerations

Following the regulations for research students at the University of Sydney, an application was lodged to the Director of Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education (DSHE) in Bangladesh, seeking permission for conducting the study in different parts of Bangladesh. In March 2007, along with the approval of DSHE, an application was submitted to the Human Ethics Committee of University of Sydney for approval to conduct a research involving human participants. The approval was granted in April, 2007 (see *Appendix 1*). Data were collected from June 2007 to August 2007.

Safeguarding the privacy and confidentiality of the participants is a principle ethical issue of the study. Participant teachers were informed that the purpose of the study was to generate information about the ways that teachers actually use the teaching materials, in order to find out the reasons behind teachers' using the materials as they do and to provide information that can be used as a basis for future planning for improving teaching and ultimately students' learning. Participants were provided with a 'Participant Information Statement' which informed them that audiotapes would be used for recording. This information sheet assured that pseudonyms of the participants would be used in the published thesis and subsequent publications. After the participants had the opportunity to read the written information provided, they were asked to sign a 'Consent Form'. In the 'Participant Information Statement' and 'Consent Form', it was stated that participation was voluntary, confidential and that there would be no adverse consequences if they did not participate or withdrew from the research at

any stage. It also explained the expected time commitment for participating in the study. The identification and contact details of the researcher were stated in the form so that the participants could contact her if further information was required by them. They were also provided with information on ethical standards that included assurances of preservation of anonymity and respect for the teachers' right to withdraw at any time during the study. Both the participant and the researcher signed two copies of the information sheet and the 'Consent Form'. Each participant and the researcher then kept one copy of each of the forms. Information gathered through interviews and observational studies were kept in secure filing cabinets in the researcher's office at the university and in secure files on the researcher's personal computer. In accordance to the privacy regulations of the University of Sydney, these would be destroyed after five years.

4.8. Summary of Chapter

The chapter has provided details of the procedures, method and analysis of the data collection process. It started with a description of the research design. This was followed by a detailed description of the setting and the participants. Participants represented secondary school teachers from diverse backgrounds in Bangladesh. The role of the researcher was provided in the next section which is followed by a section with the details of data collection procedures of this study. While the interviews were the primary sources of data, the observations provided stimuli for subsequent interviews and significant supplementary data to triangulate participants' accounts gathered from interview. Course outlines, examination questions, teaching materials and school handbooks were also collected and reviewed to obtain background and contextual information about the school. Measures were taken to reduce researcher effect and the data were collected from more than one source. A section on the data analysis process follows the data collection procedure section. The chapter ends with a discussion on the accuracy of the data and the ethical issues of the study.

The next chapter will discuss the findings based on the data collected from the interviews and other sources outlined in this chapter.

5. Chapter Five

REFLECTIONS ON TRAINING OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

This chapter, along with the next, presents the findings of this study. As has been mentioned in Chapters Two and Three, the textbook is the only teaching material for teaching English in schools in Bangladesh and all the training programs arranged for teachers focus on the contents of this textbook. The issues which are emphasised in these training are discussed in these two chapters. This chapter focuses on teachers' perceptions of the importance of using the textbook, the teacher's guide and how they make lesson plans before taking a class while the next chapter presents pedagogical aspects of these teachers' use of the textbook in the classroom. It starts with a discussion of teachers' perceptions of the importance of using the new textbook as the only teaching material in the class. The following section explores how teachers perceive the importance of the teacher's guide as an aid to teaching the textbook. Both these sections discuss how teachers use the textbook and the teacher's guide in classroom. The next section describes how teachers make lesson plans, which is considered as an important aspect of the new curriculum and has always been emphasised in training programs and the teacher's guide. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings presented in this chapter.

With regard to the use of the textbook as the only teaching material, data showed that teachers generally had a favourable attitude towards the new textbook. However, it was not always used in the English language classrooms where examination related commercially published materials played a large role in some cases even as a substitute to the textbook. Data also revealed that while teachers did understand the importance of using teacher's guide, they did not follow the instructions given in it. Again, teachers noted that they could not always make lesson plans before class. They mentioned various factors that restrained their initiatives to and motivations for implementing the

lessons they learned in training programs. These factors are discussed in detail in this chapter.

5.1. Using the Textbook as the Sole Teaching Material

This section discusses how teachers perceived the importance of the textbook as the only teaching material. Data reveal that teachers acknowledged the importance of using the textbook as the sole teaching material because they believed that the book was written in an organised way. They talked about the themes and topics of the book and the activities which focus on all the four skills and provide the scope to get students involved in communicative activities in the classroom. They also expressed their views on the language of the textbook. Their views on all these issues and the use of the textbook in the classroom are presented below. This section also discusses whether teachers used the textbook as the only material to teach English in classrooms of secondary levels as intended.

5.1.1. Teachers' Perceptions

The textbook focused on all the four skills of the English language i.e. reading, writing, speaking and listening and this feature markedly distinguished it from the previous textbook. Teachers stated that students were encouraged to actively participate in activities which involve all the four skills from the very beginning of the textbook. Some participants who had the experience of teaching the previous book compared the new textbook with the previous one. They said that this book focused on all skills while the previous book focused on only two skills i.e. reading and writing. In every lesson, there are activities for reading and writing skills and moreover, there were exercises to develop listening and speaking skills. Teachers noted that it is this attention and importance attached to oral skills that clearly distinguished this text book from the earlier one.

Along with focusing on the language skills, this book also focused on developing grammar and vocabulary of the students. Jalal, who also had the experience of using the previous textbook mentioned:

Students can develop four skills of English language if we can teach them the new textbook properly. From this book, students can learn grammar and vocabulary. If students can learn vocabulary, they will have a good foundation of English language. (Jalal)

Aref, who was a teacher in a school in Manikganj appreciated the organisation of the contents of the book and said that the organisation chart which is provided at the beginning of the book showed that every single lesson emphasises developing various skills. Moreover, vocabulary and structure and language points were separately provided in each section. He explained:

The new *English for Today* is definitely good. I do not have any doubt about it. Every lesson has been divided in different sections and emphasis has been given to develop various skills in each section. If one section emphasises on developing reading skills, another section emphasises on developing writing skills. Development of all the skills has been emphasised. (Aref)

The selection of topics and themes of the new textbook was another reason of using it. Participants said that *English for Today* has used a wide array of topics and themes that covered different issues and events as well as knowledge of different disciplines and subjects. The reading texts and dialogues in the textbook were on various themes, such as, 'Space Technology', 'Using a Library', 'Exploring Mars', 'Sports and You', 'Myths and Fables' etc. It covered knowledge of various disciplines i.e. arts, science, history and literature. More importantly, participants said that the social, historical, cultural and environmental factors of Bangladesh were reflected in this book which made it culturally familiar to students. They thought that students of the secondary level would find these topics interesting and would be able to relate to them from their familiarity with the context. In this regard, Belal said "The book contained activities on various topics. These topics covered various disciplines. Students of secondary level would find these topics interesting and they would like to practise language on such topics" (Belal).

They also thought that these issues would add value to their knowledge by providing knowledge of Bangladesh and other countries.

Some other features of the textbook also distinguished it from the previous textbook and teachers considered the inclusion of these features as a strong reason of using the book. Teachers noted that many authentic resources were used in this text, for example, advertisements from newspapers, loan application forms, newspaper articles. Participants also claimed that such inclusion of 'realia' or authentic material was an entirely new feature in the textbook as there were no such items in the previous textbook. They appreciated this new feature since they thought it would help the students learn the language they need to use outside the classroom.

Teachers also considered the inclusion of communicative activities as another important reason to use the new textbook. In every lesson, there is more than one activity that involved students working in pairs or groups. Teachers thought that the new textbook would help to teach English for communicating in real life as there are many such communicative activities in this textbook. Rahela, a teacher of a school in Savar noted that students would learn to communicate in English if they were taught the book in class. She said:

The tasks in this book are designed in such ways which involve student participation and interaction. These tasks provide students with opportunities so that they can participate in genuine and meaningful communication. It helps students to take part in interactive use of the language. It offers teachers the opportunity to get students involved in using the language. (Rahela)

Although the teachers appreciated the content of the textbook, significant variations and differences were evident in the ways in which the participants explained the aspects of the usage of the language of the textbook. Some participants from rural areas objected to the 'language' of the textbook. According to them, students did not understand the 'language' of the book. Ashish noted that students of rural areas did not understand the

vocabulary of the book. For example, the meanings of words such as 'exam fitness', 'women power' were difficult for them to understand due to cultural unfamiliarity. Asif noted that:

Since it is for the use of all students of the country, this book is for rural students in Bangladesh. It would have been much better if topics were written in simpler language which is comprehensible by students of rural areas. (Asif)

Such varied opinion about different aspects of the textbook reflected the various difficulties teachers encountered in using it. These difficulties are discussed later.

5.1.2. *Classroom Practice*

Although teachers expressed their positive attitude towards using the new textbook and its content, observation revealed that in classrooms, especially in the rural schools in Bangladesh, both students and teachers relied heavily on locally produced bi-lingual guide books and notebooks with readymade answers and explanations of grammatical structures. In some cases, students exclusively practised exercises from these ubiquitous guides. Those commercially available guidebooks contained items such as passages, questions that followed the passage, essay and letter writing. However, they did not contain pre-reading activities such as picture description, dialogue writing and poster making. Students also practised questions from the test papers which are commercially available examination preparation materials in Bangladesh. These included answers to a large pool of questions from past SSC examinations. Teachers themselves also appeared to practise items from the SSC question papers of previous years or they used items that were slightly different from the tests' actual items.

Teachers often used these commercially available guides in the classroom to prepare students for the examinations. Aref revealed that in order to prepare the students for the year final examination or the SSC examination, teachers needed to practise various activities with them. He said

We need to practise model questions if we want to take preparation for the SSC examination. It is essential to practise the model questions because the textbook does not contain any question. Guidebook contains the part of textbook which are important SSC not the other parts i.e. survey form, bank form. We do not need activities for examination. (Aref)

Commercially available guides helped teachers to prepare students for examination. Aref explained how convenient it was to use these guides, and how equally inconvenient it would be without using them. The textbook itself did not provide many activities to prepare students for the examinations. Moreover, teachers did not have the time to devise such activities on their own. Each day, a teacher took class with students of different years. If they wanted to practise these things with the students, they had to bring those exercises with them everyday which they felt was very inconvenient and time consuming. For this, they used the convenient and time-saving commercially available guides and test papers which readily contained such practice items.

At certain times of the year, the use of the textbook was completely discarded. Ramia and Wadud, who were teachers of Comilla city, revealed that they prefer relying on the 'model questions' in the guidebooks, discarding the textbook, for several months in the final stages of preparation for the SSC examination - from right after the pre-test which was the preparatory test of the SSC, to the time when they sit for the actual board examination. Another teacher of a school in Manikganj said in this regard:

We treat our students differently after the pre-test examination. We prepare our students for examination that time. We teach them the textbook till pre-test, then we make them prepared for the SSC examination. We teach them answers that are important for the examination so that they can pass the examination. (Monowar)

There was significant difference in the degree of reliance on using the textbook and guide books between students of rural and urban areas. In many schools in urban areas,

teachers practised guidebooks and model questions along with *English for Today*, whereas teachers of rural areas were observed using guidebooks, while rejecting the textbook, to prepare students for examinations. In schools of the urban areas, teachers finished one lesson, practised exercises from the guide book and then practised the model questions corresponding to that lesson from the test papers. However, Anjali who was a teacher in a school in Dhaka city noted that it was not possible to practise only the activities from the guidebooks without going through the textbook in detail first, as the questions of the test paper were always based on the textbook. Anisur, who was teaching in a school of Dhaka city also said that in his school, teachers focused on teaching the textbook. They sometimes might practise the model questions before the SSC examination but they usually did not do it at school. In this case, she claimed that students practised the test paper at home.

However, in most classes in the rural areas, students were observed as using only commercially available guidebooks and test papers, to the almost total rejection of the use of the textbook itself. Classroom teaching focused on these workbooks that prepared students for the kind of questions specified in the new examination. When teachers were asked why students used only the guidebook, participants said that the students of rural areas could not afford to buy the textbook and guidebook. They only bought the material that was necessary for passing the examination. They also mentioned that all schools of rural areas themselves suggested the names of these guide books, as the teachers wanted students to get a good result.

Thus the textbook, which was mentioned as the core of the curriculum, was not always used in English language classrooms in Bangladesh where examination related commercially published materials also played a large role in these language classrooms.

5.2. Using the Teacher's Guide as an Aid to Teaching the Textbook

Teachers are meant to follow the guide while teaching the textbook and the training for teachers always emphasise using the guide. However considerable difference was found among teachers' use of the guide. This section discusses how teachers perceived the

importance of the teacher's guide as a teaching aid to the textbook and describes whether they used it as the material to teach English in classrooms of secondary levels as intended.

5.2.1. *Teachers' Perceptions*

In general, teachers appreciated the introduction of the teacher's guide as they considered it helpful in many ways. Most of the teachers said that the guide helped them to understand more about the topic and how it was to be taught. It helped them by showing ways of organising content for instruction. Teachers also stated that while they needed to make time to produce practice material, the teacher's guide helped them readily obtain these materials. Ramia said that the guide helped her in taking the class as the instruction of doing the activities had been given with approximate time:

Teachers can utilise the time in the class if they use the guideline given in the guide. It provides guidelines on how to do the activities given in the textbook. It makes teaching easier and better organised. It saves my time and efforts. If for some reasons, I can not take the preparation taking the help from the guide, I can feel the difference in my teaching. (Ramia)

5.2.2. *Classroom Practice*

However, observation showed that teachers did not use the guide in the manner suggested in training. Differences were also found in the frequency of using the teacher's guide. Two of the 26 participants said that they used it regularly, nine did not use the textbook 'everyday' and 15 out of the 26 participants did not use the guide at all. These last group of teachers said that they taught the textbook by means of the textbook alone since they did not find the teacher's guide appropriate for the teaching context in Bangladesh though it had been written to help teachers use the new textbook. Participants raised two issues i.e. availability of the guide and time constraints, which they thought discouraged them from using the guide. These issues have been discussed in the following section.

5.2.2.1. Distribution of the Teacher's Guide

The teacher's guide was not available to all the teachers. Four of the participants did not have a copy available for use. Ramia complained that the teacher's guide was not distributed properly to all teachers. She added that at the beginning of this curriculum change, ELTIP distributed the guide and thereafter the government was supposed to distribute the guide through the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB). However, these days only those who go for ELTIP training get personal copies of the teacher's guide for Classes 9 and 10. Teachers who could not go for the training did not get the copy. Rubaba, who was the Principal of a school in Savar, similarly complained about the unavailability of the teacher's guide. She explained that teachers outside the urban areas often did not have the guide when it was first published due to lack of proper management from the ELTIP authority. She mentioned that she herself got it after 2 or 3 years of its publication. It therefore appeared that lack of interest in using the teacher's guide can at least be partly attributed to its unavailability due to uneven distribution.

5.2.2.2. Time Issue

In addition to problems with distribution, shortage of time was another main reason for teacher's reluctance in following the teacher's guide. More than half of the participants of this study did not make use of the guide due to this reason. The issues that created time constraints for teachers were length of class period and the total number of classes in an academic year. These issues are discussed in the following two sections.

Length of Class

The duration of class was one of the major difficulties that prevented teachers from doing the activities of the textbook in the manner in which teachers had been suggested in the guide. Teachers noted that longer classes would have been better for doing all the activities. Ramia stated that the teacher's guide was very helpful in 'organising' the class and she used it regularly, even though she strongly argued that in order to use the guide properly, teachers needed longer class periods. The activities as suggested in the guide, she thought, could not be done in such a class with 30-minute duration. She revealed

that the classes at secondary level were usually 30-40 minutes long. If a class was before the tiffin break, it was usually 40 minutes long and if it took place in the second half, which was more often the case, it was even shorter. Apart from actual teaching, teachers also had to take the attendance of the students and collect the previous day's home work - a common practice in Bangladeshi schools, all within the allotted time. Observation also revealed that all these tasks required an extra 10-15 minutes which left teachers with an even shorter time for teaching in class. Ramia said that she found it difficult to do all the activities suggested in the teacher's guide and those learned in training. Shamim revealed that he found it difficult to do warm-up activities in such a short class. He expressed his frustration when he said

ELTIP taught us to do warm up activities which are mostly speaking activities in the first 3 minutes of the class but in reality we have to call the roll first, then have to collect the home work. After doing all these, I am left with 15 minutes to teach those students. We would have done those warm up activities if we did not have to do those works. (Shamim)

Anisur, who was teaching in a public school in Dhaka, talked about yet another issue that made the length of the class even shorter. He talked about the students' behaviour as he said that students of his school were usually from less educated families who were generally not familiar with school etiquette. They often disrupted the class by making noise and behaving improperly, which further created time problems for the teacher. Teachers could not teach from the very beginning of the class time. They had to spend a good amount of time solving these problems. In the end they were left with 20-25 minutes to teach the book which made it difficult to go through all the activities: "In most of the cases it takes us long to make them quiet in the class. It leaves us with a short time for teaching" (Anisur).

Number of Class Sessions

In addition to the inadequate time in each class, the limited number of class sessions also created additional time constraints for the teachers. Three participants claimed that they

did not get enough classes in an academic year to complete the syllabus. Teachers noted that they were assigned with four or five classes every week to teach the textbook. Thus they got two hours every week for this book. Teachers found it difficult to teach the textbook following the guidelines of the teacher's guide within such a short time. They did not get enough time to do all the activities of the book all the year through. They followed the guide only at the beginning of Classes 9 and 10 since they could teach in a more relaxed way in that part of the year when 'time pressure' is yet to be felt. Later they focused more on finishing the syllabus rather than doing all the activities and spending a certain time doing each activity as was suggested in the guide.

Teachers did not get enough classes to complete certain parts of the syllabus before every examination. The course outlines showed that in most of the schools, students usually had three term-final examinations every year. In some schools they also had half-yearly and final examinations. The syllabus distribution was decided from the very beginning of each term. Anisur said that teachers were supposed to teach certain parts of the book, as asked by the administration, before every term final examination. He noted that teachers of his school remained much focused on the coverage of the curriculum content that would be tested rather than doing all the activities prescribed in the teacher's guide. Teachers and students therefore paid sole attention to completing the syllabus for the examination within the allocated time. Shamim stated that in his school, the gap between the first term examination and the mid term examination was three months. The first term exam was held in May and the mid-term in August. In the months of June and July, teachers were supposed to teach Units 1 to 10 for the first-term examination. Shamim felt the pressure of teaching these 10 Units within that short time.

