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Dr. Md. Enamul Hoque
Executive Editor

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Assessment Literacy and ESL/EFL Teachers

Prof. M. Maniruzzaman, PhD, PDW*

Abstract

Assessment is inseparably associated with ESL/EFL curriculum/course objectives and instructional techniques. Achieving learning outcomes indispensably depends on proper alignment of objectives, instruction, and assessment. Assessment literacy provides essential information on dealing with the varied facets of assessment modifying objectives, enhancing instruction, and facilitating learning. Hence, to be competent in assisting learners to achieve learning outcomes, ESL/EFL teachers need acquire assessment literacy in addition to knowledge of curriculum/course objectives and instructional strategies. This paper examines the pertinence of assessment literacy to ESL/EFL teachers.

Keywords: *Assessment, EFL/ESL, learning curriculum, literacy, instruction*

1. Introduction

Curriculum/course objectives, instructional strategies and assessment are inextricably interrelated and interdependent especially in second/foreign language education. To ensure the achievement of the learning outcomes, the establishment of appropriate alignment of these three components is as critical as demanding (Burger, 2008). Assessment literacy imparts imperative information on addressing the different issues relating to assessment contributing to modifying objectives and instruction in particular.

Assessment literacy provides trainee teachers with knowledge of and training in the varied measurements – traditional and alternative (NCLRC, 2004) administered in classrooms so as to determine students' progress, determine their general proficiency, diagnose the effectiveness of teaching, evaluate the impacts and appropriateness of materials (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010), ensure accountability of the teacher to him/herself, the administration and the students (Popham, 2009), and improve the institution in general based on their findings besides fine-tuning outcomes, revising the curriculum and instruction, and refining the assessment methods themselves (Greater Expectations Project on Accreditation and Assessment (2004). It is a prerequisite for a second/foreign language

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teacher to acquire essential professional competency to be enhanced by a well-planned and well-implemented professional development program embodying assessment literacy as one of its core components. This is because without assessment knowledge and expertise a teacher evidently remains ignorant about one of the three major constituents of a language course/program, and is hence incapable of employing proper instructional strategies resulting in the expected learning outcomes.

2. Assessment of Learning or Assessment for Learning

To master relevant, required, balanced and adequate assessment literacy, a teacher needs to have both theoretical and practical information about the varied aspects of assessment. First, he/she has to learn what assessment is, how it is different from testing and evaluation, and what the purpose and function of an assessment are (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010; Coombe et al., 2007). Second, he/she has to learn to analyze and evaluate the designing, administering and scoring of a test by using the cornerstones– usefulness, validity, reliability, practicality, authenticity, beneficial washback, transparency, and security suggested by Coombe et al. (2007). Third, he/she has to understand and be trained in constructing and employing different kinds of assessments, especially “summative assessment” used periodically to assess what students know and do not know at a specific point in time, and “formative assessment” exploited as part of the instructional process and as a tool providing the information required to adjust teaching and learning while occurring (Burger, 2008). Fourth, a teacher has to learn to appropriately align an assessment with his/her instructional strategies and the course objectives/learning outcomes set according to Blooms’ Taxonomy and the ABCD format (Burger, 2008; Forehand, 2005; Maryland Faculty Online, 2001). Fifth, he/she has to acquire knowledge of alternative, authentic, and performance-based assessments (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996) such as peer-assessment, self-assessment, portfolio assessment (Davis & Ponnampuruma, 2005), project-based assessment (George Lucas Educational Foundation, 2001; Railsback, 2002) and so on complementing the traditional ones including particularly paper-and-pencil tests (NCLRC, 2004; Brown & Hudson, 1998). Sixth, a teacher has to have training in constructing and using scoring rubrics and checklists (NCLRC, 2004; Folse, 2006) immensely facilitating self-assessment, peer-assessment and portfolios in particular. Last but not least, he/she has to learn, believe, and practice that assessment is not of learning, but for learning.

“When classroom assessments are conceived as assessments for learning, rather than assessments of learning, students will learn better what their teacher wants them to learn” (Popham, 2009, p. 11). Hence is

the importance of assessment literacy that assists a teacher to be capable of facilitating learning.

Popham (2009) propounds a set of skills and knowledge a teacher needs to use assessment effectively: being aware of students' hidden skills and knowledge, ensuring reliability and validity of assessment tools, detecting and judging assessment bias, constructing and selecting appropriate test items, using rubrics, learning to design and score diverse assessment strategies/techniques, constructing and exploiting formative assessment procedures, collecting and interpreting students' attitudes, interests and values, interpreting students' performances on oft-administered standardized examinations, assessing students with disabilities, preparing students for high-stakes tests, and determining the appropriateness of accountability tests for appraising the quality of instruction. Similarly, Stiggins (2007) claims that assessment literate teachers should be able to (a) understand what assessment methods to use, and when to use them in order to gather dependable information about student achievement; (b) communicate assessment results effectively to all intended users – including principals, other teachers, parents and students – whether using report card grades, test scores, portfolios, or conferences; and (c) understand how to use assessment to maximize student motivation and learning by involving students as full partners in assessment, record-keeping, and communication. When we reflect upon what we learned during the past nine weeks (summed up in the previous 6 episodes), we cannot help espousing and countenancing what Popham (2001, 2004, 2006, 2007, 2008, & 2009) and Stiggins (2007) conceive, clarify, claim, conclude, and contend.