Teachers get pressure from authorities to complete the syllabus before the term final or the year final examinations and they try to complete the syllabus within the limited time available for one class and rush through the lesson. If I cannot complete the syllabus before the classes end, I will get warning from the Principal that I have not done my work properly. (Shamim)

Bashar said that in order to prepare students for the examination, they had to complete the syllabus and since they had to complete many lessons before each examination, they did not get enough time to do all activities.

The idea of completing the syllabus in a short span of time works as the main barrier behind the implementation of the lesson we learn from teacher training. The thought of completing the syllabus always haunts us. (Bashar)

In addition, closure of schools also reduced the number of classes and thus created additional shortage of time. Anisur mentioned that many annual programs such as sports and prize-giving ceremonies were held in January, while the winter vacation was in February-March. Furthermore, schools remained closed over the SSC examinations every year when they were turned into examination centres. Schools also remained closed on the days of strikes which were frequently called by the political parties in Bangladesh. Anisur added that floods occurred almost every other year. There were vacations for religious festivals i.e. Eid, Pooja. Schools remained closed for a total of 3-4 months of the year due to these political disruptions, natural disasters and for the SSC and HSC examinations.

Do we get enough time to go through these activities? No! So many events are taking place in school all the year through! So many holidays! And you know about the strikes. In the end, we get few classes to complete the syllabus. (Anisur)

Moreover, Kabir, a teacher in Comilla rural area, mentioned that if it rained a lot in rural areas, students did not turn up and the schools were closed. Such unscheduled 'breaks' significantly disrupted normal activities of the school.

Teachers stated that the teacher's guide had not been distributed properly and they did not get enough time to do the activities following the guideline as suggested in the teacher's guide. If they did all the activities, the syllabus would not be finished in time.

For this, they did not consider it 'practical' to use the book, even though they perceived the contents of the book as helpful in guiding them to teach the textbook.

5.3. Making Lesson Plans

Along with teaching, the training arranged for the English language teachers also trained them to make lesson plans, which were an outline or some points that would remind the teachers of the activities to be carried out in a particular class. Asif, who planned his lessons before every class, said that such practice helped him a lot to take a class in an organised way if he could make a lesson plan before a class. He said:

From ELTIP training, I learned how to do lesson plan. It helps a lot in taking the class in an organised way. I decide before each class how I will conduct the class by making an outline or jotting some points that remind me what activities to do in the class. (Asif)

However, most teachers did not make lesson plans following the training. Data show that only three out of 26 participants made a lesson plan before going to the class. The majority of the teachers revealed that even though they were trained to make lesson plans and they understood that it was important to plan for a class before the actual teaching took place, they could not make the plan for several reasons. As Bashar mentioned, in teacher training, the trainees were asked to make preparation before going to class but the practical situation did not allow them to make preparation. "Even after having an intention of making lesson plan before going to class, the situation does not allow us to do what we learned in teacher training" (Bashar).

5.3.1. *Workload of Teachers*

Participants mentioned that the workload made it hard for them to make adequate preparation for the class. They mentioned three factors which were responsible for this. These factors are discussed below.

5.3.1.1. Engagement with Other Commitments

Teachers' engagement with extra-academic commitments took their time away from making lesson plans. Participants revealed that they indeed understood the value of making lesson plans but they had to do work other than teaching which took their time away from making lesson plans. Apart from teaching, teachers had to do other work most of which were administrative and within the school. The authority engaged teachers to do work other than teaching i.e. collecting tuition fees, conducting examinations, doing other national duties like preparing voters' lists, doing election duties, counting people during the census etc. Teachers in the rural areas mentioned that they also had to do work related to the Female Stipend Project under which female students at the primary, secondary and higher secondary levels in rural schools got scholarships. Teachers noted that they got tired doing so much work. Rubaba, a teacher of Savar area stated "ELTIP trained us how to make lesson plans before the class and the importance of making the plans but because of administrative work, we rarely get time to make the lesson plans" (Rubaba).

5.3.1.2. Private Tuition

Due to poor pay scale, teachers had to get extra work to earn their living and this also took time away from them for lesson preparation. To earn minimal subsistence, teachers either chose to do private tuition or developed their own small businesses. For example, Shamim taught in the day shift in a school in Dhaka city beginning from 12 pm. He said that he taught privately from 7 to 11 am in the morning to get financial solvency. He added that he had to do both to meet bare minimum living expenses. Some other teachers said that they taught privately both before and after school hours. One participant Anisur said that his salary was Tk. 10,000 (\$200). The government gave Tk. 100 (\$2) for house rent where as his house rent was Tk. 15,000 (\$300) which was the average rent of a home in Dhaka. Thus he had to earn extra money to defray the minimum costs of living.

I even cannot afford to pay my house rent with the money I get from the school. It makes me to think about an alternative income and for this, I teach

students private at home. I have to do something additional to make it up.
(Anisur)

In practice, teachers chose to do private tuition where they spent most of their time. "Teachers get very poor salary. They seem busier with earning through private tuition rather than teaching in school. They would rather spend their time and energy on something that would bring 'better' returns to them", Ashish, a teacher of the rural area explained.

Participants mentioned that the salary they received was not enough to cover bare minimum living expenses. Ayesha explained the detail of the salary structure saying that if a teacher had BEd training, s/he started with Tk. 5,100 (\$120). In addition, teachers got Tk. 55 (\$1) for home rental and Tk. 150 (\$3) for tiffin and medical allowance on a monthly basis. Teachers received an increment in salary after every 8 years of service, with two more increments following in the 12th and 15th year in service. A teacher got about Tk 12,000 (\$240) after 10 years of service. Ayesha also mentioned that such payment scale was similar in all public schools and it was not enough for a teacher to survive on modestly.

5.3.1.3. Shortage of Teachers

Shortage of teachers was another major reason that increased the workload of existing teachers. Four teachers in rural areas complained that there were not enough teachers in the school and this shortage of teachers created a vast workload for existing teachers. A school started at 7.30 am and finished at 1pm. Students usually had eight classes every day. Participants revealed that as they had to take six or seven lessons a day including English and other subjects, they got little time to spare for lesson planning and class preparation. Lokman argued: "According to the teacher's guide, teachers need to make lesson plan prior to every class but in reality, we do not get time for that since we have to take many classes everyday".

Teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the state of their workload in some detail. They became exhausted taking one class after another: "A teacher is a human being, not a machine. S/he needs to take rest!", complained Jalal. Another participant, who was the Assistant Head Master of a school in Dhamrai, said that all the teachers including himself were overburdened with workload which stopped him from making lesson plans before going to the class.

As the Assistant Headmaster of this school, I have to do many administrative works. I have to take five classes per day as there is a shortage of teachers. For the workload, I do not get time for preparing myself for the classroom teaching but we were taught to take preparation before teaching when we attended teacher training programs. It takes time to make lesson plans but do we have the time? (Bashar)

Monowar, who had been teaching in a school in Manikganj for 41 years, said that workload of teachers must be reduced for the sake of improving the quality of teaching

The burden teachers have in secondary schools is not bearable. Teaching should not take place the way it has been taking place. It is not possible to improve students' ability because teachers can not teach well as they can not take preparation before going to class. Since a teacher has to take 5 to 6 classes everyday, s/he does not even get the time to think about the class. (Monowar)

Being overburdened with workload further restrained teachers' initiatives and motivation to make lesson plans before class, as suggested in the teacher's guide and practised in the teacher training.

5.4. Summary of Chapter

This chapter has presented participants' views on issues related to the importance of using the new textbook and the teacher's guide. It was found that a host of social, economic and practical factors not only made tasks expected of them difficult, but

rendered them impossible, if they were to follow the textbook as it was intended. This chapter has also presented participants' views on the importance of making lesson plans. With these views from participants, this chapter also discussed how the participants use the textbook and the teacher's guide while teaching in classrooms.

The next chapter, Chapter Six, will focus on the other important aspects of this experience - the teachers' actual pedagogical practices in the classroom. Together with the varied and detailed accounts the teachers provided in support, in defence and in confirmation of their beliefs with regard to their practices and performances, this will provide valuable insight into the operations of how teachers in various ways adopt, adapt and cope with situations that often are neglected or under-addressed in training programs, as discussed in Chapter Three. As it was found, in a number of cases teachers' claims, beliefs and practices are at odds, further problematising the intent of the training programs.

6. Chapter Six

TRANSLATING TRAINING IN THE CLASSROOM

This chapter presents findings on how teachers use the textbook in the class and the various reasons behind their choices. It focuses on several pedagogical aspects of teachers' use of the textbook in class, vis-à-vis the implementation of their training. As previously mentioned, the new textbook specifically focuses on the development of the four macro skills through a communicative platform. This chapter therefore starts with a discussion of how teachers carry out activities involving writing, reading, speaking and listening skills. The way teachers teach grammar is discussed in next section. The following two sections discuss how teachers conduct communicative activities in the class and what language they use for instruction. This discussion gives a critical account of the various practical aspects of the teaching experience of the participant teachers of the current study. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings presented in this chapter.

With regard to the teaching of the four skills, data showed that although almost every chapter in the textbook offered classroom activities involving all four skills, only reading and writing skills were practised in class as intended, while the other two skills were mostly ignored. Again, following the instruction of the textbook, most of the teachers taught grammar implicitly. However, participatory activities rarely took place in these English language classes, even though teachers realised their importance and had a favourable attitude towards communicative activities. Data also revealed that teachers did not always use English as a medium of instruction in the classroom. They mentioned various factors that worked as barriers in implementing the lessons in the manner they learned in training programs. These factors are discussed in detail in this chapter.

6.1. Teaching the Four Skills

The new textbook aims to develop students' language skills in the four macro skills of writing, reading, listening and speaking. The following sections discuss the various aspects of how the teachers taught these four skills in the language classroom.

6.1.1. Teaching Writing

There were activities involving writing skills in all lessons of the textbook and these activities were focused on in all classes of both rural and urban areas. Observation data showed that teachers read the passage comprehension and students then wrote answers to the questions that followed the passage. Teachers often assigned some of the writing activities of every lesson as homework. However, sometimes they practised writing tasks in the class - for example essay writing, paragraph writing or letter writing which are given at the end of every chapter in the textbook.

Although teachers did work on activities that involved writing skills in all classes, there was selectivity in choosing activities for practising writing skills. In some of the classes, teachers practised the same activities again and again leaving some activities totally untouched. They ignored activities like 'poster making', 'picture description', 'filling up survey forms' etc. which they thought were 'not important' as far as the exams were concerned. Later, in interviews, teachers affirmed that they selected only the writing activities which were 'important' for examination and did not practise other activities since those were 'not important in examinations'. When Sajjad was asked if he did warm up activities and poster making, he was quick to reply:

I have not ever done any such activity. We prepare students by teaching certain topics or by doing activities which are considered as important for the examinations such as writing letters and paragraphs as well as answering questions based on paragraphs. (Sajjad)

Jamil, a teacher of a rural school, echoed Sajjad when he said that teachers were expected to focus only on the activities considered important for the exam:

We face pressure from students and parents to emphasise doing activities important for examination, rather than doing all the activities on writing skill and therefore we have to focus on the writing activities which are important for the exams. (Jamil)

Along with the textbook, commercially available guidebooks and test papers were also used to practise writing activities. Teachers taught how to write essays and paragraphs from guidebooks along with the textbook and practised these items from test papers which, as mentioned before, were 'models' of the question papers: "Students have to write letters and paragraphs in examination which can be from the book or from outside the book. We have to teach them how to write those as well" (Shamim). Jamil also noted that possible options for every activity of the textbook were given in these guides. Students practised writing activities like writing letters, paragraphs and essays on various topics from those guidebooks and since teachers themselves emphasised passing the examination or getting a good result, they practised the activities from the guidebooks rather than those in the textbook.

6.1.2. *Teaching Reading*

Activities that involved practising reading skills were focused on in all classes in both rural and urban areas. In all the classes, teachers read aloud the passages which were given at the beginning of every chapter. After reading one or two lines, the teacher explained the meaning in Bangla. Later students were asked to write the answers to the questions given at the end of the passage.

As with other activities in writing mentioned in the previous section, teachers tended to ignore activities which did not 'contribute' directly to passing the exam. Only two out of 26 teachers practised the warm-up activities such as picture description, discussing the topic of the chapter with a partner etc. In one of the observed class sessions, Akbar was

teaching Lesson 7 of Unit 15 (see *Appendix 11*). He started reading the passage to the students skipping the pre-reading activity altogether, which was given at the beginning of the lesson. This pre-reading activity was a guided conversation that was meant to give each student the opportunity to practise dialogue with a partner. After reading the passage, the teacher moved on to the exercises of sections C and D and asked the students to complete the exercises given there. Once this was done, he moved on to the next lesson skipping the exercises of poster making and the speaking activity given in section E and F. Clearly he did not follow the guideline provided in the teacher's guide (see *Appendix 12*). When asked in the post-observation interview why he avoided doing those, he said: "I skipped over these activities because those are not important for the year final examination or SSC exam" (an example of an SSC question paper has been provided in *Appendix 13*). Observations of other classrooms also showed that teachers focused on teaching reading the main passages only, ignoring the warm-up activities all together which are given before the main passages.

In some cases, what teachers claimed in the interviews with regard to their teaching practices, were at odds with the researcher's observations. In other words, data gathered from interview and observation gave two different pictures. For example, before observing her in class, Ayesha was asked how she would teach a lesson in the following class. She said that she would teach the way she taught other lessons. She would talk about the topic first, then she would talk to the students about the picture and read the passage and would ask students to read the passage silently. After reading the passage, she would ask one row of students to read the first paragraph, and then the second row of students would read the second paragraph. She would then ask students if they came across words which seemed difficult to them. She would give them synonyms of different words and move to writing the answers to the questions. That was how, she claimed, she always taught a lesson. However, classroom observation revealed that she talked about the topic first, read the passage, explained the meaning of every sentence and then moved on to the writing section. Students were not asked to read the passage at all. When Ayesha was asked the same question in post-observation interview, she

acknowledged that she was trained to do the pre-reading activities but she did not do those as she was in a rush to complete the syllabus in time. She said:

I know how to do these activities in class and I know the importance of practising these activities but examination is ahead and I have to complete four more lessons before the examination starts. For this, I skipped doing some of the parts of reading section. (Ayesha)

Field notes from most other classroom observations showed similar practices. In a system where both the anticipation and the effect were deemed to be of paramount important, the effects of washback seemed to loom large. Teachers practised only whatever was important for the examination.

6.1.3. *Teaching Speaking*

Teachers acknowledged the importance of the initiative of including speaking activities in the new syllabus and said that the new textbook was organised in a good way, as all four skills had been emphasised all through the book. In every lesson, there was at least one activity which required students to speak in English while doing pair work or group work activities. Most of the activities to develop speaking skills involved students to describe a picture to a friend. Teachers of rural areas appreciated this initiative because they believed this was the only way students of rural areas could practise the skill. As Rahman said "Our students never read newspapers written in English. They do not have computers. They are not exposed to English in their everyday life. Classroom is the only place for practising these activities of the book" (Rahman).

Teachers were unanimous in their opinion that it was very important for students in Bangladesh to be able to speak English fluently. However because the previous textbook did not focus on such activities, students did not get any opportunity to practise speaking skills in class at that time. Aref expressed his understanding of the value of learning English with an emphasis on speaking skills:

Students should learn English. If a person can't speak in English, I don't know how fruitful the language learning will be. There is an increasing demand of people with fluency in spoken English. People need to be able speak English to get a good job but there was no such activity involving speaking skill in the previous book. (Aref)

Even though all teacher-training focused on teaching speaking, among other skills, most teachers did not teach this skill in the language classrooms. It was observed to have been practised in only five out of 26 classes. In classes where speaking was practised, students were asked to do those activities by forming pairs with neighbouring students. Observation notes also showed that in some classes, students often sit passively when they were asked to practise speaking activities with students sitting next to them or in a group. In some classes, teachers practised speaking activities by asking questions from the chapters. In such cases, only one or two students responded. Teachers in two of the cases waited for a minute after asking the question then gave the answer getting no response from the students. In the rest of the observed classes, teachers waited for the answer for some time, then directed the question to particular students sitting in front. In such cases, it appeared that teachers instinctively realised the shortage of time and moved on to the next teaching item.

Students were generally very reluctant to participate in speaking activities. Teachers revealed that they felt frustrated with students' passive roles in the class and with their refusal to speak in English to each other and getting involved in conversations and speaking activities. Rahela noted that it was difficult for teachers to get students involved in these activities. Her opinion was echoed in the following statement of Bashar

Students do not respond, which makes it difficult to practise the speaking activities. Students are usually hesitant in responding. Only good students respond others do not. Most of the students remain silent. If I ask questions to

students in English, out of 75 students, one or two students will answer me. Why should I do these activities if such a small number of students answer me? (Bashar)

The educational background of students and the impact of examinations were two issues mentioned by some teachers as causes for students' reluctance to participate. These issues are discussed in more detail in the next section.

6.1.3.1. Educational Background of Students

From interview data, it appeared that students not having the proficiency to participate in English speaking activities in class and their educational background were the reasons for that. Teachers of rural areas mentioned that students came to the secondary level with a very low proficiency in English. "Their low proficiency stops them from participating in class. Students do not respond in the class because they are weak in English" (Bashar). Teachers attributed students' poor proficiency in English to their primary education and said that the students usually had a small vocabulary and a limited command of English structures when they came to the junior secondary level. They lacked the minimum vocabulary and knowledge of grammar needed to speak in English. To give an example of their proficiency, Anjali said that sixty percent of these students could not write the alphabet properly when they came to the junior secondary level and if teachers asked them to write capital letters, they wrote small letters. If they asked them to write small letters, they wrote capital letters. Teachers noted that although the training and the curriculum focused on teaching speaking skills, they found it difficult to involve students of that level of proficiency doing speaking activities. Anjali argued:

The training I received focused on doing these activities in class and taught us how to do it with students in pair or group but the students in our school have a very poor proficiency in English. They even can't write alphabets properly when they are in junior secondary level. What should we do then? Should we teach

them alphabets or we should teach them the speaking activities of the new syllabus? (Anjali)

Moreover, participants mentioned that in primary education, learning gave strong emphasis on memorisation, imitation and rote practice. Students did not practise such activities at that time. Therefore, by the time students came to the secondary level, they had fully developed and normatively accepted the habit of rote memorisation. As Rahela explained:

Our students did not do many activities in the primary level. They used to memorise things in class which they just reproduced in the exams. This habit of memorisation makes it difficult for the students to talk about a picture when they came to the secondary level. (Rahela)

To improve the situation, Rahela asked for change in the education system by extending the communicative approach to primary education. She explained:

Students need to practise speaking skill while doing communicative activities from the very beginning of their education. They focused on rote memorisation in their primary education. So they do not find it comfortable doing these activities suddenly in their secondary level. (Rahela)

6.1.3.2. Impact of Exams

The current examination system was also reported to be causing students' such passive role. Participants revealed that parents expected a good result from their children in the SSC and students themselves also expected a good result in that exam. Both parents and students therefore want teachers to work on only those activities which are important for them because all that mattered was the exam results. Such expectations deeply implicated teachers' ways of teaching as they focused on writing and reading skills and preferred revising the activities rather than doing other activities not deemed important for the exams. A teacher of a public school, Hafiz, mentioned that it was the

responsibility of the teachers to prepare their students well for the examination. He did not find any reason for practising speaking skills and rather preferred to spend the time doing activities important for the exam. He explained:

We focus on what is important for exam. We want our students to do well in the examination and we work for it. Since only reading and writing are tested in the SSC, students seem reluctant to practise the other two skills. If an activity is not important for the examination, what can be the reason for working on that? (Hafiz)

An analysis of the course outline showed that only reading and writing skills were practised in the class and were tested in the year final examinations of the schools (see *Appendix 10*). Activities involving those two skills were focused on in the planning of the course and the teachers revisited these activities several times. Question papers of past examinations held in these schools also showed that only reading and writing were tested in exams and none of the schools assessed speaking skills. The question pattern of these examinations closely followed the pattern in the SSC examination and since there was no question on listening skills in the SSC exam, these schools did not assess it in any form.

In ELTIP trainings, we were asked to focus on speaking activities while teaching in the class but speaking skill is not tested in exam. The question papers are not made following the training. The question pattern is completely different. (Rahman)

Such difference appeared to have such a huge impact on the relative importance both students and teachers intuitively attached to the skills that teachers asked for a change in the assessment system. They thought that the weakest part of the current education system was the mismatch between teaching and testing. Sajjad opined that teachers could not implement what they learnt in teacher training in the class: "The training cannot be successfully implemented in the classroom until and unless a change is

brought to the assessment system. When students will feel bound to speaking in English, teachers will also be bound to teaching in English" (Sajjad). Teachers' concerns were also reflected on Hafiz's voice when he mentioned:

Proficiency in speaking skill should be tested in the SSC examination. We can't force students to speak in English. If students took test on speaking, they would have had spoken English. Unless it is tested, neither the teachers nor the students will feel interested to do the activities on speaking skills.
(Hafiz)

It was therefore apparent that the question pattern of the SSC examination made students reluctant to do speaking activities and caused teachers to neglect performing speaking activities in the class in favour of the 'more important skills'.

6.1.4. Teaching Listening

Participants similarly acknowledged the importance of practising listening activities while learning English and appreciated the government's initiative to include it in the new syllabus. They also noted that they learnt how to do these activities in the training. Rubaba said:

I never practised listening comprehension when I was a student and never taught it before the new syllabus was launched. It is a big change from the previous syllabus. In every lesson of the textbook, there is at least one activity which requires students to practise listening skill of English. (Rubaba)

However, the field notes taken during classroom observation showed that out of 26 classes observed, activities involving listening skills were not conducted in any of the classes. Teachers mentioned that it was difficult to teach these activities in class. They mentioned the following two issues as reasons for not doing such activities in class.

6.1.4.1. Impact of Exam

Impact of the examination, again, was one of the reasons that made students reluctant to do listening activities. As was found in the speaking activities, students did not want to do listening activities since these were not tested in the SSC examination and therefore “were not important for exam” (Lokman). Rahman also pointed out that the examination caused students’ reluctance to be taught: “Students always put focus on getting a good outcome for the results. That is why listening activities seemed less important to students. Whatever activity we do, students ask us ‘is it important for exams?’” (Rahman).

Teachers asked for changes in the current examination format in order to take into account these problems and to make it easier for them to do those activities in class. They said that if the testing of listening skill were included in the SSC exams, it would be easier for teachers to motivate students to practise this skill. They noted that a change in examination could change English teaching in a major way, as Asif said:

If listening were tested in the SSC, activities to practise this skill would have been taught in schools. If at least, a small mark was allotted for the listening skill, both students and teachers would have felt interested to learn these two skills. Since they do not carry any score, they are not interested to practise it in the class. (Asif)

6.1.4.2. Student Attitude to Education

In addition, students’ attitude to education was another reason that made teachers avoid these activities. Teachers in rural areas stated that their students did not come from well-off families and boys of these areas preferred to earn money rather than study at school since their focus was on earning money, not education. They often remained absent, especially in the harvesting season, when they spent time working in the fields. Teachers complained that such students showed reluctance to all learning. Moreover, since they were irregular, they just wanted to learn things that were important for the examination

and this made them unwilling to do listening activities. Teachers of rural areas also noted that the sole focus of girls in rural areas was to get married and for this they focused on getting a pass mark in the exam. A 'pass' in the SSC gave them a higher position as a bride in society and helped them to get a good groom as parents would like their sons to get married to educated girls. Girls were considered 'educated' simply if they passed the SSC, because it was the first public certificate examination. While talking about student attitudes towards learning, Anjali, a teacher in a girls' school in rural area Savar explained:

Girls are not interested about study at all. Their focus is on marriage, not on education. They just want to get a pass mark. Marriage is considered more important than study by girls in rural areas of Bangladesh. Students' focus on getting a pass mark makes them reluctant doing activities to develop listening skills. (Anjali)

Lokman, a teacher with five years' teaching experience in a girls' school in Dhamrai, said that they did not do the listening activities and could not implement the training they received on practising these activities since they did not find the students interested in doing these activities at all. He said:

If we want to do listening activities, girls tell us "Sir, we do not need to work on this activity since it is not important for the examination. We better do the ones important for the SSC exam". Student attitude influences teachers' teaching practice. Since they are not interested, we do not feel interested either to do those activities with them. (Lokman)

6.1.4.3. Lack of Equipment

Lack of necessary equipment also worked as a hindrance in practising of listening skills activities. Most of the teachers found it problematic to read the passages given in the teacher's guide in a class which usually consists of 70-80 students who were supposed to

do the exercises after listening to the passages. Teachers mentioned that it was difficult for all students, especially those who sat at the back of the room to listen to the teachers, even if they read it loud. One of the participants, Shamim, said that if he read the passages for doing listening activities, not all students of such a large class would be able to listen to him and this would cause disruption:

Students who sit around me will only listen, other students will talk to each other and make noise. For this, I do not do these activities. If there were 25-30 students or even if there were 40 students in the class, I would have tried. I can not do these activities with 76 students. Does not matter how loud I read—it is not possible for 76 students to listen to me! (Shamim)

Arrangements for equipment such as microphones or CD players would have helped the teachers to solve the problem. They talked about the necessity of having a microphone to do listening activities in such large classes. Observation showed that except for one school in Dhaka, no other school could provide microphones in the class. Two teachers also talked about the necessity of having a CD or a cassette with the text book in order to practise the listening activities. They thought that this would have made the students interested in doing these activities since they would have been able to listen to the corresponding audio in that case. "I think that it would have been much better if the listening passages were provided in a cassette. Students would have felt interested in that situation" (Asif).

Thus, an exploration on practising the four skills revealed that although in almost every chapter there were activities on all the four skills of language i.e. reading, writing, speaking and listening, data show that only reading and writing skills were practised in class while the other two skills were mostly ignored. Teachers skipped practising these two skills for the various reasons mentioned above.

6.2. Teaching Grammar

Following the instruction given in the textbook and suggestions provided in teacher training, most of the teachers taught grammar in an implicit form, where the primary focus was drawn towards the activity and not the grammar point. They taught the grammar through doing the activities with an emphasis on function rather than on form. In a class session, Belal was teaching Lesson 1 of Unit 4 from the textbook. Students were supposed to learn the use of 'going to' according to the lesson chart given at the beginning of the book. After the main passage of the lesson, a list was given of some of the things a girl wanted to buy before going overseas and Belal asked the students to write sentences using each of the things mentioned in the list. This manner of his teaching reflected the teaching of most of the teachers. Later he revealed that he followed the lesson he learnt in ELTIP training program as he said:

We are trained to teach grammar in context where the grammatical rules are hidden from the learners and they are asked to do exercises or activities involving one or more particular grammatical features. The question pattern on grammar in SSC examination also follows this pattern. For this, I teach grammar in that way. (Belal)

However, observations revealed that two participants - Sharif and Jamil were teaching grammar explicitly by taking examples from other grammar books. They paid considerable attention to explaining discreet grammatical points, which they did in Bangla. When they were asked the reason for that in the post-observation interview, Sharif revealed that teaching grammar in an implicit way was a new approach and both found it difficult to accept the change:

It is a very big change from the previous book. It is difficult to adopt such a big change. Change should take place gradually. We learn to walk before we start running. Change should take place in an acceptable manner. There

should not be any revolutionary change. The implementers find this difficult to implement. (Sharif)

For Sharif, there were not enough exercises with grammatical structure and he found it difficult to teach them in an implicit way. He was not happy with the grammatical items of this new text book as he noted that more exercises on grammar needed to be included in the book: "There is no activity to practise grammar in this textbook. It would have been better if there were grammar exercises in this book" (Sharif). He noted that there was a focus on teaching grammar structures and doing grammatical activities in the previous book. Teachers were thus used to teaching language through teaching the grammar explicitly. He further said that he found it difficult to teach English without teaching grammar, although he admitted to be learned how to teach grammar in context in the ELT training he received.

The other participant, Jamil, stated that grammar teaching had long become a norm in language teaching. Since the previous system focused on grammar teaching, people believed that grammar teaching was all that language teaching meant and students would not believe that the teachers were teaching properly if teachers did not focus on practicing grammar activities in class. He mentioned:

Student cannot believe that English can be learnt without learning grammar explicitly because they are quite used to learning grammar. They cannot accept the change. If we do not teach them explicit grammatical items, they will not value our teaching. They will think we cannot teach them English properly. (Jamil)

Thus while most of the teachers taught grammar implicitly following the instruction of the textbook, two teachers still felt the need to teach grammar explicitly. It was a continuation of the traditional way of teaching with which teachers were already comfortably familiar.

6.3. Working Communicatively in the Classroom

The new textbook emphasises practising students' ability to communicate rather than just mastering the structure of the English language. Participant teachers appreciated this as they argued that the prime focus of language teaching should be on building communicative skills which were relevant to perform real-life tasks rather than on teaching discreet grammatical items, as discussed in the previous section. Students needed to know how to communicate in English to a get job in today's world.

We need to make our students able to compete in the world of job and students need to know how to communicate rather than just knowing the structure of a sentence. The activities of this book teach how to communicate on everyday basis. I think this sort of activities is very important for the Bangladeshi context. (Ashish)

Teachers appreciated the inclusion of communicative activities as they said students enjoyed doing those activities while also helping them develop their speaking skills. They revealed that working in small groups and pair activities was the most common strategy used in this book and in every lesson, there was more than one activity involving students in pair work or group work. Bashar mentioned that within a short time, teachers could develop the speaking skills of the students with the help of doing these activities. Asif agreed with Bashar and he further added that students enjoyed doing pair work and group work activities:

These activities are very interesting and I think students get much pleasure while working in groups or pairs. Students' proficiency in speaking English might develop if they work in such pairs or groups. By doing communicative activities, we can help the students to remove their shyness and inertia for which they can not speak smoothly and spontaneously. (Asif)

Despite the explicitly communicative intent and approach adopted in the new textbook, not all the teachers involved students in interaction in the classroom. In seven of the 26 classes, teachers initiated communicative activities by involving students in pair work activities which were the pre-reading and the post-reading activities to practise speaking skills. Students were asked to talk to other students in pairs or groups. The pre-reading activities mostly involved students describing pictures while in the post-reading activities, students were asked to talk about a topic discussed in the main passage of the lesson. In one of the observed classes, while teaching Lesson 3 of Unit 4, students were also asked to do role play through dialogues between a travel agent and a client.

However, most teachers displayed traditional teaching styles in the classrooms. The classes were frontal, lecture-type, teacher-centred with little interaction between teacher and students. A major proportion of class time was composed of teacher talk and there was very little use of the board. Teachers read through the textbook aloud to students and sometimes translated some parts into Bangla. Many times teachers addressed questions to the whole class or individual students. The same one or two students from the entire class provided the answers every time. Later, students were asked to read the passage by themselves. Thus most of the students kept silent all the time of the class. They interacted neither with teachers nor with their peers. Lokman said: "Before the new curriculum, we used to teach different lessons using different books. Now we teach lessons of the new textbook but the style is same". The following table shows the teaching techniques in the observed classes:

Teaching Techniques	Number
Lecture	24
Group work/Pair Work	6
Role Play	1
All of the above	1

Table 5: Teaching Methods Used in Observed English Classes

When the teachers were asked why they still emphasised giving 'lectures' instead of doing communicative activities, except for two teachers, all said that they found it 'difficult' to do these activities in class and implement what they learned in teacher training programs. They pointed out the following four factors as constraints in conducting communicative activities.

6.3.1. *Class Size and Seating Arrangements*

Class size and seating arrangements worked as two major constraints in teachers' attempts to use pair work or group work activities. They complained that the student-teacher ratio per class was not favourable for conducting a communicative class successfully. Teachers had to teach many students in a class as the average number of students in classrooms was 70-80. Bashar, a teacher of a rural school, said that there were usually 60 students in one class but sometimes they had to teach larger classes. The number came to 120 when they had to combine 2 classes. They had to do this sometimes since they had a shortage in the number of subject teachers.

In such a large class, teachers found it difficult to teach communicative activities following the teacher's guide and implementing the lessons they learned in training programs in such a large class. In most of the classes, during classroom observation, teachers addressed a small group of students and it was inaudible to the rest of the students. The questions asked at one end of the room could not be heard from the back, where the researcher often sat during the observation sessions. It was difficult to hear what the teacher was saying beyond the second or third row. Students who sat in the front benches answered the questions of the teachers as they were better able to hear what the teachers said and saw what they wrote on the board. Shamim argued that he found it difficult doing communicative activities in large classes:

It would have been possible doing the activities following the teacher's guide if there were 25 to 40 students in a class. How can I do communicative activities

with such a large number of students? When we have such large classes, we have to teach following the traditional way by giving lectures. (Bashar)

The incongruity and mismatch between the context of the training and the actual classroom made it difficult for teachers to implement what they learned in training programs which was recurrently brought up by participants in a number of interviews. Bashar talked about the difference in the environment between training and the actual classroom. He said that it was easy to teach the things in training but he found it difficult to teach these things once back in the actual classroom, as the number of students was much higher than the number of trainees. "In ELTIP training, we were taught to do group work activities but it is not possible for us to use it practically" (Bashar). Anisur also talked about a similar situation as he said that when he attended ELTIP training, there were 40 trainees in his group. The trainers did group work involving 40 trainees in a 90 minute long class but teachers, as Anisur argued, got 30 minutes in a class. If they divided 70 students into groups of five students, there would be 14 groups and this arrangement itself would take a long time. The class would be over by the time the teachers finished making groups.

Participatory activities also caused noise, which created another problem doing communicative activities in large classrooms. Teachers argued that if everyone started talking in a class while doing pair work or group work activities, the class would become very noisy and teachers and students from the next classroom would complain. Since classes were very large in Bangladesh, if the teacher asked students to get involved in pair work, only students who were around the teacher would do that, others would not. They would talk to each other and it would create noise as Sajjad, a teacher with ten years teaching experience pointed out: "The classroom environment is not very congenial to use this textbook. If students start working in groups, the classroom becomes noisy which disturbs adjacent classes" (Sajjad). Moreover, any noise was considered as objectionable by the Head Masters of the schools. A quiet classroom was more important than an interactive one. In this regard Ayesha said:

We have to remain concerned about many things. We cannot do something that creates chaos in the class. The Head Master does not care about whether or not I am doing pair work or group work activities. He pays more attention to discipline and is only interested in students' high scores in the exam. (Ayesha)

Sajjad also pointed out how pair work and group work activities created noise and said how such activities were different in the ELT training:

When we learnt doing group work activities in the CLT course, it was not that noisy. The trainee teachers talked only about the topic they were asked to talk about but it does not happen in the class in similar way. Students start talking about various other topics. They talk about CDs, pictures and create noise. That is why we can not do pair work or group work activities in the class. (Sajjad)

A class with fewer students would have helped teachers doing these activities as large class size was a major deterrent to participatory activities. Participants noted that according to the government mandate, there should be at least 65 students in one class whereas previously there used to be 40 students in a class. They criticised this government mandate and complained that such an increase in the number of students made it difficult to arrange so many students into workable groups. The government did not allow schools to have more classrooms and so there were too many students in each class. Participants from public and MPO schools said that the problem was even greater there. In those schools, they had to go by the government regulation as they got the payment from the government: "If the Ministry of Education allow more teachers and more sections in one class, it would have helped a lot to teach the students appropriately" (Sharif). The rules about number of students did not allow teachers to practise communicative activities with them in the class.

A class should be consisting of fewer students if I want to do these activities in class. The authority does not allow making extra section and taking teachers for the sections. If we have appropriate number of sections, there will be 40 or

45 students in each class and we will be able to practise communicative activities with the students that time. (Jamil)

The seating arrangement in a typical Bangladeshi classroom is also not appropriate for doing pair work and group work activities. Observations revealed and participants mentioned that students sit on long wooden benches which line up and are bolted to the floor facing the blackboard, while over crowded classes make it difficult for teachers to move around among the desks, as Anjali said: "There is hardly any space for the teachers to move around and see what the students are doing" (Anjali).

Differences in seating arrangements between the training centre and the classroom made it difficult to implement the lessons learned in the training programs. Ashish talked about the 'impracticality' of the lesson they learned in the training programs. He explained how the pair work and group work activities in the real classroom setting were different from those practised in ELTIP training:

In ELTIP training, we used to sit on single chair and table, so when we were asked to do pair work, we used to turn around the chair. This is not possible in our school because the seating arrangement is not appropriate for these sorts of activities. We have to make them sit together. They need to discuss. Teacher needs to move in the class to see what they do. (Ashish)

He further added that the training programs did not help them to teach in the classroom: "We developed the theoretical knowledge in ELTIP but it is not possible to apply the knowledge in practical situation" (Ashish). Such mismatch between training and teaching practice appeared to be a persistent and recurrent concern for all teachers in the interviews.