Conclusion

However, while most agree that teachers need to assess students' progress (National Education Association, 1983; Schafer, 1993), many teachers have a limited background in assessment fundamentals (Popham, 2009). Malone (2011, p. 2) perfectly maintains: "Language assessment and language teaching go hand in hand. The best teaching involves high-quality assessment practices, and great assessment provides positive washback to the teaching and learning process. Educators need a strong background in assessment literacy in order to implement effective assessment practices in their classrooms and programs." Thus, it is evident that assessment literacy especially for ESL/EFL teachers is fundamental to effective classroom teaching and learning.

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Teaching to the EFL Curriculum or Teaching to the Test: An Investigation

Dr. M. Enamul Hoque*

Abstract

There is an in-depth relation between testing, teaching, and learning. Test objectives determine the teaching objectives. Testing strongly influences the classroom activities. The key objectives of the study were to examine classroom teaching as a phenomenon relating to those areas that were most likely to be directly affected by the HSC examination in English. Three internationally used classroom observation schedules COLT, UCOS, and Self-made Observation checklist were used for data collection. The study observed 10 EFL classes in 10 different colleges in Bangladesh. During the classroom observation, 10 EFL teachers and their 511 students were observed. The findings of the study show that, in most of the cases, tests narrow down the syllabus and curriculum, influence the selection of lesson contents, and alter teaching methods and materials. The study indicates that the curriculum corresponds to the textbook, while the EFL public examination does not represent the curriculum and textbook that there is a negative washback of the HSC examination on EFL teaching and learning. The areas mostly influenced by washback are found to be those related to the immediate classroom contexts: (i) teachers' choice of materials, (ii) teaching methods, (iii) classroom tasks and activities, (iv) perceptions of teachers and the learners on the examination, (v) teaching strategies, and (vi) learning outcomes. The study is potentially significant in that it offers educators and policymakers insights into English language teaching and learning at the HSC level. Most importantly, it highlights the voices of teachers and students, the very important people at the centre of the teaching and learning process. It finally advocates the needs for further research on the potential areas of washback.

Keywords: Test, testing, examination, washback, EFL, curriculum

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1. Introduction

In applied linguistics, the influence of testing on teaching and learning has been referred to as washback. In the field of applied linguistics, the concept of a test influencing teaching and learning in the language learning classroom was rarely discussed until the early 1990s (Andrews, 2004; Bailey, 1996; Cheng, 1997). A "high-stakes" test can directly and powerfully influence how teachers teach and students learn. Testing is often seen as both a necessary evil and a vehicle for effecting educational change, especially when the educational system is driven by tests or examinations. In this study, the terms *assessment* and *test* are used interchangeably with *examination*, as has also been done in educational literature. The term "public examination" is synonymous with an external examination or a test that is administered by external agencies or forces to evaluate learning products or results with a decisive consequence or influence on test-takers (Alderson, 1986; Shohamy, 1992).

Testing is one of the basic components of any curriculum, and plays a pivotal role in determining what learners learn. Pearson (1988) points out that "public examinations influence the attitudes, behaviours, and motivation of teachers, learners and parents, and because examinations often come at the end of a course, this influence is seen working in a backward direction, hence the term 'washback'" (p. 98). The Bangladesh education system is characterised as being examination-driven. At various levels of education, it is a common practice that teachers teach to the test. Test scores are viewed both as a marker of students' academic success and as the premise to their future career. It has long been widely recognised that a high-stakes test such as the HSC public examination can have a major impact on educational systems and on the societies. In addition, washback has been generally perceived as being bipolar – either negative (harmful) or positive (beneficial). The research investigated washback of the HSC examination on teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

In Bangladesh, English language is taught as a foreign language (EFL), and practiced within a context-restricted environment in which the determiners of language learning phenomenon depend on classroom activities, determined by the classroom teacher. HSC level students study English subject comprising two papers carrying 200 marks; and they sit for the public examination at the end of two years of study. It is often assumed that washback exists to influence teaching and learning to a certain extent. So, it needs to examine whether this public examination influences English language teaching and learning. This influence is termed as washback which may be positive or negative towards language teaching and learning. Hence, it is very crucial to find out which aspect of washback

dominates English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching and learning at the HSC level in Bangladesh.

1.1. EFL Teaching and Testing at the Higher Secondary Level

The HSC English is based on the communicative approach to teaching a foreign language, and emphasises students' communicative competence. The HSC examination is an achievement test. Although it refers to the syllabus, it seldom takes teaching contents into consideration. This causes the separation of tests from teaching the syllabus, which, in turn, causes students to value tests more than regular class performance. The major part of the present HSC examination is mainly composed of vocabulary items, matching, rearranging, grammatical, cloze test questions, and restricted composition items. It has been proved by evidence that students who take these types of tests can significantly increase their scores "artificially", and consequently affects students' systematic mastery of the fundamental knowledge and integrated skills of English, and hinders students' development of communicative competence.

Those who set question papers may be academically highly qualified, but hardly have any training in question paper setting and modern approaches to assessment. The examiners do not receive any formal guidelines for scoring/evaluation of the answer scripts; they prefer to check scripts as quickly as possible. The question papers are hardly representative of the entire curriculum. Teachers and students mostly rely on guidebooks, model questions, and suggestions book for the preparation for the examination. The prescribed textbooks are hardly followed. There are 'model question papers', or 'guide books' available in the market with ready-made answers based on recently past years' questions. Teachers and students tend to rely on such guides and put their content to memory. The HSC examination, thus, has become a dreadful thing and an end in itself rather than a means to achieve educational objectives of improving teaching and learning and raising standards and quality of education. Students are fearful of examination, and at times unsuccessful students commit suicide.