6.3.2. *Lack of Training*

Lack of adequate and proper training was another reason behind not doing communicative activities in class. Some of the participants said that although all teachers who were teaching English in the secondary level in Bangladesh received BEd training,

they needed to have training on teaching English using the communicative approach to be able to teach in the way suggested in the new curriculum. Even though such training programs had been arranged by ELTIP, and other organisations, not all teachers were lucky enough to have received such training: "The book is very good and only a properly trained teacher can teach it" (Bashar).

English teachers in rural areas did not always get training on the communicative approach. Participants mentioned that the teachers in remote rural areas could not go for training due to the inadequacy and mismanagement of the training organisers. The training programs were organised when schools were open and due to the shortage in number of teachers, Principals of schools in rural areas did not want to send their teachers for training:

Teacher training should be provided to the teachers of all areas in our country. Teachers outside urban areas rarely get ELT training. The rural schools do not have enough teachers so it is not always possible to send teachers for training. These teachers are lagging behind the teachers of urban areas. If we want to develop the teaching quality, we have to train all the teachers irrespectively. (Amrin)

However, even though most of the urban teachers and some rural teachers did receive training, the teaching practices of these trained teachers were not observed at any point in the training or later by the trainers. Bashar talked about the necessity of having follow-ups in order to reinforce what teachers learnt in training as it was not known whether the teachers went back to their previous teaching methods or taught in the new way after they returned:

Teachers should be trained first, then there should be follow ups after the training programs. None of the training programs had any follow up. It would have been better if we had such follow up. The organisers of the training

programs do not know how the trained teachers are actually teaching in the classroom. (Bashar)

6.3.3. *Students' Reluctance to Participate*

Students' reluctance to participate also made it difficult for teachers to implement interactive activities in the class. They noted that students were accustomed to the traditional classroom structure and that deep-seated tradition of learning made it almost impossible for teachers to implement what they learnt in teacher training programs. It created difficulty for the teachers to get the students to participate in class activities. They also added that students either did not respond to the teacher's instruction or they merely chatted with each other when asked to communicate with peers in the classroom.

Students' insistence to focus on examination results made them reluctant to get involved in any kind of participatory activity. Teachers revealed that students were only interested in practising activities important for the exam. They believed that doing activities in the communicative approach would not bring them good marks and for this, they did not seem to be interested in doing anything communicative. Shamim, a teacher of a school in an urban area, mentioned that if teachers in his school asked students to get involved in participatory activities, students would complain that the school would be closing in a few days and they did not understand the passage, so they did not have the time to practise the model questions. As a result, teachers moved to the next passage which was important for the examination and therefore they seldom practised these exercises. Shamim further said that even after learning how to do communicative activities and having a positive attitude towards it, they could still not do this in every class.

We learned how to do pair work activities in the teacher training program, we know the importance of doing warm-up activities but sometimes we have to skip those because the students are not interested to do these activities since these are not important for the SSC examination. (Shamim)

It appeared that despite teachers' acknowledgement of the importance of conducting communicative activities in the class, students' examination-oriented goals prevented them from participatory activities, thereby defeating some of the key goals of the training.

6.3.4. *Preference for Traditional Teaching*

Teachers' preference for the traditional rote teaching style was another significant issue that hindered practising communicative activities in some of the classes. Data gathered through interviews revealed that three teachers often found it convenient and felt comfortable teaching in the traditional rote-based grammar translation method with which they were very well familiar. Two of these teachers taught in the rural area and one in the urban area. They said that they were unwilling to abandon the tradition of giving lectures in class all the time. They mentioned that it was easier to continue teaching using traditional methods which they were more comfortable with. Also in this way teachers could control the students by keeping them quiet since students did not get a chance to talk and they had to listen to the teacher. One participant put it nicely saying:

The training programs taught us many lessons but we do not implement what we learn there. It is comfortable to teach English in the traditional method. We do not want to leave our comfort zone breaking the egg crates we have been living in for a long time. (Anjali)

This section has shown that even though teachers learned how to do communicative activities in training programs and most of them had a favourable attitude towards the new way of teaching and learning, due to several unavoidable reasons they often could not put to practice the guidelines suggested and endorsed in their training. Class size and seating arrangements acted as constraints for teachers in implementing communicative activities and most teachers found it difficult to get the students to participate in class activities. Moreover, some teachers themselves still had no intention of moving away

from previous teaching practices. As a result, although the policy and textbooks had moved towards a communicative approach, data reveal that in practice there had not been a great deal of change from the previous teaching style.

6.4. Language of Instruction

English was not used as the sole medium of instruction to teach the textbook in the class even though this was emphasised in all the training programs. The new curriculum emphasises making English the language of the classroom in order to practise and develop the language skills of the students. Classrooms observations showed that teachers outside urban areas taught almost totally in Bangla, three teachers in the urban area taught in English in all their classes, while other teachers in the urban areas used both Bangla and English while teaching. After reading a passage from the text book, teachers translated it into Bangla and whenever they asked students any questions in English, they immediately translated that passage into Bangla. During the observation of the class of Amrin, a teacher in the rural area, the researcher found her using English all the time but when she asked the students to do something, none of the students understood. The teacher had to translate that into Bangla and only then could the students understand her instructions.

Teachers mentioned two reasons for using Bangla in the classroom. – the language proficiency of the teachers themselves and the language proficiency of the students. These two issues are discussed in more detail in the following two sections.

6.4.1. Language Proficiency of Teachers

In some classes, teachers' own inability to speak in English worked as a hindrance to using English as a medium of instruction. It appeared that teacher's academic background and their choice of profession caused such inability to use English language in classrooms. Shamim said that often an English teacher was a graduate in a different subject and found it difficult to instruct students in English. He added that he did his

Bachelors in Political Science and he never had to speak English in the class and so as an English teacher he found it difficult to speak English fluently to his students.

Political factors seemed to be the reason behind the insufficient English skills of some teachers. They reported that in some cases people not qualified enough to become English teachers got the appointment since they got recommendation from local influential people. These teachers found it difficult to teach in the English language. As Hafiz mentioned, the political leaders and rich people of the locality who were in charge of the School Management Committee (SMC), exerted a lot of influence in the recruitment of new teachers. He noted that some of the teachers in rural areas got appointed on the basis of their good connection with the influential people of the local community. Even if those teachers were not capable to teach, the Principal had to retain them due to political reasons. The Principal could not dismiss them because such decision might implicate his/her job as member of the school management committee would, in that case, go against the Principal. Such administrative politics seemed to work behind appointing under-qualified teachers which implicated the teaching practices.

On the other hand, people with good academic backgrounds (often with proficiency in English) did not take teaching up as a profession and this also worked as another reason for most teachers not being able to teach in English. Participants stated that school teachers are paid very low in Bangladesh although teachers of urban areas could still supplement income by doing private tuition. However, teachers of rural areas did not often get any such opportunity as their students did not come from wealthy families. As a result, teachers were low earning people in rural areas which made people with good academic background reluctant about taking up teaching as a profession in these areas. Kabir, who had been teaching in a school in rural Comilla for 18 years said:

We don't have good teachers in these rural areas. Most of the teachers who teach English had a course on English in BEd. In this school, you can not expect an English teacher who completed Bachelors with honours and Masters in

English. People with good academic background do not take teaching as a profession because teachers do not get good salary. These people opt for professions other than teaching. (Kabir)

In order to compensate for such lack of proficiency in English, teachers resorted to using Bangla as a more convenient medium of instruction, both for themselves and for their students.

6.4.2. *Language Proficiency of Students*

In addition, even if teachers were proficient enough in using English in class, students' low proficiency in English sometimes worked as a barrier for teachers in using English as the only language of instruction. Six participants mentioned that students' English language proficiency was too low for them to be able to understand the teachers if they had taught in English and therefore they chose to teach in Bangla. Rahman, a teacher of Dhaka city, taught in both Bangla and English. Later he said "Classes are held in both Bangla and English so that the students can comprehend better" (Rahman). Hafiz also said that the reason of teaching in Bangla was to make things comprehensible to the students:

According to the new textbook, we are supposed to teach in English in classroom. ELTIP training emphasised this point. After receiving the training, I started trying to take classes in English but I found that students could not understand me if I spoke in English. Gradually, I left the habit of teaching in English. If students can not understand English, what is the point of teaching in English? (Hafiz)

Data showed that while teaching in the classroom, Shamim explained the meanings of new words in Bangla. When he was asked the reason for that, he gave an example and said "'carols' means 'song' but it will be difficult for many students to understand the meaning if I say it in English" (Shamim).

Such low English proficiency of secondary school students can be attributed to two reasons discussed in the next sections.

6.4.2.1. Socio-Economic Background of Students

The socio-economic status of the students in rural areas appeared to be a major reason for the low proficiency of the students. Kabir, a teacher in the rural area, said that since students in these areas came from under privileged and uneducated poor families, they did not find anyone at home to help them learn English and they got little exposure to English language outside the classroom. "Students are from poor and uneducated family. If they could learn English at home, they would have improved their proficiency in that language" (Kabir). Moreover, as argued by two other teachers of rural areas, since the parents in rural areas were poor, they could not afford to spend money for private tuition. Therefore, students did not find any place other than the school to develop their English language skills. Such insufficient scope of practising English, especially for students in the rural areas, contributed to teachers having to resort to Bangla as a medium of instruction in the classroom.

All of the three teachers compared students of rural areas with students of urban areas. According to these teachers, students of urban areas got help from their parents at home and since parents could spend money for private tuition of the children, students also found places outside school where they practised English. However, the situation was quite different in rural areas where most of the parents were uneducated farmers and could therefore not provide any academic support to their children at home. In many situations, their son or daughter was the first person in his/her family to get an education. School was the only place where students learned English as they did not get any help from their home or family and neither could they go for private tuition as students in urban areas did. This was voiced as a major issue of concern for all participant teachers in rural areas.

6.4.2.2. Administrative Issues in School

Due to certain administrative issues, students with low proficiency in the English language skill kept getting promoted to the next level year after year. Teachers of rural schools emphasised the fact that students' level of proficiency in English was particularly low in schools situated in rural areas of the country. Most of the students failed in Mathematics and English. Ashish explained that they still had to promote these students who failed in those two subjects because if teachers stopped promoting them, the guardians would stop their education altogether. Schools could not run in such a situation and moreover, if they were not promoted, the parents would request the management committee to promote them to the next level and the committee would pressurise the teachers anyway. Therefore the students who were not qualified enough kept getting promoted to the next level and in these ways students of rural schools could never improve their proficiency in English no matter which grade they were studying in. Teachers of rural areas considered these reasons as major hindrances in developing the proficiency of students in rural areas.

This section has shown that although the new curriculum emphasises the use of English in the language classroom, the observation notes revealed that teachers did not always use English in practice in the classroom. Participants mentioned that teachers' and students' low proficiency created barriers in using English as a medium of instruction in classrooms, a problem which originated from a range of socio-economic and political - administrative factors.

6.5. Summary of Chapter

This chapter has presented some important aspects of teachers' pedagogical practice and their views on issues related to the teacher training they received in terms of how and what use they made of it in their actual classroom teaching practices. It can be seen that while some issues have been emphasised in training programs since they are included in the new syllabus, contextual factors have not been taken into account, resulting in a

situation in which these trained teachers are left with no choice but to cope with the situation by themselves, each devising their own often idiosyncratic and unique ways of adapting to the situation. Despite the odds, it is remarkable the way teachers have always made the best of the situation and the demands made by a host of social, political, educational, institutional and economic issues, constantly imposing on the teaching scenario. At the same time, participants' views on using English as a medium of instruction provide a wide array of differences in the ways in which teachers have tried to compromise between what they are expected to do and coping with the differing competence levels of students across a wide range of settings in Bangladesh.

The next chapter, Chapter Seven, will focus on the discussion of the research findings which have been presented in this chapter as well as in Chapter Five.

7. Chapter Seven

DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter discusses the research findings of the study in the light of the literature review on curriculum innovation and its implementation as presented in Chapter Three. It begins with a discussion on the initiative of introducing the textbook and teacher training as the twin vehicles for curricular innovation in Bangladesh. Taking into account interview data coupled with observation, the next section discusses factors that were found to affect teacher's textbook use and hinder changes in classroom teaching. The next two sections explore factors that cause differences in teaching between rural and urban areas and examine the gulf between the policy and practice of teaching in Bangladesh. The following section then discusses the appropriateness of teacher training arranged for the English teachers to teach the textbook effectively. In line with the principal concern of this thesis, the chapter concludes with exploring the disparity between policy and practice in Bangladesh.

7.1. Textbook and Teacher Training: Vehicles for Curriculum Implementation

7.1.1. Textbook

A textbook is considered to be an important strategy to implement a new curriculum (Fullan, 2001) and has been introduced in many places where curriculum innovation in English language teaching has taken place (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Richards, 1998). As has been mentioned in Chapter One, the textbook *English for Today*, introduced in Bangladesh as part of the new curriculum, is an essential teaching material in teaching English in Classes 9 and 10 in Bangladesh. The claim of Hutchinson and Torres (1994) that a textbook makes teaching easier, better organised and more convenient was clearly reflected in the opinion of the teachers. They stated the importance of using the textbook as the sole teaching material because of the 'organised way' in which it was designed. Furthermore, participants said that *English for Today* used a wide array of topics and themes that covered different issues and events as well as knowledge of different

disciplines and subjects. Students of secondary level would find these topics interesting and would be able to relate to them from their familiarity with the context. Many authentic resources were used in this text, for example, advertisements from newspapers, loan application forms and news paper articles. Participants also claimed that the use of these authentic resources was an entirely new feature in the textbook.

The new textbook focused on all the four skills of English language i.e. reading, writing, speaking and listening and this feature clearly distinguished it from the previous textbook. Students were encouraged to actively participate in activities which involved all the four skills from the very beginning of the textbook. Participants were unanimous in their opinion that it was very important for students in Bangladesh to be able to speak English fluently. The previous textbook did not focus on such activities and therefore students did not get any opportunity to practise speaking skills in class at that time. Teachers noted that it is this attention to oral communication skills that distinguished this text book from the earlier one. The inclusion of communicative activities was considered as another important reason for using the new textbook as there are many activities in this textbook to involve students in communicating with each other. Teachers appreciated the inclusion of these communicative activities as they believed their students enjoyed doing those activities and it could help them develop their speaking skills. As we have seen, in addition to the four macro skills, this book also focuses on developing grammar and vocabulary.

However, although teachers expressed their positive attitude towards using the new textbook and its contents, observation revealed that in the classroom, especially in the rural schools in Bangladesh, both students and teachers relied heavily on locally produced bi-lingual guide books and notebooks with readymade answers and explanations of grammatical structures.

A teacher's guide was also published as part of the curriculum innovation in Bangladesh. The guide aimed to help teachers in planning lessons and provided answers to the exercises in the textbook. Details of teaching and learning activities for

the teachers according to the new examination formats were provided with suggested methods and time allotment for individual activities. It was intended that teachers would follow the guide while teaching the text. Such guides are published "to establish a direct link to teachers and clarify their intentions to them" (Shkedi, 1995, p. 155).

Data reveal that teachers found the teacher's guide helpful in a number of ways. Most of the teachers said that the guide helped them to understand more about the topic and how it was to be taught. It also helped them by showing ways of organising content for instruction. Some teachers also stated that while they needed to spend time on making practice material, the teacher's guide helped them readily obtain these materials. This was an important function of the teacher's guide in a system where time constraints severely affected not only classroom teaching, but also teachers' preparation time.

However, teachers did not follow the teacher's guide as intended. Indeed, most of the teachers were skeptical regarding the practicality of using the guide. According to these participants, the guide was very helpful in guiding how to teach the textbook but it was not possible to teach all the activities of the textbook according to the guidelines provided. For those, who did use the teacher's guide, difference was also found in frequency of using it. Two of the 26 participants said that they used it regularly, nine did not use the textbook 'everyday', while 15 out of the 26 participants did not use the guide at all. This last group did not find the teacher's guide appropriate for the teaching context in Bangladesh.

7.1.2. Teacher Training

Along with the publication of the textbook and the teacher's guide, numerous training programs have been arranged to implement the new curriculum. The English course in Bachelor in Education (BE_{Ed}) and other training programs such as the Communicative English Course (CEC), ELTIP Training, and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) arranged for English language teachers, provided teachers with professional training to build their understanding of the communicative approach and focused on how to

handle the new textbook efficiently. The new recommended teaching approach strategy was a radical departure from the previous grammar based teaching. Carless (1997) argues that teachers need to be retrained with new skills and knowledge, particularly when the required methodology is highly different from the existing one. Since the new textbook emphasises teaching English for communication focusing on all the four skills of English (rather than rote learning), teachers needed to be retrained to be able to teach the new textbook. All training courses arranged for English language teachers in Bangladesh, aimed to enable trainees to understand the importance of using the textbook to meet the demands imposed by curriculum innovation in secondary education. The use of the teacher's guide was also covered in these training programs so that the teachers could understand its aims, themes, and objectives, as well as the management of the various skill-practice activities in the lesson.

However, although training was arranged to help teachers implement the newly introduced curriculum, the current study showed that teachers did not teach the textbook according to the suggestions of the teacher's guide and did not always follow what was emphasised in training programs in this regard. They mentioned various reasons which hindered their implementation of lessons as learned in training. The next sections consider these factors in detail.

7.2. Factors Influencing Implementation

Through interviews and observation, this study revealed that there were various challenges which did not allow teachers to carry out all the activities of the textbook and to implement what they learnt in teachers training program as intended. They had to work within a setting which was shaped by a number of factors which neither the design of the textbook nor the training programs took into consideration. The literature also shows that training does not always help teachers implement new teaching strategies. In their efforts to translate theory into practice, teachers encounter obstacles of various types (Hu, 1992; Li, 2001; Markee, 1997). Participants of this study pointed out various socio-cultural issues that work as constraints in curriculum innovation. While some of the factors identified in this study were previously identified by researchers in

other contexts (see Chapter 3), some new factors emerged as unique to the Bangladeshi context. Following the divisions proposed by Kennedy (1988), the following section presents and discusses these factors under five main categories: cultural, political, administrative, educational and institutional.