The education system in Bangladesh is presently undergoing a reform that includes syllabuses and curriculums, examinations, textbook materials, organisational and responsibility changes.

The new English curriculum developed by the NCTB as a framework for the examination makes explicit opportunities of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach as the official orientation of the teaching of languages in the country based on Bachman (2000), Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980), and Cheng (1997)

among others. Despite the present syllabus being communicative, it is observed that, there is not sufficient evidence of teaching the two important skills: listening, and speaking. Testing of listening and speaking are ignored in the examination. Therefore, the validity of the HSC examination in English is doubtful in term of testing communicative competence.

1.2. Relations of Testing to Teaching and Learning

The influence of a test on the classroom is, of course, very important; washback effect can be either beneficial or harmful. Teachers as well as their students tailor their classroom activities to the demands of the test, especially when the test is very important for the future of the students. Pierce (1992) states that the washback effect is sometimes referred to as the systemic validity of a test. Bachman and Palmer (1996) have discussed washback as a subset of a test's impact on society, educational systems, and individuals. Alderson and Wall (1993) consider washback as the way that tests are perceived to influence classroom practices, and syllabus and curriculum planning. Cohen (1994) describes washback in terms of how assessment instruments influence educational practices and beliefs. Public examinations are often used as instruments to select students as well as a means to control a school system, and are commonly believed to have an impact on teaching and learning. Given that external tests or public examinations have exerted an influence on teachers and students with an associated impact on what happens in classrooms, such a phenomenon is denoted as “washback” or “backwash” (Alderson, 1986; Baily, 1996; Pearson, 1988; Hughes, 1989). As tests have the power to select, motivate and reward, so too can they de-motivate and punish.

According to Alderson and Wall (1993), the notion that testing influences teaching is referred to as ‘backwash’ in general education circles, but it has come to be known as ‘washback’ in applied linguistics (p. 11). Washback and backwash are now interchangeably used in both EFL and ESL research of applied linguistics (Bailey, 1996). Washback or backwash has been defined as “a part of the impact a test may have on learners and teachers, on educational systems in general, and on society at large” (Hughes, 2003, p. 53). Testing has been used for decades, but concerns about its influence have recently increased. Davies et al. (2000) define ‘impact’ by as “the effect of a test on individuals, on educational systems and on society in general” (P. 79). With this increased concern, the influence of tests has been officially termed as ‘washback’ or ‘backwash’, and used as an impact in the field of language testing. Washback appears to be a concern in education in general. This study, however, focuses on washback on SL/FL education. Specifically, the EFL

test in the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) examination is the subject matter of the present study.

1.3. Teaching Syllabuses and Curriculums

A curriculum is a vital part of the EFL classes, and washback has deep relation with the syllabus and curriculum. Test contents can have a very direct washback effect upon teaching curricula. It provides a focus for the class and sets goals for the students throughout their study. A curriculum also gives the student a guide and idea to what they will learn, and how they have progressed when the course is over. Many researchers (e.g. Bailey, 1996; Wall & Alderson, 1993, Wang, 2010; Hsu, 2009) of high-stakes tests attest that tests are responsible for narrowing the school curriculum by directing teachers to focus only on those subjects and skills that are included in the examinations. As a consequence, such tests are said to “dominate and distort the whole curriculum” (Green, 2007). A test was considered to have beneficial washback, when preparation for it did not dominate teaching and learning activities narrowing the curriculum. When a test reflected the aims and the syllabus of the course, it was likely to have beneficial washback, but when the test was at variance with the aims and the syllabus, it was likely to have harmful washback. Alderson and Wall (1993) put forward the 15 hypotheses, highlighting more specifically some of the ways in which a test might affect teaching and learning. The following are the hypotheses that relate to syllabus, curriculum, and teaching contents:

- (3) A test will influence what teachers teach; and
- (5) A test will influence what learners learn; and
- (7) A test will influence the rate and sequence of teaching ; and
- (11) A test will influence attitudes to the content, method, etc. of teaching and learning (ibid).

Examination should reflect the syllabus and curriculum, and since not everything in a curriculum can be tested in an examination, the areas that are assessed should be ones that are considered important. It is also important that, same items and contents should not be tested again and again. Insofar as possible, modes of testing (e.g., written, practical, oral) should be diverse to reflect the goals of curricula. The format and contents of the public examination should be reorganized every year. The use of commercially produced clone tests materials in the class should be discouraged. Teaching to the test universally occurs in either the practice of frontloading or backloading. If a high match exists between the curriculum and the test, teaching to the test is inevitable and desired. Otherwise, the data produced by the test is not useful in improving teaching and learning. In this case, using tests as the source to develop

curriculum runs the risk of accepting and defining learning only in terms of what is tested in the test

The test leads to the narrowing of contents in the curriculum. Tests can affect curriculum and learning (Alderson & Wall, 1993). Shohamy et al. define curriculum alignment as “the curriculum is modified according to test results” (1996, P.6). The findings from the studies about washback onto the curriculum indicate that it operates in different ways in different situations, and that in some situations it may not operate at all. Learners follow a ‘hidden’ syllabus, that is, the contents driven by the contents of examination. Alderson and Wall (1993) conclude from their Sri Lanka study that ‘the examination has had a demonstrable effect on the content of language lessons’ (p, 126-127). This effect is that of the narrowing of the curriculum to those areas most likely to be tested. This finding is similar to that of Lam (1994) who has reported an emphasis in teaching on those parts of the exam carrying the most marks.