7.2.1. Educational Factors

One of the most pronounced hindrances teachers complained of appeared to be the very format of the academic sessions and the competence level of both teachers and students. It was found that while the curricular innovation introduced major changes in the content of education, little regard was paid to how the school and public exams, in terms of expectation and timing, influenced the way both students and teachers would respond to the changes.

7.2.1.1. Impact of Exam

Even though the goal of the new curriculum is to teach students how to communicate focusing on all the four skills of the English language, the questions of the exam do not reinforce this goal. As a result, teachers could not do the activities suggested to improve listening and speaking skills in the class. Although in almost every chapter there were activities on all the four skills of language and the training programs taught the teachers to teach those lessons, teachers focused only on reading and writing skills activities. The absence of activities on listening and speaking skills in practice made both teachers and students avoid learning these two skills altogether. Accordingly, although the new textbook had been in operation since 2002, classroom teaching practice showed an 'extreme form of negative washback' (Wall & Alderson, 1993, p. 47) by focusing on just two skills i.e. writing and reading. Teachers constantly faced pressure from students and parents alike to emphasise doing the activities important for the final examination, rather than doing communicative activities. Since students' scores in the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) were related to the reputation of the school, teachers' main concern was always to teach whatever was important for the exam. They were caught

up in a 'score-boosting obsession' (Popham, 2001), with a corresponding indifference towards the objectives of both the training and the new curriculum.

In other words, teachers' major focus and primary duty was to help the students score well on the SSC examination as it is a high-stake test in Bangladesh- the results of which were an issue of prestige for the teachers, parents and the students in Bangladeshi society. According to Wall and Alderson (1993), such circumstances result in leading teachers to "teach to the test with an undesirable narrowing of the curriculum" (p. 118). This situation is reflected in literature (Crocker, 2005; Popham, 2001; Shohamy et al. 1996; Spratt, 2005), as it shows that high-stakes tests affect teaching by narrowing the curriculum. As an impact of a high-stake test, teachers choose "teaching to the test as the ultimate goal" (Luxia, 2005; p. 164) in the classical manner of washback.

As an impact of exam, teachers therefore selected activities of only two skills which they practised in class. They prepared students by teaching certain topics or by doing activities which were important for the examinations such as writing letters and paragraphs and answers based on paragraphs, while ignoring activities such as 'poster making', 'picture description', 'filling up survey forms' etc which were 'not important' as far as the exams were concerned. Teachers taught how to write essays and paragraphs from guidebooks along with the textbook. While practising reading skills, only two out of 26 participants practised the warm-up activities such as picture description, discussing the topic of the chapter with a partner etc. They preferred to prepare the students well for SSC examination by repeating the activities important for the exam which they considered their primary responsibility. They practised the same activities again and again leaving some activities totally untouched. Such phenomena has been described by Popham (2001) as a domination of "test-fostered series of drills" (p. 21).

Teachers often relied on bi-lingual guide books and test papers in classrooms even after having a positive attitude towards using the new textbook and its content. These guide books were designed according to the formats of the SSC final examination and focused

on exam technique and parallel exam forms. In addition, to supplement such practice, students also practised questions from the commercially available test papers. In many rural schools, teachers completely ignored doing textbook activities because in order to prepare the students for SSC exam, they had to practise more reading and writing activities other than the passages given in textbook. As the guidebooks focused only on activities important for SSC exam, students did not practise activities like filling in survey forms or bank loan forms which they needed outside the classroom.

Jenkins (2006) argued, as mentioned in Chapter Three, teachers and learners alike are likely to be reluctant to accept any change in curriculum that is not reflected in the objectives set by the major examination boards. Even after being trained to conduct communicative activities and having a positive attitude towards it, teachers in Bangladesh could not do this in every class. Students' focus on exam result made them reluctant to get involved in participatory activities. Their reluctance to participate in turn made it a problem for teachers to get the students involved in communicative activities. O'Sullivan (2001) showed that teachers' lack of sufficient training did not allow teachers to do communicative activities effectively in classroom in Namibia. Teachers found it difficult to implement communicative activities like pair work and group work since they did not have the experience or training to do that. However, this study shows that even after learning to do pair work and group work activities, they still could not do it in class due to students' reluctance.

As teachers in Bangladesh could not practise listening and speaking skills due to the content of the examination, they demanded a change in the test design by including activities on writing and reading skills. Shohamy et al. (1996) argued that bringing change to tests is particularly important in places where the test is high-stake, since such tests cause important consequences, that can shape the teaching and learning situation. LoCastro (1996) similarly focused on the fact that the new curriculum will be ignored unless the exam system is changed since the exam has deleterious washback effect on classroom teaching and teacher education. In Anderson's words "The examination is the piper that calls the tune. Perhaps the tide will turn when language testing has changed its focus" (1993, p. 475).

7.2.1.2. Language Proficiency of Students and Teachers

The lack of language proficiency of both students and teachers affected two aspects of classroom teaching: the language of instruction and doing participatory activities in class. The new curriculum emphasises that English should be the language of instruction. However, students' low proficiency in English language created barrier in using English as a medium of instruction in classrooms. All the training programs instruct teachers that English will be the only language of communication between teachers and students. However, most of the time, teachers in the urban area used both Bangla and English while teaching while teachers outside urban areas taught only in Bangla. Most of the teachers pointed out students' low proficiency in English as the reason for teachers' use of Bangla as a language of instruction. If teachers taught in English, students would not be able to understand, so they did not use English while teaching.

Students' poor proficiency also worked as a restraint on conducting speaking skill activities. As Tudor (2001) points out, the success of a methodology arises out of the students' active participation in the learning process. However, in Bangladesh, students rarely participated in class across both urban and rural settings. In classrooms, teachers still lectured at the front of the class where students were passive spectators- they only talked when they were asked questions. In this way, they did not comply with the communicative approach on which the new curriculum is based.

As discussed, students' educational background was a reason for their poor proficiency level in English which was causing problems for teachers in not using the textbook as intended. Teachers attributed students' poor proficiency in English to their primary education where they did not do such activities and learning mostly gave strong emphasis to memorisation, imitation and repetitive practice.

Teachers' own low proficiency in English language also sometimes caused difficulties in instructing in English. Their academic background worked behind such inability. As

found in this study and mentioned in Chapter Two, there were no subject teachers in schools and any teacher could teach any subject. No specific academic degree was formally required in order to be an English language teacher in schools of Bangladesh. Such condition further made it difficult to expect teachers to instruct in English.

7.2.2. Cultural Factors

In addition to factors related to the educational setting, it was found that certain culturally-endorsed, deep-seated notions of the 'relevance' of education played a major role in the ways in which students (and in some cases teachers) behaved in response to the new curriculum. On the one hand students, especially in rural areas, often viewed education as an unwarranted distraction from the more important family responsibilities, and on the other, some saw it as a short-term vehicle to a form of social eligibility which had little to do with education.

7.2.2.1. Student Attitude to Education

Students' attitude to education, especially in rural areas, made it difficult for teachers to encourage listening activities in class. Boys of these areas preferred to earn money rather than studying at school. They remained absent, especially in harvesting season and spent time in field work. Moreover, since they were irregular, they just wanted to learn things that were important for exam and were unwilling to do listening activities which did not constitute exam preparation.

On the other hand, in rural areas of Bangladesh, girls considered marriage as more important than study. The sole focus of girls was to get married and for this they focused on getting a pass mark in the exam because it gave them a higher position as a bride in society and helped them to get a good groom. On the other hand, parents would like their sons to get married to educated girls and they were considered educated only if they passed the SSC which was the first public examination. Students' focus on getting pass mark made them reluctant to engage in communicative activities.

7.2.2.2. Preference for Traditional Teaching

Despite the more communicative approach adopted in the new textbook, some teachers still felt the need to teach in the traditional way as it was easier and more familiar to them. Crookes (1997) argues that teachers' prior teaching experiences provide direction for planning their teaching. Teachers are comfortable with teaching strategies they previously employed and often find it difficult to start teaching in a new way as it may require a departure from their previous beliefs, practices and routines. This was not common with the teachers of Bangladesh studied here, even though some of them preferred to continue the familiar traditional way of teaching. In that way, teachers could control the students by keeping them quiet as students listened to the teacher and did not get a chance to talk. Resorting in such manner to the traditional way of teaching and learning therefore gave the teachers a confidence of familiarity with the environment of the class. It also gave teachers a feeling of a system that has always worked.

Despite embracing communicative teaching in different degrees, teachers still found it hard to move away from previous teaching practices and felt the need to teach grammar explicitly. The new textbook focused on teaching grammar in context- grammar was not meant to be taught separately in this book. Training recommended teachers to teach grammar in context where the grammatical rules are 'hidden' from the learners who are asked to do exercises or activities involving one or more particular grammatical features.

7.2.3. Administrative Factors

The interviews allowed the teachers to voice some of their grievances in relation to the management of the schools and government policies. It was found that the amount of work they had to do and the pecuniary rewards they got in return were frustratingly at odds, often forcing teachers to seek alternate means of subsistence. Such practice appeared to have had direct implications on the quality of teaching as well as the very integrity of the new curriculum.

7.2.3.1. Workload of Teachers

English language teachers in Bangladesh were often over burdened with workload, which affected their classroom teaching. The training arranged for English language teachers to focus on making lesson plans which included items such as the objective of the lesson, the time distribution of each activity and the necessity of teaching aids. Richards (1998) argued that lesson plans are seen as checklists which teachers should follow as it helps teachers in taking class in an organised way

Lesson plans are thought to help the teacher think through the lesson in advance and resolve problems and difficulties, to provide a structure for a lesson, to provide a 'map' for the teacher to follow, and to provide a record of what has been taught. (Richards, 1998, p. 103)

The teacher's guide emphasised the importance of making a lesson plan prior to every class session. However, teachers were overburdened with workload and it restrained their initiatives and motivation to make lesson plans before class. They did understand the value of making lesson plans and wanted to apply the lesson they learn in training but the shortage of timing created barriers for them. Since teachers had to take six or seven lessons a day including English and other subjects, they got little time to spare for lesson planning and class preparation. Shortage of teachers was another major reason that increased the workload of teachers in rural areas. Moreover they were often engaged in other commitments outside of teaching - such as preparing progress reports, conducting examinations, performing administrative responsibilities of the school and other national duties such as preparing voter lists, counting people during the national census etc. All these factors appeared to have significantly contributed to teachers' preparation for their classes.

7.2.3.2. Distribution of Teacher's Guide

Improper distribution of the teacher's guide was another important administrative shortcomings that influenced teachers' use of textbook in some schools. Some of the teachers did not have a personal copy of the teacher's guide. While at the beginning ELTIP distributed the guide, the Government took over the responsibility of distribution through the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB). Sadly, these days only those who go for ELTIP training get a personal copy of the teacher's guide for Classes 9 and 10. As has been discussed, not all teachers outside the urban areas could go for the training programs as there was a shortage of teachers and those teachers did not get the guide.

7.2.3.3. Pay Scale

Teachers had to undertake private tuition to earn their living and this took time away from lesson preparation. Teachers get very poor salary in Bangladesh as was mentioned by teachers of this study and as was pointed out by Quader (2000, November). To earn minimal subsistence, they either chose to do private tuition or developed their own small businesses. Most of the teachers of this study chose to do private tuition in which they spent most of their time. They often chose to spend their time and energy on something that would bring 'better' returns to them.

7.2.4. Institutional Factors

Although perennially discussed in the discourse community of teachers and increasingly highlighted in the research literature, both at home and abroad, certain contextual factors still constitute some of the most insistent and pervasive obstacles to the implementation of the new curriculum. Such factors range from actual daily teaching time and the teaching periods over the academic calendar, to physical constraints and lack of logistic support.

7.2.4.1. Time Issues

Some issues caused shortage of time and created difficulties in doing the activities of the textbook in the manner in which teachers had been suggested in the guide. The duration of class was one of the major reasons that created the shortage of time of teachers. As seen previously, the classes of the secondary level were usually 30-40 minutes long. Apart from actual teaching, teachers also had to check the attendance of the students and collect the previous day's home work. All these tasks took an extra 10-15 minutes which left teachers with an even shorter time for the actual teaching in class. Teachers found it difficult to do all the activities suggested in the teacher's guide and that they had learnt in training.

Teachers did not get enough classes in an academic year to complete the syllabus which further cut on available time. They could not provide the time that was needed to do all the activities according to the guide since the school was closed many times all the year through. Natural disasters, closures for board examinations, various school events and political unrest often disrupted the academic calendar and made the time even shorter to complete the syllabus.

Moreover, the constant pressure to finish and revise the syllabus before examinations reduced time to teach the activities in detail as suggested in the guide. Students usually had three term-final examinations every year and teachers had to finish the syllabus before every exam. They often had to revise after that completion. Since they did not get enough classes, they had to focus on the activities important for the exam within that short time to 'complete' the syllabus. Teachers remained focused on the coverage of curriculum content that would be tested rather than doing all the activities as has been prescribed in the teacher's guide.

7.2.4.2. Physical Constraints

Like China (see Su, 2006) and South Korea (see Li, 2001), class size and seating arrangements affected classroom teaching in Bangladeshi secondary schools. These

worked as constraints for teachers in implementing communicative activities. A secondary level class in Bangladesh consists of approximately 70-80 students. In most of the classes, teachers addressed a small group of students and the lesson was inaudible to the rest of the students. Only students who sat in the front benches or in the 'action zone' (Shamim, 1996), answered the questions of the teachers. They were better able to hear what the teachers said and see what they wrote on the board. The rest of the class was largely ignored, as far as the teacher's attention was concerned.

Class size has always been considered as a major constraint to participatory activities. Research conducted by Sinha (2006) in Bangladesh showed that teachers of secondary and higher secondary level identified 'large class size' as the problem in implementing the new approach while teaching the new book. However, it did not show why the large class was a problem for the teachers or what specific problems teachers faced as a result of having a large class. The findings of this study showed that teachers found it difficult to teach communicative activities following the teacher's guide and implementing the lessons they learnt in training programs in such large classes. The difference between the setting of the training and that of the actual classroom made it difficult for teachers to materialise their training in actual practice. The number of students in a typical class is much higher than the number of trainees. In addition, if teachers were to conduct such activities, the class time would be over by the time teachers finished making groups. Moreover, if everyone started talking in a class while doing pair work or group work activities, the class would become disruptive and teachers and students from the next classroom would complain. Due to these reasons, most teachers considered it best to avoid most participatory activities.

Classroom seating arrangements also made it difficult to practice pair work and group work activities, as, once again, the settings of the training and the classroom were at odds. In training, teachers used to sit on single chairs while students sit on long wooden benches, lined up and bolted to the floor facing the blackboard. There was hardly any space for the teachers to move around to oversee and supervise students.

Furthermore the restriction imposed by the Government on the number of class sections made it difficult for teachers to arrange students to do communicative activities. Teachers talked about the necessity of having a class with less number of students and criticized the government mandate of making classrooms with at least 65 students whereas previously there used to be 40 students in class. Teachers found it difficult to make more sections and recruit more teachers under the present situation and called for government policy makers to consider this issue.

7.2.4.3. Lack of Equipment

Lack of equipment worked as a hindrance to practising listening skill activities. There were many activities on listening comprehension in the textbook which aimed to encourage the practising of listening skills in English. In every lesson of the textbook, there was at least one activity which required students to speak in English while doing pair work or group work activities. The passages of listening comprehension were provided in the teacher's guide so that the teachers could read aloud and the students could do the activities following the corresponding passages. Teachers found it impractical to read the passages in a class of 70-80 students. It was difficult for all students, especially those who sit at the end of the room, to listen to the teachers even if they read it out loud. Arrangements of equipment like microphones or CDs might have helped them solve this problem, even though except for one school in Dhaka, no other school of the selected schools for in the study could provide such resources, due to insufficient funds.

7.2.5. Political Factors

In addition, participants reported other factors, such as interference and pressure from local as well as national political persons and nepotism and how these affected the way in which they were meant to teach and administer the classes.

7.2.5.1. Administrative Politics

Appointment of non-qualified teachers influenced classroom teaching in some cases, where administrative politics worked behind their appointments. In some rural areas, people not qualified enough to become English teachers got the appointment due to recommendation from the local influential people. In these areas, the political leaders and rich people of the locality were in charge of School Management Committee (SMC). Sometimes teachers in these areas got appointed on the basis of their good connection with these influential people of the society. The Principal had to retain those teachers even if they were not capable to teach because such act would potentially affect his/her job if the members of SMC went against the Principal.

In addition to this, administrative politics were also a factor behind retaining students who failed, sometimes repeatedly, in English in junior secondary levels. Students' level of proficiency in English was particularly low in secondary schools in rural areas of the country. Even though most of these students failed in Mathematics and English, teachers had to promote the students because they knew that failure would result in parents requesting or asking the organising committee to promote them and the committee in turn would have pressurized the teachers. In this way, these students got promoted to the next level. Due to this, despite having a low proficiency in English, students of rural schools kept getting promoted to the next level every year.

Such a host of educational, cultural, administrative, institutional and political factors prevented teachers carrying out the activities of the textbook as intended and imposed challenges to the implementation of what they learnt in the teacher training programs.

7.3. Regional Disparity in Teaching

The study showed conspicuous difference in teaching practices between the rural and urban areas in Bangladesh. Difference was found in two aspects of language teaching: degree of reliance on using the textbook and using English as the language of instruction. There was significant difference in the degree of reliance on using the

textbook and guidebooks between students of rural and urban areas. In many schools in urban areas, students practised guidebooks along with *English for Today*. Teachers of these areas finished one lesson, practised exercises from the guide book and practised the model questions corresponding to that lesson from the test papers. However, in most classes in rural areas, students were observed using only commercially available guidebooks and test papers, to the almost total rejection of the textbook itself. Classroom teaching focused on these workbooks that prepared students for the kind of questions specified in the new exam. Students of rural areas could not afford to buy the textbook and guidebook and only bought the material that was important in passing the exam. Thus the textbook, which was mentioned as the core of the curriculum by the curriculum planners, was not always used in English language classrooms in Bangladesh, and exam-related commercially published materials played a large role.

Difference was also found in the use of English as the language of instruction between schools of rural and urban areas. While teachers of urban areas used English and Bangla, the teachers of rural areas taught only in Bangla. Teacher's low level of proficiency in English was one of the reasons for that. As discussed in Chapter 3, Nunan (2003) found a similar situation in China and Malaysia where there was a dearth of teachers with a high level of proficiency in English language which resulted in difficulty in following the communicative method.