1.4. Teaching to the Test or Teaching to the Curriculum

Teaching to the test--the very words has always been heresy to educators. ‘Teaching to the test’ puts too much emphasis on standardized tests that are poorly constructed and largely irrelevant, the theory goes; it stifles creativity and encourages cheating. Vallette (1994) suggests that washback is particularly strong in situations where the students’ performance on a test determines future career options. In such case, teachers often feel obliged to teach to the test, especially if their effectiveness as a teacher is evaluated by how well their students perform.

Negative washback is said to create a narrowing of the curriculum in the classroom so that teachers and learners focus solely on the areas to be tested. On the other hand, there have been attempts to generate positive washback by means of examination reform to encourage teachers and learners to adopt more modern communicative approaches to language learning. When the examination does that, it forces learners and teachers to concentrate on these goals; and the washback effect on the classroom is very beneficial.

The assumption that frontloading alignment prevents teaching to the test is often not the case, in terms that teaching to the test still occurs under the practice of frontloading. If the curriculum and the test correspond to each other, teaching to the test is inevitable and desired. The extent to which a test is useful to a given curriculum is the extent to which the test indeed measures the curriculum in the first place. In the alignment by frontloading, examining the test itself is one way to assess the test quality, in terms of determining whether anything on the instrument that ought not to be taught is tested or that ought to be taught is not tested.

A backloaded curriculum assumes "null curriculum"; that is, the content not tested or assessed in the test is not included in the curriculum. The act of "null curriculum" or "non-selection" is valued laden. The values not selected by the test makers represent an unknown element that may be at odds with local values.

2. Literature Review

Kellaghan et al. (1982) are the first who used the term in their work, "The effects of standardized testing" which has extensive potentials for the future researchers. After the work of Kellaghan et al. (1982), other researchers have taken interest to study test washback and to examine how it works on teaching and learning. Between 1980 and 1990, very little empirical research has been carried out to investigate the washback effect of examinations either in the field of general education or in the field of language education. The other earlier studies in this area are those carried out by Hughes (1988).

Brown (2000) defines washback as "the connection between testing and learning" (p. 298). Gates (1995) defines washback simply as "the influence of testing on teaching and learning" (p. 101). Alderson and Wall (1993) define washback as the way that tests are (...) perceived to influence classroom practices, and syllabus and curriculum planning (p.17). The influence of the test on the classroom is washback.

Andrews (2004) sees washback as "an influence on teachers, learners, and parents, with an associated impact on what happens in classrooms" (p. 45). Washback sometimes referred to as backwash. Hughes (1989) states "the effect of testing on teaching and learning is known as backwash" (and this term, as he uses it, is synonymous to washback) (p.1). As can be seen, washback is a very complex notion. It can refer to the effect of an examination in the classroom, but also in the school, in the educational system and also in the society. Bailey (1996) states, "washback is the influence of testing on teaching and learning" (p.5).

Pearson (1988) states "Public examinations influence the attitudes, behaviours, and motivation of teachers, learners, and parents, and because examinations often come at the end of a course, this influence is seen working in a backward direction, hence the term, washback" (p.7). Cheng (2005) concurs that washback indicates "an intended or unintended (accidental) direction and function of curriculum change on aspects of teaching and learning by means of a change of public examinations" (p.112). Turner (2008) investigated high-stakes test impact at the classroom level in the province of Quebec. She looked at the implementation of a new ESL speaking exam at the Secondary Five level. She wanted to find out whether (1) the introduction of provincial ESL

speaking exam procedures affected teacher beliefs, (ii) the introduction of provincial ESL speaking exam procedures affected teaching practices, (iii) there would be a change or pattern in the relationship between teacher beliefs and behavior over time, and (iv) the introduction of provincial ESL speaking exam procedures affected student beliefs

Tests can aid learning and teaching both if aimed to assess the required skills. Many research studies have been carried out on washback explicating that it can be either beneficial or harmful depending upon the contents and techniques (Alderson & Wall 1993; Bailey 1996, p. 257; Cheng & Falvey 2000). For example, if skills not required for every day communication are assessed, the test could leave harmful effect on teaching and learning, such as mechanical test of writing skills by giving multiple-choice questions on grammar. A great number of washback studies (e.g. Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, Cheng, 2004; Cheng, 2005; Ferman, 2004; Hawkey, 2006; Lam, 1994; Qi, 2005; Wall & Horak, 2006; Watanabe, 1996; Watanabe, 2004; Shih, 2007; Pan, 2009) focus on what takes place in the language classroom. Many researchers (e.g. Cheng 2004, Wall & Alderson, 1993; Turner 2007; Qi, 2004, 2005) find that content changes because of the test, but the way teachers instruct does not vary to any great degree. The changes were “superficial” (Cheng, 2005, p. 235), not substantial.

A majority of teachers tended to “teach to the test.” For example, Green (2007) and Hamp-Lyons, L. (1997) finds more test-related activities (e.g. offering test-taking tips, doing question analysis) in the IELTS preparation classes than in the EAP (English for academic purpose) classes. In addition, teachers’ beliefs and attitudes regarding the immediate goals of teaching and their own limited ability to use the language effectively contribute to their being unable to effect the positive changes (a shift in English language teaching to a more communicative orientation) the test developers intended to create Latimer (2009) Cheng (2004) asserts that inadequate training and teachers’ professional backgrounds lead to unchanged methodologies because they don’t know how to change, not that they do not want to change. A good number of researchers (e.g. Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1997; Watanabe, 2004; Shih, 2010), however, find that tests affected both how and what teachers taught but not all teachers reacted the same way to the same test. In many instances, teachers reported a greater sense of pressure from the tests (Watanabe, 2004; Burrows, 2004). Shohamy (1993); and Shohamy et al. (1996) also have discovered significant differences between experienced and novice teachers. The former tends to teach to the test and uses only material to be included in the test, while the latter uses different activities to teach oral language. Lam (1994) has reported that more experienced teachers tend to be significantly more “examination-oriented” (p. 91) than their younger

colleagues. The new teachers are found more sincere language teachers than the experienced or older ones. The more the teachers get experienced, the more the teachers teach to the test. The experienced teachers are relatively misguided by the examination, and thus, create very negative washback on their teaching.

3. Research Design and Methodology

The present study is a qualitative research carried out at the HSC level in Bangladesh. The data collection mainly involved classroom observations through three standard observation schedules. The researcher observed 10 EFL classes in 10 different higher secondary colleges in Bangladesh. Upon selection of teachers for the study, specific class sessions were chosen for observation. During the observation, 10 EFL teachers and their 511 students were observed. This approach was chosen based on three aspects of the study: the type of problem to be addressed, the goal of the study, and the nature of the data.

3.1. Profile of the Participants

The participating EFL teachers were working at ten different colleges both in urban and rural areas. Of the 10 participants, 4 were females and 6 were males. Each has a teaching experience of more than 10 years (Table 1). Their teaching hours ranged from 8-12 hours per week. Two participants reported having received teacher training in ELT, and one teacher claimed to have been exposed to task-based activities. Teachers are termed as T1, T2, T3..... T10 as described below:

Table 1: General characteristics of the participants observed

General Characteristics of the Participants	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10
Sex	M	F	M	F	F	M	M	F	M	M
No. of years of teaching experience	15	19	13	10	14	15	12	17	11	9
No. of teaching hours per week	10	12	8	12	10	12	8	10	12	12
Class size (No. of students in class)	49	55	74	62	50	42	56	63	51	77
Experience of being in an English-speaking country	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Training in teaching methodology	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

3.2. Instrument

The present researcher conducted classroom observations for obtaining relevant data to investigate whether the HSC examination influence the teachers’ teaching pattern and behaviours. For this, three observation schedules were applied: (i) the Communicative Orientation to

Language Teaching (COLT) Scheme, (ii) University of Cambridge Classroom Observation Schedule (UCOS), and (iii) the Self-made Checklist (Further Analysis). In this study, detailed notes of the activities and episodes were taken during the lessons using the schedules suitable for specific activities. The Self-made Checklist (Further Analysis) covers a number of things that the teachers talked about the HSC examination in English, strategies recorded throughout the lessons, teacher-student interaction not covered by COLT and UCOS, sources of the materials used on the preparation courses and the extent to which the teacher adapted the materials to suit the specific needs of the class, topics appearing in the materials used, homework and instances of laughter or shouting as an indication of the overall atmosphere. These were recorded and analysed separately. For example, features such as the teacher giving the students information about the examination or discussing test-taking strategies was specific to the type of class being studied. Instances of the teacher working with individuals or small groups were not adequately reflected within the COLT analysis, which focused on the primary classroom activity.

3.3. Data Collection Procedures and Data Analysis

During the classroom observation, The classroom activities were designed to describe in order to investigate such aspects as whether the lesson was student-centred or teacher-centred, how many learning opportunities were provided, and what pedagogical materials teachers used in teaching, e.g. real-life materials, main textbook (English for Today) or practice examination papers. The present researcher ticked under the category of participant organisation and materials used during the observation, but noted under the category of time, activity type and activity content. The three observation schedules: COLT Scheme, UCOS, and the Self-made Checklist (Further Analysis) were applied simultaneously to record the relevant data. The major categories are briefly discussed below:

1) Observation Outline: The researcher checked on student-centered activities (e.g., pair-work, group work, individual work, role-play), and counted the percentage of class time spent on teacher-centered activities (e.g., teacher lecturing to the whole class without interactions with students– teacher presentations, explanations of sentences, reading aloud, translations, etc.). The purpose of exploring classroom organization patterns in teachers' instructional process was to find out who was holding the floor in the classroom.

2) Teachers' Instruction Dimensions: The researcher counted the frequency of explaining language points with a focus on language forms (e.g., explanation of sentence structures, rote practice and mechanical grammar exercises; explanation of vocabulary in a decontextualized

manner). He also calculated the frequency of involving students in meaning-based activities (e.g., discussion, role-play, comprehension exercises at the discourse-level, etc.).

3) Relevance to the Test: The researcher documented and analysed ‘use of class time’ spent on aural/oral aspects of English (e.g., listening practice, oral practice at the discourse level encouraged by the NCTB); frequency of giving information or advice about the HSC examination in English or test-taking strategies. This section was devised to discern whether and to what extent the teachers’ instruction was related to the HSC examination.

4) Medium of Instruction: The researcher observed whether the teachers used English/Bengali/half English/half Bengali/ in the class as a medium of instruction. This was designed to learn about the language used by the teachers in their instruction, and teaching method/ approach they applied.

5) Teaching Materials: The researcher observed and recorded the types of materials used in the class: textbooks, test-related materials (e.g., the past examination papers or simulated test papers, suggestion book/), audio or audio-visual materials, or other supplementary teaching materials. These were used for comparison with the characteristics of the HSC examination to determine whether the observed classroom phenomenon was related to the test. The observation participants disagreed to be audio and video recorded. All the observed lessons were recorded in writing. The observation instrument included observation schedules, note-taking sheets, pencils and a watch. During each observation, the observation schedule was filled in. The other raw and narrative data were also documented in writing.