The academic qualifications of teachers themselves also varied greatly and this influenced their use of English in class. People with good academic backgrounds, in general, were reluctant to take teaching up as a profession in Bangladesh because of poor pay. People were reluctant to teach in rural areas since teachers in these areas did not get the opportunity of doing private tuition whereas teachers in urban areas could supplement their income by doing private tuition. Thus lower income and less opportunity for teacher training made people with high academic profile reluctant to take teaching up as a profession especially in rural areas. Hasan (2004) found that teachers of urban areas in Bangladesh were more qualified than those of rural areas. However, he did not show whether differences in teachers' academic qualifications

created any disparity in teaching practices. The current study shows that differences in academic qualification of teachers caused difference in their proficiency in the English language and created regional disparity in Bangladesh, as discussed in Chapter Six. It reflected what Hu (2005a) found in China. He claimed that qualified teachers in China opt for teaching in cities and coastal areas since those areas offer better living standards, economic prosperity and better opportunities for teacher training. This study further affirms that differences in the professional qualification of teachers can cause differences in teaching practice between two areas in the same country.

Students' proficiency level in English was another reason why English was not used as the language of instruction in the class. Teachers in rural areas could not teach in English because they thought that the students did not have the ability to understand English. Teachers believed that there was a major difference in the skill levels between students of rural and urban areas. Most of the parents are uneducated farmers in rural areas and in many situations, a student was the first person in his/her family to get an education. Students, therefore, did not get any help from their home or family, and school was the only place where they learned English. By contrast, in urban areas students got additional out-of-school help from their parents at home. They found places outside school where they could learn English and parents could spend money for private tuition of the children. These reasons worked as hindrances in developing the proficiency of students in rural areas.

7.4. Appropriateness of Teacher Training Models

Numerous training programs have been arranged for teachers to facilitate the implementation of the new curriculum in Bangladesh. Through courses, seminars and workshops, these training programs aimed to help the teachers use the new textbook in the transition phase of curriculum innovation. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) claimed: "we need to see textbook development and teacher development as part of the same process" (p. 326). Campbell et al. (1998) also argued that unless training is provided, giving communicative material to teachers who are more familiar with the grammar

translation method may not lead to change in teaching practice. The training that was arranged for English language teachers in Bangladesh was offsite and it worked as a top-down process where the teachers were expected to just implement the decision taken by the curriculum planners. Teachers received the training once; they did not receive it on an ongoing process and nor was there any follow-up or impact test. The findings of this study shows that while the training arranged for the teachers helped them develop their pedagogic skills and their knowledge about how to teach the book, they found it difficult to apply that lesson in the classroom. This raised the question of whether the nature of the training programs arranged to implement the new curriculum was appropriate for the Bangladeshi context.

Even after receiving training, teachers in the present study could not do communicative activities in the classes, although findings of two empirical studies (Hasan, 2004; NAEM, 2005b) conducted earlier in Bangladesh claimed that one of the reasons for teachers' failure in practising communicative activities of the revised *English for Today* book in Bangladesh was their lack of training. Research conducted by Hasan (2004) showed that this was because teachers did not do activities for practising listening and speaking skill and Hasan claimed that they did not know how to teach listening and speaking skills due to lack of experience gained from in-service teachers' training programs. His claim was supported by a research conducted in Bangladesh on secondary schools of the public and private sector by National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM, 2005b). Findings of this study showed that teachers could not carry out communicative activities in class as they lacked knowledge about teaching the English language and NAEM claimed that teachers' knowledge was not upgraded since they also lacked subject based training. However, teachers themselves were not asked in either of these two studies why they did not engage in communicative activities. Furthermore, this study shows that even after receiving training, teachers could not conduct communicative activities involving students in pair work or group work. They could not involve students in activities to practise speaking and listening skills as various contextual factors hindered practising those activities.

The current study proves the assumption of Pandian (2004) and shows that teachers went back to “chalk and talk” (p. 246) drill after returning from training. In a study, conducted to explore the implementation of ELTIP training, Quayyum, Roy, Akhter, Haider and Huda (2000) found that teachers could use pair work and group work activities successfully after training. It helped them to involve the students in practising listening and speaking skills. This research was conducted in 2000, just after the introduction of the new curriculum. Moreover, as mentioned in Chapter Three, the researchers pointed out that the teachers of this study were observed just after they had received their training. They were expected to be observed by the trainers at that time to support them in using the communicative approach in their classes. They also mentioned that the same study might give different results if it was carried out a year later because the effect of the training was still fresh in the teachers’ minds because the findings showed that there was no change in classroom teaching even though all the teachers went through the training programs, it can be argued that teachers went back to the previous teaching style even if they had initially implemented the new style.

The difference in the contexts between training and teaching caused difficulty for teachers to implement what they learned in training programs. The training courses in Bangladesh provide English language teachers with professional training to build their understanding of the communicative approach. Teachers found it difficult to teach these once back in actual classroom. For example, teachers learned doing pair work and group work activities in ELTIP training by discussing a topic, turning around the chairs to face each other. However, the seating arrangement of students in the classroom was completely different and did not allow any kind of physical rearrangement.

The training programs that were provided to English language teachers in Bangladesh did not have any follow up and were ‘piecemeal’ (Carless, 2001, p. 264). Teachers were provided only a short amount of time in training to get accustomed to the new teaching style. Since none of the training programs had any follow up, the organisers of the training programs did not know how the trained teachers were actually teaching in the classroom. Moreover, such short-term training programs might not be sufficient for

teachers to understand the theoretical and practical aspects of the new approach. Carless (1997) emphasised the importance of teachers' ongoing training as they are the key people to implement the innovation: "Training needs to be ongoing and developmental, not of a one-off nature" (Carless, 1997, p. 363). Kırkgöz (2008) also emphasised the importance of providing continuous teacher training in the first few years of the innovation process to implement the change successfully. Such consolidation and review initiatives were completely absent in the training packages.

Not all teachers receive similar opportunities of attending training programs. Teachers of rural areas did not always receive training on the communicative approach. Although all teachers who taught English in secondary level in Bangladesh were offered BEd training, they could not always attend the training due to the schedule of the training programs. These training programs were often organised when schools were open and for having limited number of teachers, Principals of schools in rural areas did not want to send their teachers for training when the schools were open. The profiles of the participants of this study showed that participants from rural area did not get as much training as teachers of urban areas. There were some teachers in rural areas who did not receive any training whereas there were many teachers in urban areas who received the similar training more than once. Such inequitable distribution of training opportunities had an impact on the regional disparity of teaching practices mentioned earlier.

Although researchers suggest providing both onsite and offsite training to teachers, the teacher training programs arranged in Bangladesh were only offsite since they are top-down training programs where trainees are taken outside the context of teaching (Roberts, 1998). In such offsite training, teachers teaching in different contexts come together to attend the same training, gather the same knowledge and later go back to apply the same training in vastly different contexts of teaching. Although Roberts (1998) supported such training saying that it 'gives teachers time out' (Roberts, 1998, p. 273) to reflect upon their own teaching practices. Hayes (2006) criticised such programs saying that he considered in-service programs important to work with existing classroom realities. To implement lessons learned in training programs, other researchers have

recommended arranging onsite training along with the offsite ones, as teachers need to have an understanding of both the theoretical underpinnings and classroom applications of the innovation (Carless, 2001; Roberts, 1998). The training programs in Bangladesh involved teachers from many different schools from rural and urban areas but did not acknowledge the impact of different factors within the systems to which they all returned and to know how curriculum would be implemented in the particular school culture and classroom conditions where they teach.

Thus, although the new curriculum and the training programs aimed at a radical departure from previous teaching methods by transferring the focus from grammar-based, teacher-centered to student-centered approach, teachers could not bring the expected changes to their classroom teaching. The training programs may have helped them understand the theoretical underpinnings of the innovation but did not help them to relate the innovation to the realities of their school context.

7.5. Incongruities Between Policy and Practice

There was a discrepancy between statement of intent and the reality of what happened in the classroom in Bangladesh. There was no change in classroom teaching styles although the new curriculum was launched in Bangladesh with the objective to make the classroom learner-centred and to provide learners with the linguistic tools necessary to communicate in a variety of situations. Despite the explicitly communicative intent and approach adopted in the new textbook, not all the teachers could involve students in interaction in the classroom. Most teachers displayed traditional teaching styles in classrooms. The classes were frontal, lecture-type, teacher-centred with little interaction between teacher and students. A major proportion of class time was composed of teacher talk and there was very little use of pair work or group work activities.

Nevertheless, teachers expressed a positive attitude towards the change in the curriculum. This supports Khan (2002) and shows that the training had a positive impact on the teachers as they understood the reasons behind implementing the new approach of teaching. Teachers appreciated the initiative of including communicative activities in the new syllabus and organising the activities by focusing on the four skills all through

the textbook. Literature also shows that teachers' attitudes to the textbooks are likely to have an impact on how they use them (McGrath, 2006). "Teacher perspective is crucial because teachers are the key element in the implementation process in that they are the individuals who will implement faithfully, reinvent or reject an innovation" (Carless, 1998, p. 357). However, no such improvement could be seen in the actual teaching-learning situation of English language in Bangladesh, even though teachers had positive responses regarding the new syllabus.

Striking differences were also found between policy and teacher goals. Practical issues and immediate student needs were often more relevant to pedagogy than general, long-term policy reform objectives. Teacher goals were more towards how to manage the class of students, teach everyday's lesson, and help students learn the material. There were various challenges which prevented teachers from carrying out all the activities of the textbook as suggested in textbook and the teacher's guide. Classroom lessons and teacher rationale statements showed that teachers were indeed aware of policy initiatives related to language education and to the potential longer-term needs of students for English. However, teachers tended to focus on immediate classroom priorities that influenced daily lessons and placed emphasis on student learning.

The curriculum planners in Bangladesh have indeed arranged a number of training for English language teachers to familiarise them with the new approach and thus make them able to use the new textbook, even though there is urgent need for such training programs to be restructured in order to cater for the challenges brought about by the new curriculum. Following the "power-coercive strategy" (Chin & Benne, 1976), teachers were asked to implement the policy decision that had been taken by the authority. Teachers were given training on the new approach of teaching. However, as this study shows, the expected roles of these teachers were significantly mitigated by their practical experiences. The complexity of the problems these experienced and dedicated teachers came across in this transition phase of ELT reform in Bangladesh need to be taken into consideration from the very early stages of reform planning. There were numerous challenges to teachers' teaching that did not allow them to realise the

knowledge they gained from their training, rendering it mostly futile. Their practices manifested a faint implementation of their training. They were still teaching following the traditional language teaching method and students were rarely asked to get involved in communicative activities. To this extent teacher training programs were not developed in a manner in which the textbook and the guide could best be used in acknowledgement of the problems.

Even though teachers were asked to teach speaking and listening skills and practise communicative activities in class, policy makers did not bring any change to the examination system to facilitate and encourage such practice. Such mismatch broadly reflected a heavy reliance on the implications of public assessment results as well as a variety of limitations felt in these schools. The government wanted to bring about changes to teaching-learning of the English language without bringing a change in the exam format. As the results of the SSC examination were important to students, and yet it did not reflect the aim of the new syllabus, teachers continued to focus only on activities important for the exam and repeating them over and over again. Even with the intention of doing communicative activities in class, they could not do it in class as they faced pressure from students and parents to emphasise doing the activities important for final examination rather than doing communicative activities. As a result, the emphasis of the new curriculum on the development of practical communication skills was not reflected in classroom teaching, where practically, the emphasis was on the development of reading and writing skills for the sole purpose of passing the SSC exam.

A wide gap existed not only between the textbook and teacher's guide on the one hand, and actual teaching on the other, but also between the objectives of these books and the initiative taken by the government. Even though training programs were arranged to develop teachers' knowledge, teachers were not given room for improving their teaching. They were expected to practise all the activities of the textbook following the teacher's guide but were often engaged in other commitments outside of teaching, performing administrative responsibilities of the school and national duties asked of them. Moreover, the government made the class size larger by dictating the number of

students to save the cost of institutions. This increased the workload for teachers further by allocating more classes to them. This overburden of workload left little room for teachers to prepare themselves for teaching.

Before bringing any change in pedagogy, policy makers need to consider the context in its full complexity where it is to be implemented. Fullan (2001) argued that one of the reasons for the failure of educational reform is that planners introduce change without attempting to understand the situational constraints of the implementers, in this case, the teachers. The literature shows that a top-down promotion of CLT has a low rate of success (Li, 2001; Su, 2006). In such cases, curriculum planners introduce new teaching practices without considering the context of teaching and as a result, teaching practice does not change fundamentally. Pandian (2004) described such a situation in Malaysia: "when the initial euphoria of implementing the communicative concepts laid down by the New Primary and Secondary School Curriculum under the notion of communicative competence had died down, classroom teaching seems to have returned to the chalk-and-talk drill method" (p. 246). Tudor therefore warns that "Methodological choices can not be made in abstraction of the context in which they are to be implemented" (2001, p. 155). A close study of context is essential to understand classroom dynamics and bring change in pedagogical planning. Realising the importance of English in social, political and commercial contexts, initiatives have been taken in order to equip the learners with the ability to communicate effectively in English. However, policy makers of Bangladesh did not consider the overall context created by such factors before introducing the changes. A well coordinated and well-concerted effort befitting the context of the whole country needs to be taken.

7.6. Summary of Chapter

This chapter has offered a critical analysis of the research findings in the light of the research literature presented in Chapters Three and Four. It began with an introduction of the textbook and teacher training as two important strategies and vehicles of curriculum implementation. In the light of the factors mentioned in conceptual

framework, the next section explored the factors influencing the implementation of the new curriculum. A discussion on the difference in teaching between rural and urban areas was provided in the next section. Following this was a discussion on the difference between policy and practice. The final section presented how appropriate the teacher training programs are for the teachers who were teaching English language in secondary level in Bangladesh.

In the next chapter, the current study draws its conclusions by revisiting some of the central questions introduced in the first chapter, as well as suggesting measures the government of Bangladesh needs to pay heed to, in order to truly materialise its most timely intention of implementing curricular innovation and change in secondary schools across Bangladesh.

8. Chapter Eight

CONCLUSION

This chapter concludes this study by revisiting some of its central concerns as presented in the early chapters. First it revisits the research questions and evaluates the effectiveness of the theoretical orientation and methodology in addressing the research questions. This discussion is followed by some recommendations for the improvement of English language teaching in Bangladesh. This section is followed by a look at the limitations of the study and some suggestions for directions for future research. The final section contains conclusions based on the findings.

8.1. Research Questions, Theoretical Orientation and Methodological Issues

This study aimed to explore factors that influence English language teachers' use of the secondary textbook and to what extent training programs were relevant in helping the teachers use the new textbook in this transition phase of English language education reform. It also explored whether other factors are influencing their teaching. Three research questions guided the study. They were:

1. How do teachers use the new text book?
 - 1.1. What are the teachers' perceptions of the new text book and the teacher's guide?
 - 1.2. Do they teach the textbook following the instruction given in the teacher's guide?
2. Does teacher training bring any change in textbook teaching? If yes, how?
3. What are the factors that influence teachers' use of the textbook in the classroom?
 - 3.1. What factors interact with English Language Teaching (ELT) policies to facilitate or inhibit the adoption of the teaching methodology?
 - 3.2. Does any factor create a difference in teachers' use of textbook between rural and urban areas? If yes, why?

Training programs have been arranged for teachers for the implementation of the new curriculum in Bangladesh as it is important to introduce teacher training through courses, seminars and workshops to help the teachers use a new textbook when curriculum innovation takes place (Campbell et al 1998; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Through interviews and observations, this study revealed that the training arranged for the teachers helped them to develop their pedagogic skills and their knowledge about how to teach the textbook. However, they often found it difficult to apply their knowledge gained from training in the classroom. There were various challenges which were not addressed in the training programs and which did not allow them to engage in all the activities of the textbook and to implement what they learnt in training programs. Teachers found it difficult to teach these things once back in the actual classroom where they returned to their previous teaching style. Along with finding the mismatch between the intended and enacted curriculum, this study also uncovered factors which influenced teachers' classroom practices in rural and urban areas of Bangladesh. Difference was also found in degree of reliance on using the textbook and using English as language of instruction, across different secondary school settings.

As discussed, previous studies in other countries have revealed that implementing a new curriculum is likely to be affected by a number of factors in the social system (Hu 2005a; Li, 2001; Shim & Baik, 2004). These studies have shown that in many countries where curriculum has been imposed by the government, as it has been done in Bangladesh, classroom teaching does not change according to the plan. Curriculum planners arrange training programs and textbook to make innovation successful by assuring that teachers understand new policies and practices of the enacted curriculum. However, these do not always help teachers in implementing new teaching strategies.

This study further confirmed what these researchers claimed. There were various educational, cultural, administrative, institutional and political factors which did not allow teachers from carrying out the activities of the textbook and implementing what they had learnt in teacher training programs. As well as validating previous literature on the impact of contextual factors on classroom teaching, the current study steps beyond it

by identifying certain issues previously isolated but not researched, as possible influential factors in other researches conducted in Bangladesh.

Methodologically, this study adopted carefully selected tools and the order in which they were employed, to efficiently collect, collate, generate and analyse data and address the key research inquiries. Observation of classrooms helped to get a broader picture of how teachers actually used the textbook in the classes. It helped find the discrepancy between statement of intent and the reality of what happened in the classrooms. Although teachers generally expressed positive attitudes towards the change in the curriculum, no discernable change was seen in their classroom teaching styles. The use of semi-structured interviews on the other hand provided an insight into teachers' perspectives of the new curriculum and their practices. It helped to solicit as much information as possible. Since the interviews were thematically framed, they helped to investigate what caused teachers to teach the way they did. Moreover, the review of the curriculum materials helped to understand the context of the school by gaining insight into the focus of teaching and examinations in the schools.

While there have been other studies on the implementation of curriculum innovation, little has been documented as to how and to what extent teachers implement their training while using the textbook when it is published as part of the curriculum innovation. In addition, much of the research on textbook use in English language teaching in a particular context has been conducted overseas. To date, very little empirical research has been conducted in Bangladesh in this area. Intensive research has not been conducted to investigate whether teaching practice has changed as a result of introducing the new textbook and teacher training. Moreover, most research conducted on the implementation of the new curriculum in Bangladesh is quantitative, where the data have been collected through questionnaire. This study on the other hand, through observations and interviews, explored what is actually happening in the classroom and whether teachers can implement the training they receive. It also explored other factors impeding the adoption of the communicative teaching methodology.