4. Discussion and Presentation of Findings

Findings of the study focused teacher practice, the classroom scenarios portrayed involves their interaction patterns, various activities organised, focus of instruction (e.g., focus on knowledge or competence), skills practiced, materials used , personal behaviour and characteristics, and medium of instruction. The presentation and discussion of findings derived from different schedules and checklist are made one by one. First, the researcher presents and discusses the findings collected by COLT. Then, he reports the findings obtained from the use of UCOS. Finally, the present researcher offers the findings resulted from a self-made observation checklist.

4.1. Classroom Observation Schedule- COLT (Part-A)

The COLT focuses on: the English language syllabus at the HSC level, textbook materials used in practice, teachers' teaching behaviours, and teachers' beliefs, attitudes and perception related to test. The observation scheme (COLT) was consisted of five major categories including time, participant organisation, activity type, content, and material used. The present researcher ticked under the category of participant organisation and materials used during the observation, but made noted under the category of time, activity type and activity content.

4.2. Participant Organisation

Three basic patterns were observed whether the teacher was working with the whole class or not, whether the students were divided into groups or they were engaged in individual work, and whether they were engaged in-group work. For the purposes of this study, the ten teachers were anonymous and coded as T1 to T10. The class duration was 50 minutes. The findings are presented in the table:

Table 2: Distribution of (%) participant organization
[M=Mean, STVD= Standard Deviation]

Participation Organization	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	M	STDV
Teacher to students	71	67	51	44	78	58	79	77	74	76	67.5	12.36
Individual work	9	14	23	17	11	19	11	12	12	10	13.8	4.45
Group work	7	11	6	15	3	16	5	8	9	9	8.9	4.0
Pair work	13	8	20	24	8	7	5	3	5	5	9.3	7.0
Total (%)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	Average	

The classroom observation through the COLT found that teachers used maximum time of the class. It indicates that the teacher was the main focus of the lessons. It further proved that the class was teacher-centered. On average, more than half (67.5%) of the total class time was used by the teachers, while another 13.8% of the time involved individual work and tasks (including exchange of views).

It was found that T7 used 79% of class time, the highest amount, for his classroom teaching, whereas T4 used only 44% of class time, the lowest span of time. She (T4) used a considerable amount (24%) for pair work involving her students in a number of activities. With regard to participant organisation, the study found that most of the teachers (90%) occupied maximum class time indicating that the classroom was teacher-dominated rather than student-oriented. This practice is directly opposed to communicative language teaching (CLT). However, it was appreciative that T4's class was student- oriented one. She used the target language in

the class, and involved the students in the classroom activities. The present EFL curriculum has introduced CLT, and the textbook (*English for Today*) materials have been designed and developed in such a manner that, it can ensure practice in four basic skills of English language: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Classes are expected to be interactive with students actively participating in the classroom activities through pair work, group work, and individual work. But in reality, EFL teachers failed to achieve desired objectives set by the syllabus and curriculum.

4.3. Classroom Activity and Content

By investigating the content of the activities carried out in the classroom, the researcher explored the subject matter of the activities - what the teachers and the students were talking, reading, or writing about, or what they were listening to. Activity types were grouped into teacher activities and student activities. Findings relating to the content were again reported as a percentage of class time. The analysis of the ten classes of the 10 teachers (Table 3) showed (a) what types of activity were carried out in the lessons and how lessons were segmented according to the percentage of time devoted to them by the four teachers, and (b) who was holding the floor and in what ways.

Analysis of *participant organisation* indicated the predominance of teacher-fronted activities. This is reflected in content in the subcategory *Procedure*, which took up on average 12.7% of the class time. The largest content area was the sub-category broad, (i.e. the discussion of topics outside the immediate concern of the classroom, HSC examination related) and a significant amount of the class time categorised in this way was a reflection of the time the teacher spent speaking about the examination. The categories of procedure and broad accounted for nearly (12.7+64.1) 77% of the total class time (Table 3).

The discussion focusing on *narrow* subjects was limited to a brief discussion about their feelings about the results of a test. Language instruction played a significant role in the observed classes. Activities focusing on both vocabulary and grammar were the most common category of classroom content. The teacher and students spent some of the time working on new words, collocations and phrases. The *broad items* included the discussion of topics outside the immediate concern of the class room, test, materials, seriousness, counseling, etc. The present study found that more than 61% was spent for the broad items. It was also found that T10 used 67.26% as the highest amount of time spent for *Broad topic*, whereas T4 used 50% class time, the lowest amount of time for *Broad* purpose. The table below (Table 3) presents the details of classroom activities and contents taught:

Table 3: Content of lessons as a percentage of total class time

Content	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	M	STDV
Procedural Directives	17.54	8.85	9.9	8	10.33	12.5	11.5	13.25	19.25	16.5	12.7	3.84
Vocabulary	1.95	14.08	5.22	7	9.32	8.2	7.5	5.5	2.35	2.5	6.3	3.75
Pronunciation	0.1	1.53	1.48	2	0.89	1.1	2	1.25	0	1.25	0.88	0.68
Grammar	1.17	1.64	4.79	3.3	3.11	4.5	3.75	4.5	3.25	4.24	3.1	1.2
Spelling	0	0	0.33	0.5	1.25	1.0	1	1.5	0.25	0	0.6	0.55
Function	1.48	1.05	1.27	7	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.75	0	1.25	1.4	1.88
Discourse	4.09	0.93	4.61	3.5	2.5	2.1	3.25	0	2.75	0	2.6	1.6
Sociolinguistic	0	0.05	0.22	10	0	0.5	0	0	1	0.25	0.3	3.1
Vocabulary and Discourse	1.62	2.62	0.64	1	1.88	2.2	2	4.25	1.75	2	1.9	0.98
Vocabulary and Grammar	0.27	15.2	0.88	3.3	1.43	2.5	2.25	1.75	2	0.5	2.3	4.39
Narrow	4.6	0.14	2.22	4.4	4.6	3.5	4.25	3.5	3.25	4.25	3.7	1.39
Broad	67.18	53.91	68.44	50	63.19	60.4	61	62.75	64.15	67.26	64.1	5.9
Content total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	Average	

Broad topics occupied the major part of the class which was mainly the test; and this was not the really concern of the class. Vocabulary and grammar references were more prominent in Writing. The main focus in all 10 classes was on meaning with emphasis on discussion of broad topics. There was little focus on Narrow topics (almost absent in T2), which was to be expected, considering that the classes were meant for students and the focus of the course was HSC English syllabus, a topic which itself was classified as Broad as although it was the focus of the class, the test was an event outside the classroom. The teaching of language played a less significant role in all observed classes. A considerable part of the lessons in T2 was spent focusing on language, in particular vocabulary and vocabulary (16%) in combination with grammar. However, the teaching of vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar in the classes of all teachers took up considerably more time compared to other task. T4 was found more active than other teachers. She used 20% of class time for teaching direct communication (function, discourse, and sociolinguistics) purposes.

4.4. Content Control of Classroom Activities

The observation found that average more than 75% control lied with the teacher and their choice of the text. For an additional 25% (approximate) of the class- time the students shared control of the content of the lessons with the teacher, for example when the teacher asked the students to share their experience of sitting for the HSC examination, or how difficult they found a particular exercise. At no time did the students

alone decide on the content of the classes. The control of the content of the classroom activity was most commonly shared between the teacher, text and students and varied from 55% to 90%. For example, the teacher presented a text, and explained the exercise, and then allowed the students to work in pairs or small groups to work through it together.

The highest covered teacher- controlled classroom activities were found (90%) in the class of T7, whereas T4’s class was the lowest teacher controlled (52%). T7 was mostly occupied with the text and himself. He explained the text, tasks, and exercises on his own ways and sometimes (10%) asked his students whether they understood. Table 4 presents the average and individual results of content control expressed as percentage of each total class time for the three classes:

Table 4: Content control as a percentage of total class time

Content Control	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	Mean	STDV
Teacher/text	67	80	71	52	79	77	90	82	73	78	74.9	10.22
Teacher/text/ student	33	20	29	48	21	23	10	18	27	22	25.1	10.224
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	Average	

Communicative language teaching (CLT) requires students’ direct and active involvement for developing communicative competence, but the present researcher found it absent from the classroom. The study found that almost 90% teachers tried to control the contents, tasks, and activities for the cause of examination preparation. It is believed that the influence of examination leads the teachers to control the contents and classroom activities. It was found that the teachers talked about the HSC examination, and taught them how to prepare their students for the test.

4.5. Student Modality

Identifying the skills the students were involved in during the classroom activities is recorded in the section called ‘Student Modality’. Writing was the most common skill used by the students in the classes of all 10 observed teachers, representing average 51.5% of total class time. In some cases, while practising HSC model tests, they were mostly listening to the teacher explaining procedure, giving information related to HSC examination or checking answers to practice test materials. Again writing in combination with listening was the second most common modality at an average of 7.6% of the total class time. Details of the student modality are shown in the in the table (Table 5) below:

Table 5: Student modality as a percentage of total class time
(M=Mean, STDV=Standard Deviation)

Student Modality	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	M	STDV
Writing only %	48	52	42	55	56	59	52	54	48	49	51.5	4.9
Speaking only %	4	3	10	8	5	8	10	10	3	17	7.3	4.7
Reading only %	4	2	5	4	7	4	5	5	3	5	4.4	1.3
Listening only %	7	7	7	2	6	9	6	5	11	5	6.5	2.4
L + S %	4	6	7	6	5	5	5	5	10	0	5.3	2.5
L + R %	4	12	9	2	5	5	6	2	6	8	5.9	3.1
L + W %	15	5	10	2	6	2	10	10	8	3	7.6	4.9
S + R %	2	3	2	5	3	3	3	3	4	5	3.3	1.0
L + S + W %	10	5	4	8	4	2	2	3	3	8	4.9	2.8
L + S + R %	2	5	4	8	3	3	1	3	4	0	3.3	2.2
Total (%)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	

Speaking was the third common modality at an average of 7.3% of the total class time. Furthermore, speaking and listening jointly took at an average of 5.3% of total class time. Listening plus speaking plus writing (4.9%) indicated activities where students exchanged information and took notes, and speaking plus reading (3.3%) was used when students were reading and summarising information to a partner. The classroom activities and academic behaviours of the teachers and the students were guided by the influence of the HSC examination. The findings adequately proved that washback of the HSC examination influenced classroom teaching and learning.