The study contributes to the growing knowledge pertaining to these issues while focusing on a specific group of teachers. It is assumed the findings of this study would be valuable to educational policy makers of Bangladesh. It serves to increase the awareness of educational policymakers before planning to change teaching materials and implementing a new teaching approach in countries with similar contexts.

8.2. Recommendations

This study has provided critical insight into the range of factors which prevent the teachers from using the textbook as has been suggested in teacher's guide. In their responses, the teachers identified a range of interrelated contextual factors which are not easy to disentangle from one another. If the objectives of the new curriculum were to be materialised, initiatives need to be taken in order to improve the teaching and learning situation in Bangladesh. In particular, three aspects need to be taken into consideration for this development. These aspects are 1. Teachers' Reality, 2. Examination and 3. Management and Design of Training Programs. These recommendations have been provided based on the research findings presented in the previous chapter.

Teachers' Reality

Educational policy makers and training planners need to take into account the contextual factors that affect the teaching-learning process while bringing any change in policy. Cultural, administrative, educational, institutional and political factors play a significant role in Bangladesh in enabling the teachers in teaching the textbook as prescribed in policy.

Initiatives also need to be taken to examine and revise the academic load of teachers at all stages of secondary education. Their commitments outside of teaching and administrative responsibilities of the school should be reduced to provide them more time to prepare themselves for school teaching which is their primary responsibility. Moreover, the government should provide more incentives to teachers in rural areas. This will attract well qualified people to teach in these areas by compensating for the

earning they receive from private tuition in urban areas. This small initiative is likely to change the overall teaching situation of rural Bangladesh.

Examination

Changing the format of the secondary examination system in Bangladesh would be a major step in improving the teaching-learning of the English language. This would be difficult to change unless the content of the SSC examination reflects the nature of the textbook. ELTIP has brought about certain changes in the examination system but it still does not reflect the textbook content or the aim of the ELT innovation in Bangladesh. There is no concordance between the examination and the syllabus. While the textbook focuses on developing communicative skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing, the SSC examination assesses only writing and reading skills with a focus on students' ability to memorise what they have been taught. If the assessment of listening and speaking is included in the public examination, it would be easier for the teachers to motivate the learners to practise these two skills in class. This would also help teachers to get rid of the constant pressure they receive from principals, parents and students to restrict teaching to activities important only for the examination.

Management and Design of Training Programs

Initiatives also need to be taken in the management and design of teacher training. Firstly, training institutes should co-ordinate to render training to the teachers in an organised way so that all teachers can attend basic training programs. As mentioned earlier, training on communicative English is provided in Bangladesh by various teacher training centres such as ELTIP training centres, Teacher Training Centre (TTC), National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM). However, these training programs are not arranged in an organised way. Co-ordination among these centres is required because while on one hand some teachers receive no training on the basic principles of communicative teaching at all, on the other hand some teachers receive similar training more than once. Coordination among training centres may improve this situation and maximize the chances for a more equitable distribution of training.

Secondly, the schedule of the training programs needs to be restructured in order to provide opportunities for teachers of rural areas to attend training programs. Some training programs during the school vacation need to be arranged. Due to limited number of teachers in schools at that time, teachers are not being sent to attend training. Finally, classroom teaching needs to be systematically and routinely observed after teachers receive training, as it will help the organisers and teacher trainers of the training programs to know how the trained teachers are actually teaching in the classroom. Opportunities for onsite feedback from teachers might provide additional food for thought for training organisers.

8.3. Limitations of the Study

A case study approach was chosen for this study to examine teaching practice in depth, and in its natural setting. Teachers' voices and the observations together provided a rich description of the reality in which English language teaching takes place. The findings helped to identify in detail the factors influencing classroom teaching practice and to obtain a deeper understanding of teaching styles in these schools situated in different areas across Bangladesh. However, the data have only been gathered from 26 teachers teaching in 14 schools situated in urban and rural areas of Bangladesh. Each case of this study has been assumed to be reflective of the experiences of the particular English language teacher teaching in the specific context. Thus the study is locally based, context specific and as previously mentioned (see 4.1.1) the results therefore cannot be expected to be generalised to all secondary English teachers in Bangladesh.

8.4. Future Research Directions

In light of the present findings, three directions for future research are suggested in this section.

Firstly, the findings show that even though a range of training programs have been arranged for English language teachers of secondary level, many factors impede teachers implementing what they learn in training programs. These issues need to be

considered before designing the training programs. Future research should focus on finding what support mechanisms can be established to help policy makers and administrators in designing training appropriate for the Bangladeshi teaching context.

Secondly, this study has identified factors teachers considered as problems in relation to using the new textbook. Future research should focus on finding what is needed to solve the problems mentioned by the teachers and to bring an alignment in the intended and enacted curriculum. Importance should be given to address issues mentioned by teachers of rural areas as the majority of secondary students study in rural areas.

Lastly, this research has focused on teachers' voice and their practice in classroom. Teachers' voices, together with the researcher's own observation, demonstrate the implementation reality in teaching context. However, students themselves were identified in many places as one cause of teachers not using the textbook in the manner suggested in the teacher's guide. Future research should therefore focus on investigating students' perceptions of these issues. Their perceptions of the teaching and the textbook may produce a fuller picture of the factors that actually impact on teaching. This will eventually provide compelling rationales to policymakers to help them take proper steps.

8.5. Conclusion

The goal of the new curriculum is to teach students the use of the English language in everyday communicative events. In this environment of innovation, the textbooks and the teacher guides are the vehicles used to deliver the new curriculum to the schools in Bangladesh. The new text book reflects most of the important features of CLT and if teachers can teach following the instruction of textbook and the guidelines given in the teacher's guide, it will give students the practical skills they need to understand contemporary usage of the English language. Although the government tried to improve the teaching by arranging teacher training to teach the textbook effectively, this study indicates a significant disjunction between curriculum rhetoric and pedagogical reality. The context of the teaching has largely been ignored before introducing the new

textbook. A range of other contextual factors - from student attitudes to local administrative politics were also found responsible for such mismatch. If ignored, the combined effect of these factors will eventually make the materials inappropriate or ineffective.

Secondary education is one of the most important and biggest sub-sectors in education in Bangladesh involving huge numbers of institutions and teachers, designed to prepare students for higher education. The initiatives to change the English language teaching situation aim to create a skilled and efficient workforce at home and abroad. However, despite a number of local and foreign aided projects, due to lack of planning and lack of coordinated long term focus, the combined attempts to improve the standards of teaching and learning English have mostly yielded unsatisfactory results. The English language curriculum has been revised but such revision will not be fruitful if teachers, as the central agents of policy implementation, cannot change their teaching style due to the influences of several socio-cultural factors within which teaching takes place. The success of ELT will depend on the government's commitment to working on the contextual constraints and to find ways to overcome them. It is hoped that the government of Bangladesh will take appropriate measures to eradicate the challenges mentioned and strive to make the teaching material more effective to improve the English language education of the country.

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Appendix 1: Ethics Approval from University of Sydney



The University of Sydney

NSW 2006 Australia

Human Research Ethics Committee

www.usyd.edu.au/ethics/human

Senior Ethics Officer:

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Room's L4 14 & L4, 13 Main Quadrangle A14

Human Secretariat

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10 May 2007

Dr L Merritt
A35.818 Faculty of Education and Social Work
Education Building – A35
The University of Sydney

Dear Dr Merritt

I am pleased to inform you that the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) at its meeting on 24 April 2007 approved your protocol entitled "The new textbook for teaching English language in secondary education in Bangladesh: Teachers' perceptions and teaching practices".

Details of the approval are as follows:

Ref No.: 04-2007/10015
Approval Period: April 2007 – April 2008
Authorised Personnel: Dr L Merritt
Ms S Farooqui

The HREC is a fully constituted Ethics Committee in accordance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans-June 1999* under Section 2.6.

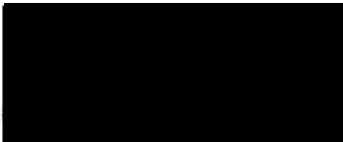
The approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans*. We draw to your attention the requirement that a report on this research must be submitted every 12 months from the date of the approval or on completion of the project, whichever occurs first. Failure to submit reports will result in withdrawal of consent for the project to proceed.

Chief Investigator / Supervisor's responsibilities to ensure that:

- (1) All serious and unexpected adverse events are to be reported to the HREC as soon as possible.
- (2) All unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project are to be reported to the HREC as soon as possible.

-
- (3) The HREC must be notified as soon as possible of any changes to the protocol. All changes must be approved by the HREC before continuation of the research project. These include:-
- If any of the investigators change or leave the University.
 - Any changes to the Participant Information Statement and/or Consent Form.
- (4) All research participants are to be provided with a Participant Information Statement and Consent Form, unless otherwise agreed by the Committee. The Participant Information Statement and Consent Form are to be on University of Sydney letterhead and include the full title of the research project and telephone contacts for the researchers, unless otherwise agreed by the Committee and the following statement must appear on the bottom of the Participant Information Statement. *Any person with concerns or complaints about the conduct of a research study can contact the Senior Ethics Officer, University of Sydney, on (02) 9351 4811 (Telephone); (02) 9351 6706 (Facsimile) or gbriody@usyd.edu.au (Email).*
- (5) The HREC approval is valid for four (4) years from the Approval Period stated in this letter. Investigators are requested to submit a progress report annually.
- (6) A report and a copy of any published material should be provided at the completion of the Project.

Yours sincerely



Associate Professor J D Watson
Chairman
Human Research Ethics Committee

cc Ms Sabrin Farooqui, A35.509, Faculty of Education and Social Work, The University of Sydney

Appendix 2: Letter of Invitation



The University of Sydney

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Postgraduate Research Coordinator

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AUSTRALIA

The Principal
Dinajpur Zilla School
Dinajpur

Dear Sir/Madam,

I write to request for your permission for conducting a research involving two teachers of English language of secondary level in your school.

I am a lecturer in the Department of English in Eastern University of Dhaka. I am currently undertaking a doctoral study in Faculty of Education and Social Work of the University of Sydney in Australia. I am obliged to carry out this research to meet the requirements of my PhD degree.

The title of my study is **The New Textbook for Teaching English Language in Secondary Education in Bangladesh: Teachers' Perceptions and Teaching Practices**. A new textbook has been published to teach English language in secondary education as part of the curriculum innovation that took place in Bangladesh in the year 2000. This study will examine English language teachers' perceptions of the new textbook used at secondary level in Bangladesh, the factors that influence teachers' use and how they use the textbook in the classroom.

For the purpose of this research, data will be collected from ten districts of Bangladesh which are 1) Dhaka, 2) Chittagong, 3) Rajshahi, 4) Jessore, 5) Savar, 6) Dinajpur, 7) Narayanganj, 8) Tangail, 9) Bikrampur, and 10) Comilla. In total, 24 teachers will be interviewed and two classroom lessons of each participant will be observed on different occasions. The participants will be representatives of the diverse backgrounds because the sample will include teachers from schools of all levels –both advantaged and disadvantaged schools of cities, district towns and remote rural areas in Bangladesh.

The information that will be collected from the teachers will be handled with strict confidentiality and will be used only for research purposes. For your information, this study adheres to the rule of the Human Research Ethic Committee of the University of Sydney. If you need further information about this study, please contact the principal advisor of the researcher at the address printed below. If you would like to speak to an officer of the University not involved in this study, you may contact the Senior Ethics Officer of the Ethics Administration on +612 9351 4811 (international) or email at gbriody@usyd.edu.au

I would highly appreciate it if you kindly issue a formal letter which will enable me to enter the schools and conduct my research. Your permission and support will be in the interest of my professional and career development as well as the improvement of the teaching and learning of English in secondary schools in Bangladesh.

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Sabrin Farooqui
Lecturer
Department of English, Eastern University
&
PhD Candidate,
Faculty of Education and Social Work
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Appendix 3: Participant Information Statement



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PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT

Research Project

Title: The New Textbook for Teaching English Language in Secondary Education in Bangladesh: Teachers' Perceptions and Teaching Practices.

(1) What is the study about?

This study will examine teachers' perceptions of the new textbook *English For Today* used to teach English language at secondary level in Bangladesh, what factors influence their use of the textbook and how teachers use the textbook in the classroom.

(2) Who is carrying out the study?

The study is being conducted by Sabrin Farooqui (PhD candidate) and will form the basis for the degree of PhD at the University of Sydney under the supervision of Dr. Llian Merritt.

(3) What does the study involve?

The study involves interviews with teachers and observations of English language classrooms. Each participant will be interviewed twice and two classroom lessons will be observed of each participant. The interviews will be recorded with audio tape recorder.

(4) How much time will the study take?

The classroom observations of two lessons will take approximately 60 minutes.
The interviews will take approximately 30 minutes each.

(5) Can I withdraw from the study?

Being in this study is completely voluntary – you can withdraw from the study at any time.

(6) Will anyone else know the results?

All aspects of the study, including results, will be strictly confidential and only the researchers will have access to information about participants. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

(7) Will the study benefit me?

The research will allow the participants to reflect upon their own understandings of the new textbook. It will work for the improvement of teaching.

(8) Can I tell other people about the study?

Yes, you can.

(9) What if I require further information?

When you have read this information, Sabrin Farooqui will discuss it with you further and answer any questions you may have. If you would like to know more at any stage, please feel free to contact Sabrin Farooqui, PhD candidate(ph: 612-90365300)

(10) What if I have a complaint or concerns?

Any person with concerns or complaints about the conduct of a research study can contact the Senior Ethics Officer, Ethics Administration, University of Sydney on (02) 9351 4811 (Telephone); (02) 9351 6706 (Facsimile) or gbriody@usyd.edu.au (Email).

This information sheet is for you to keep.

Appendix 4: Participant Consent Form



The University of Sydney

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Faculty of Education and Social Work
A35
The University of Sydney NSW 2006
AUSTRALIA

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I,, give consent to my participation in the research project

Name (please print)

The New Textbook for Teaching English Language in Secondary Education in Bangladesh: Teachers' Perceptions and Teaching Practices.

In giving my consent I acknowledge that:

1. The procedures required for the project and the time involved have been explained to me, and any questions I have about the project have been answered to my satisfaction.
2. I have read the Participant Information Statement and have been given the opportunity to discuss the information and my involvement in the project with the researcher.
3. I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time, without affecting my relationship with the researcher now or in the future.
4. I understand that my involvement is strictly confidential and no information about me will be used in any way that reveals my identity.

Signed:

Name:

Date:

Appendix 5: First Round Interview Prompts

Background Information

1. How long have you been teaching?
2. How long have you been teaching in this school?
3. May I know about your educational qualification?
4. Did you teach in secondary level using the textbook used in previous curriculum?
5. What type of professional development opportunities have been provided to you as a result of the reform?

New English Curriculum

1. Do you like the new textbook better than the previous one? How are they different?
2. Have you got the teachers' guide?
3. Do you think teachers' guide is necessary for classroom teaching?
4. How much time do you spend for the preparation of a class?
5. What is the cause behind this?

Classroom Activities

1. What are you going to teach in today's class?
2. How are you planning to teach the lesson?
3. What are reasons behind the planning?

Appendix 6: Second Round Interview Prompts

New English Curriculum

1. What is your perception of the new textbook?
2. Do you find it comfortable to teach English language using the new textbook?
3. Do you follow the lesson plan given in the textbook?
4. What are the problems in using the textbook as it has been suggested?
5. How often do you use teachers' guide?
6. How useful is it?
7. What is your perception of the teachers' guide?
8. Do you prefer to use commercial guidebook in class? If yes, why?

Classroom Activities

1. Why did you employ the instructional activities to carry out the lessons?
2. What do you see as the most important things you would like your students to learn in English class?
3. Why do you think like that?
4. How useful was the training for English teachers?
5. Do you apply what you learnt in teacher training?
6. Are there any problems implementing training ideas in your class?
7. What measures should be taken to overcome the impediments you have mentioned?

Appendix 7: Classroom Observation Instrument

Name of the institution :
 Teacher's name :
 Number of students in class :
 Date: Time:

Observational Criteria	Condition of Use		Remark (If any)
	Yes	No	
Warm-up session			
Go to the topic directly			
Medium of Instruction			
• Fully in English			
• English-Bangla Mixed			
• Fully in Bangla			
Teaching Method			
• Lecture			
• Discussion			
• Drill and Question-answer			
• Pair work, Group Work and Role Play			
• Grammar Practice			
Skill Exercised			
• Reading			
• Writing			
• Speaking			
• Listening			
Students' involvement			
Use of Teaching Material			
Textbook <i>English for Today</i> (Unit and Lesson)			
Guidebook			

Appendix 8: Excerpt from an interview transcript

R: There were two pair work and one group work activities in the lessons you taught today but you didn't do any of those in the class...

T: No, I didn't do it

R: Why?

T: I find it difficult

R: Why do you find it difficult?

T: Because for doing group work, we have to make them sit together, they need to discuss. The duration of each class is 40 mins here out of which 10 mins passes in starting the class. So we get 30-35 mins for each class. It is very difficult to do these activities in this short span of time.

R: So it is the duration of the class.

T: Yes, the class timing and the problem with seating arrangement

R: What do u mean by 'seating arrangement'?

T: Their seating style—they sit on long bench. Here 5 students sit on one bench. We can not take 2 students and make them pair.

R: Did ELTIP show you how to do pair work and group work in other ways?

T: Yes, they did but in ELTIP training, we used to sit on chairs and tables like we are sitting here. So when we were asked to do pair work or group work, we just used to turn around the chairs. But here it is not possible. Moreover, we have to teach in classes where more than hundred students sit together. It is difficult to do pair work or group work in such huge classes. It'll create noise. Class size is a big problem. We can not make students draw posters in class. We can't apply half of the lessons we learn in training. The environment we get in teacher training and the environment we get here are quite different. Doing the activities like group work, pair work that we learned in ELTIP training is difficult to implement here. Just for the contextual reason, these things are not suitable for us. It is difficult to implement here.

R: Hmm. Is there anything else that you find difficult to implement in classroom?

T: yes, there are some other issues. I am the Assistant Head Master of this school. Look at my routine. For the shortage of teachers, I have to take 6 classes per day. On the top of that, I have to do administrative works. For the workload, I don't get time for preparing myself for the classroom teaching but we were taught to take preparation before teaching. The teachers of this school are all very sincere. They have too many classes in one day. Everyday, a teacher has to work for 7 hours. So for the circumstances, we can't apply almost half of the things we learn in training. Even after having good intention, the circumstance does not allow us to implement the lesson we learn in teacher training. It would have been better if we had more teachers for the school.

Transcription conventions: T=Teacher, R: Researcher

Appendix 9: Data Analysis with NVivo

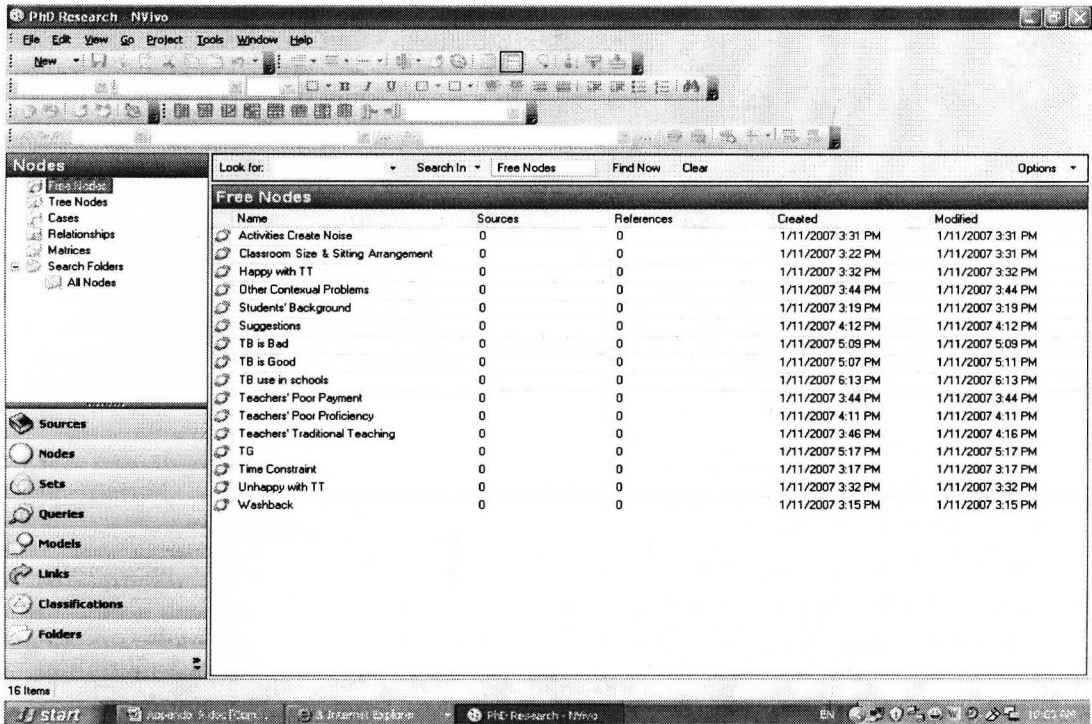


Figure 6: 'Free Nodes' generated at the early stage of the project

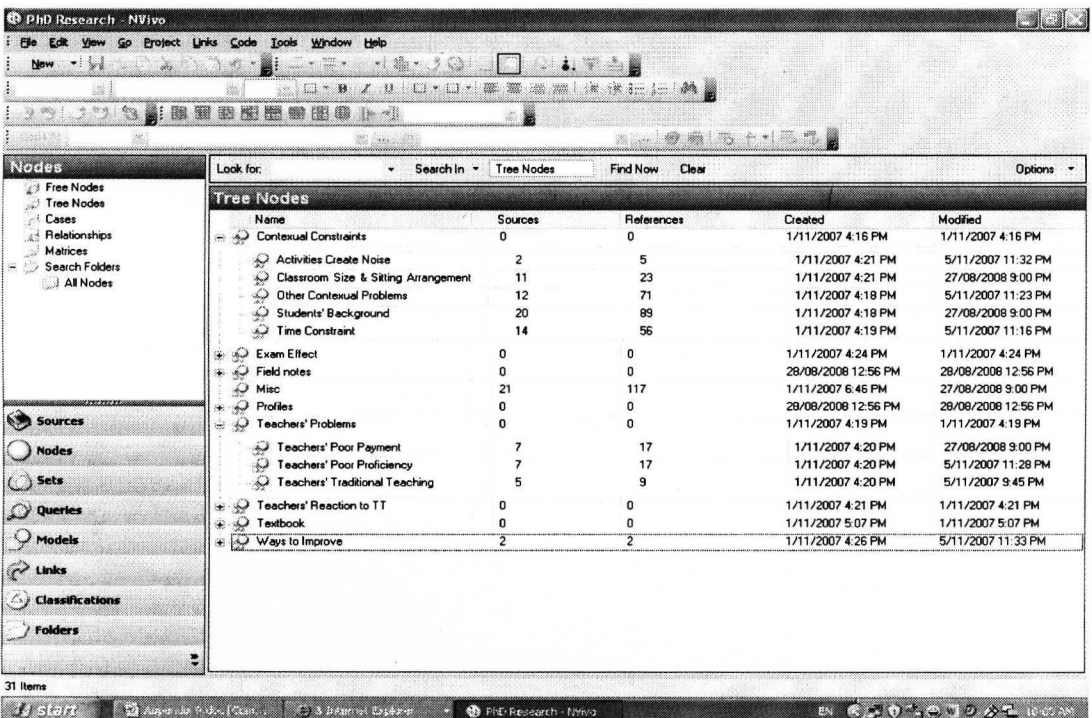


Figure 7: View of 'Tree Nodes'. Two of the Tree Nodes have been opened to reveal the hierarchies

Appendix 10: Sample of Course Outline

Subject : English (1st Paper) First Terminal Examination Syllabus

A. Reading Test

Book : English for Today

Lesson ; Unit 14 – Unit 17 (Revision of class IX 1st term +
2nd term syllabus)

Items :

MCQ

True / False

Fill in the blanks with / without clues

Information Transfer

Questions

Rewriting in a different form Summarising

B. Vocabulary Test

(i) Close passage with clues

(ii) Close passage without clues

C. Writing Test

Substitution Table Rearranging

Answering questions in a paragraph

Writing informal letters with clue / hints

Paragraphs :

- Your Visit To National Memorial
- Your School Library
- How To Do Well In The Examination
- Opening A Bank Account
- Dangers Of Smoking
- Your School magazine

Letters :

- To your father asking him to send money to buy some books and necessary articles.
- To your cousin congratulating her on her brilliant success in the SSC Examination.
- To your brother advising him to take part in games and sports.
- To your friend describing the prize giving ceremony of your school.
- To your cousin informing her the procedure of gaining admission into a college.
- To your pen friend describing the food and food habits of the people of Bangladesh.

Rearrangement of sentences : Unseen

Appendix 11: Sample of a Lesson in the Textbook

Lesson 7 Exam fitness

Objectives : By the end of the lesson you will have

- looked at an exam schedule and asked questions about it
- read a text and written down expressions
- made a list of tips that are mentioned in the text
- listed the tips you follow and marched with your partner's
- designed a poster

A Look at the exam schedule and ask your partner the following questions.

Day and Dates	subject	Time
21 July Monday	Bangla	8 - 10:30
22 July Tuesday	History	8 - 10:30
23 July Wednesday	English Language II	1 - 1:30
24 July Thursday	English Literature	11 - 1:30
25 July Friday	maths	8 - 10:30

What is the exam before the English Language exam?

How long is the English exam?

When is the Maths exam?

B Read the following text and guess the meanings of the underlined words.

Exam strategies

Strategy is an appropriate word to use for your approach to the examination on the day. It has been said that about 50 percent of your chances of success relate to your examination skill rather than to your subject knowledge.

So check and double-check your exam dates and times. Check what you are allowed and what you are not allowed to take in with you and have these ready the day before.

Reserve your time. Do not waste time elaborating adequate answers if you ought to be moving to the next question. Always attempt to answer all the questions.

Follow the instructions. It is a good idea to double-check this before the exam. Read through the whole question paper before starting to write. Take each question as you come to it and think how you might cope with it. Then move on to the next question and do the same again.

By the time you get to the last question, you will have found the questions easier than they seemed at first glance. Spend at least five minutes per question thinking about and planning your answer. This is never a waste of time.

Underline the key words in the questions that indicate what you are required to do. Again, it is useful half way through writing the answer, to check back that you

are doing what you should. Make your answer legible. You can't change your handwriting but if it is very tiny or very large use double spacing to make it easy on the eye for the reader.



C Use the underlined expressions in the appropriate blank.

- 1 This is a new _____ to language teaching.
- 2 One should _____ one's writing before submitting it.
- 3 The place looked beautiful _____.
- 4 You don't need to _____ your cause in an application.
- 5 You are _____ to submit your certificates.
- 6 He has to _____ the document before signing it.
- 7 Once you are _____ the exam you should recheck your timing.

D Read the text on exam strategies again and make a list of the tips that are mentioned. One is done for you.

Tip 1

Use your time wisely in the exam. Plan how much time you will spend on each question you are answering.

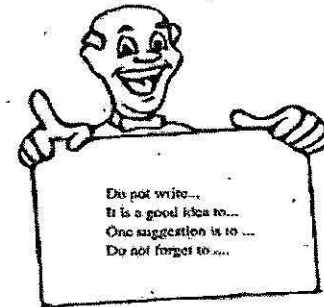
Tip 2

Tip 3

E Now write down which of the above tips you follow when you are taking an exam. Then ask your partner which of the above tips s/he follows. Match your answers. For example,

Do not read all the questions before I start writing
but my partner doesn't
My partner always
keeps extra pens and
I don't

F Design a poster mentioning some of the exam tips you think your friends should follow. You can use the given expressions.



Appendix 12: Sample of Teaching Instruction

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Lesson 7: Exam fitness **Unit 15**

Objectives: By the end of the lesson learners will have

- Looked at an exam schedule and asked questions about it
- Read a text and written down expressions
- Made a list of tips that are mentioned in the text
- Listed the tips you follow and matched with your partner's
- Designed a poster

Focus:

Skills	Functions	Grammar/Structure	Vocabulary
Writing, speaking	Giving instructions	imperatives	Strategy, budget (v), elaborate, cope with, half through

A. (3 mins) Ask SS to look at the exam schedule. Tell them to ask the questions to their partners. The answers will be:
History exam
The English exam is 2 ½ hours long
The math exam is 27th July

B. (7 mins) Ask SS to read the text. Tell them that the text is about techniques that they can follow for better exam preparation. Ask them to write down the meanings of the expressions given in the box. The answers will be:
an approach: An approach is a method of doing something or dealing with a problem. They are following a new approach to language teaching
double check: Double check is checking for the second time in order to be sure of something. He double-checked those locks.
to cope with: to be successful in solving a problem or situation. The country is coping with the flood situation.
at first glance: on the first look. She liked the pencil box at the first glance.
to budget: a plan of how a person should spend time or money. My time for rest has already been budgeted.
to elaborate: to describe in detail. He elaborated his plans.
read through: to read something carefully for finding out mistakes. He read through the exam paper again.
required: needed. You are required to pay back the advance in four instalments.
half way through: in the middle. When she was half way through the road, she remembered that she had forgotten to bring her diary.

C. (8 mins) The correct answers are:

1. This is a new approach to language teaching.
2. One should double-check one's writing before submitting it.
3. The place looked beautiful at first glance.
4. You don't need to elaborate your cause in an application.
5. You are required to submit your certificates.
6. He read through the document before signing it.
7. Once you are half way through the exam, you should recheck your timing.

D (10 mins). Ask SS to read the text again. Tell them to make a list of the tips given on the text

Tip 2

Budget your time. Do not waste time

Tip 3

Double check your exam dates and times

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E. (7 Mins) Ask SS to find out the tips that they follow. Tell them to ask their partners of the tips that they follow. Answers of this question will vary from person to person. Ask them to see the examples in the text.

F: (10 mins) Ask SS to design a poster mentioning some of the exam strategies they might find helpful.

Vocabulary
Strategy: plan. He has a good effective strategy to manage the problem.
Budget: a plan of how a person should spend time or money. My time for rest has already been budgeted.
Elaborate: to describe in detail. He elaborated his plans.
Cope with: to be successful in solving a problem or situation. The country is coping with the flood situation.
Half way through: in the middle. When she was half way through the road, she remembered that she had forgotten to bring her diary

Appendix 13: Sample of SSC Question

BARISAL BOARD-2006

Part A. Reading Test

Read the passage carefully and answer the questions following it. Strategy is an appropriate word to use for your approach to the examination on the day. It has been said that about 50 per cent of your chances of success relate to your examination skill rather than to your subject knowledge.

So check and double-check your exam dates and times. Check what you are allowed and what you are not allowed to take in with you and have these ready the day before. Budget your time. Do not waste time elaborating adequate answers if you ought to be moving to the next question. Always attempt to answer all the questions. Follow the instructions. It is a good idea to double-check this before the exam. Read through the whole question paper before starting to write. Take each question as you come to it and think how you might cope with it. Then move on to the next question and do the same again.

By the time you get to the last question, you will have found the questions easier than they seemed at first glance. Spend at least five minutes per question thinking about and planning your answer. This is never a waste of time.

Underline the key words in the questions that indicate what you are required to do. Again, it is useful half way through writing the answer, to check back that you are doing what you should. Make your answer legible. You can't change your handwriting but if it is very tiny or very large use double spacing to make it easy on the eye for the reader.

- Choose the best answer from the alternatives. 1x5=5
 - The key to success in the examination is ———.
 - ability (ii) cleverness (iii) skill (iv) intelligence
 - The things that you need to take with you in the examination centre should be ready ———.
 - well ahead of time (ii) in time (iii) before the examination starts (iv) the day before
 - While taking the examination, your time is to be ———.
 - budgeted (ii) allocated (iii) planned (iv) estimated
 - contained in the questions are to be underlined.
 - Central ideas (ii) Important sentences
 - Main words (iii) Decisive Items (iv)
 - Thinking and planning about a question is not a ———.
 - misuse of time (ii) good idea
 - right approach (iii) requirement (iv)
- Write whether the following statements are true or false. If false, give the correct answer. 5
 - Almost 50 per cent of success in the examination depends on skill.
 - Double-checking is good for giving correct answer.
 - It is unwise to elaborate answer unnecessarily.
 - Easy questions are only to be attempted.
 - There is no need of double space to make the hand writing readable.

- Fill in the each gap with a suitable word from the box. There are more words than necessary. 5x10=50

mistake	spend	planning	changes	easier	relate
checking	thinking	read	through	follow	strategy

As regards to the examination (a) — is very important. It is because 50% of (b) — of success depend on technique. Dates and times necessitate proper (c) —. Before the start of the examination an examinee should (d) — the whole question so as to avoid (e) —. All the questions appearing hard become (f) —, if he goes (g) — the whole question paper. He could (h) — five minutes in each question (i) — and (j) — on it.

- Read the passage in 'A'. Now, write a paragraph based on the information about the 'Exam fitness'. Use the clues in the box below. Write the information in the logical sequence as it appears in the text. 1x5=5

approach	time	instructions	spend	change	the reader
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- Answer the following questions in your own words by reading the passage in 'A' again. 1x5=5
 - What is strategy?
 - How do you spend your time?
 - What do you do as soon as you get the question paper?
 - Why is skill important?
 - When do the questions become easier than they appeared on the first look?

- Fill in each gap with a suitable word of your own, based on the information from the text in 'A'. 5x10=50
An examinee needs to (a) — to answer all the questions and to (b) — the instructions. It is a good (c) — to (d) — through the entire question paper before (e) — the answers. Then what he has to do is to (f) — the (g) — words as to know what he (h) — asked to (i) —. Answers are of course, to be made (j) —.
- You are taking the English examination at this moment. Now, write in about 70—80 words how you are approaching the examination. 1x5=5
- Read the passage in 'A' again. Now, write the main ideas contained in the text in not more than five sentences. 1x5=5

Part B. Vocabulary Test

- Fill in each gap with a suitable word from the box. There are more words than necessary. 10

Also	anger	overloaded	sitting	pulled	reached
happened	whom	exactly	opposite	chatting	As

- Complete the following passage, using suitable words. Use only one word for each gap. 10
After a pause the plane (a) — taking. Then it raced down the runway and after a (b) — with a jerk, it (c) — off. Masum (d) — down from his window and saw buildings and trees looking (e) — miniatures. (f) — roads looked like snakes, so (g) — the rivers. He saw soft white clouds floating by. There (h) — clouds around him. He was (i) —. He felt like (j) — the clouds.

Part C. Writing Test

- Read the following table and make ten correct sentences. 1x10=10

It	open	us together to keep our traditional heritage high
Traders and shop-keepers	writes	a lasting impression on our mind
Socio-cultural organizations	have drawn up	a cultural calendar on this day
Shilpokala Academy	keeps	with traditional festivities across the country
Students	is observed	the first month of the Bangla year
	organises	elaborate programmes to commemorate it
	celebrate	Pahela Baishakh today
		fresh account books, offering sweets to their customers
		also a public holiday
		the day by bringing out a colourful procession

- Rearrange the following sentences according to sequence and rewrite them in a paragraph. 10
 - He took the lion's paw in his hand and removed a big thorn from it.
 - His master was very bad and inflicted heavy torture on him.
 - Androcles was very home-sick.
 - One day he fled from his master's house and took shelter in a cave.
 - The lion seemed wounded as he was growling.
 - He was caught by a slave-merchant who sold him to a rich man in another country.
 - The lion was relieved of his pain.
 - Once upon a time there lived a young man named Androcles.
 - He came near Androcles and lifted his paw.
 - In the evening a lion entered the cave.
- Write a paragraph in about 100 words about "Your mother" following the questions given below: 10
 - How old is your mother? (b) What is she? (c) How does she look after the family? (d) What household chores and religious duties does she do? (e) What qualities of hers attract you most?
- Suppose, you are Hanif/Ferdousi of Barisal. Your friend Ram/Rekha lives in Rajshahi. He/She wants to know what you intend to do after the SSC Examination. Write a letter to your friend telling him/her about what you want to do. 10
- Or, Write a composition in about 200 words about "Your Daily Life". Use the following clues: 10
— Your morning activities; — Your work before school; — Your acts in school; — Your duties in the afternoon; — Things you do at night.