4.6. Materials Used in the EFL Class

The researcher carefully observed and identified the materials being used in the language classroom. The classroom observation checked if any authentic materials were used while teaching; whether any adaptations made to materials were also noted in this section. It was found that more than 80% teachers were heavily dependent on the commercially produced written materials such as guide book, suggestion book, test papers, etc. It was found that most of the teachers used test-oriented commercially produced materials which are critically termed as *hidden syllabus*. The researcher found that three teachers (T1, T3 and T5) used 75% class time practicing examination related materials. T1 and T3 used model tests book, and T5 used suggestion book. Only T4, unlike other participants, attached more importance to language forms, stressed the development of students' ability to use English. She (T4) was so highly motivated that she spontaneously experimented with communicative

activities as well as cooperative learning activities (e.g., pair work/ group work, language games, questions and answers) in her classes. The findings are presented in the table below:

[Key: EFT=*English for Today* (for classes 11-12) • GB= Guide Book • TP=Test Papers • PQ=Past Questions • AM= Authentic Materials (Newspaper article, Cultural current events, etc) • RM=Reference Materials]

[Symbols √ = ± 25% class time, √√= 50% class time, √√√ 75%= class time, √√√√=100% class time]

Table 6: Teacher's use of materials as a percentage of total class time

Teachers	EFT	PQ	TP	GB	AM	Audio	Visual	RM
T1	√	√	√√√ (75%)			-	-	
T2		√√ (50%)	√	√		-	-	√
T3		√√ (50%)	√√√ (75%)			-	-	
T4	√√ (50%)				√	√	√	√
T5	√			√√√ (75%)		-	-	√
T6	√		√√ 50%	√		-	-	
T7			√	√√(50%)	√	-	-	
T8	√√ (50%)		√√ (50%)			-	-	
T9	√√√ √ (100%)					-	-	
T10	√√ 50%	√		√		-	-	√

It was found that only T9 used *English for Today* during in the whole class, whereas T4, T8 and T10 used *English for Today* half of the class time. The four teachers (T1, T3, T6, and T8) spent considerable amount of time teaching commercially produced test papers. T4 used *English for Today*, authentic materials, some audio-visuals. She also mentioned some reference books (e.g. Oxford Dictionary) in the class. It was found that T2, T3 and T7 never used *English for Today* during the whole class period. The study found that test papers and past questions were the most common type of materials used in almost all classes (90%). Some combinations of material types were only found in some of the classes. The observed EFL teachers used commercially produced test-related materials for the preparation of the HSC examination in English. The study is further supported by Cheng (2004) who found in China that 80% teachers and learners used commercially produced materials for the preparation of College English Test (CET). The findings of materials used in the class derived from COLT observed the evidence of negative washback on teaching and learning in general and on the use of materials in particular.

4.7. Classroom Observation Schedule- UCOS

The present researcher used a modified version of UCOS for the present study. The UCOS had three main areas of focus. First was the analysis of how much class time was spent on activities that were directly related to the test. The types of texts used in each of the classes were also recorded (using COLT). A large part of the UCOS focused on what skills the students were using in the classroom. Here, UCOS gives much more detail than the 'modality' category of COLT by describing the activity. The original UCOS was adapted to the purposes of this study, as the existing categories did not always comprehensively reflect what happened in the classrooms. The Modified UCOS contained a broad list of possible task and text types. However, it was found that a large number of the texts actually used in the classes did not fit into the existing categories and were therefore recorded as additional categories.

Initially, anything that occurred in the classrooms that did not fit under the existing classifications was listed separately (self-made observation checklists). Similar activities were used to form a new category which was added to the instrument under the existing framework. In other instances, categories mentioned in the UCOS were not observed, and these were eventually deleted from the instrument. This category focused on the teachers and recorded activities which might be expected in HSC examination preparation classes. Overall examination-related activities of the total class time are shown in the table (Table 7). On an average, the teachers gave the students direct practice of HSC examination for 17.5 minutes in a 50-minute class. Examination-related activities altogether occupied for almost 42 minutes. The teachers most commonly gave the students feedback on reading and writing tests by giving the answers and explaining where in the text they could be found.

The students were sometimes encouraged to reflect on their performance on the practice tests and to initiate the necessary additional study. The individual teacher's examination-related activities were accounted separately. The students also spent some of the total class time completing tasks under examination condition. Reviewing answers to reading comprehension or writing tasks was a common activity. The findings of the examination activities are presented in the table (Table 7) below:

Table 7: Examination-related activities of total class time

		Total time spent for each activity (minutes)										Average
Exam Related Activities (ERA)		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	Minutes
ERA-1	Teacher gives the students tasks under exam conditions	21	18	19	12	15	16	21	11	23	15	17.5
ERA-2	Teacher gives the students the test to do at home (self-timed)	3	10	11	9	11	15	12	12	10	10	10.3
ERA-3	Teacher gives students feedback in the form of HSC	2	1.5	2.7	2.5	2	2	1.5	2	1.7	2	2
ERA-4	Teacher gives feedback on student performance item by item (T gives the right answer without explanation of reasons)	2	2.5	3	1	1.5	2.5	2.7	3	1	2	2.12
ERA-5	Teacher identifies answers in a text (Reading or Listening) and explains	10	12	10	0	0	4	5	5	6	7	5.9
ERA-6	Teacher asks students to consider their strengths and weaknesses with respect to the test requirements	5	0	0	4	4	3	0	0	3	5	2.4
ERA-7	Teacher sets tasks under strict time pressure	0	0	2	3	2	2	2	2.5	2.3	3	1.88
Total % of examination-related activities		43	44	47.7	31.5	35.5	44.5	44.25	35.5	47	44	41.7

The classroom observation found the teachers providing the answers, identifying the answers in the text. The teacher at times supplied answers after the students had spent some time discussing the task in the whole class (some time in groups or pair) and reaching some form of agreement. T9 used the highest amount of the examination-related activities which was 23 minutes as a single activity; altogether he spent 47 minutes out of a total 50-minute class.

4.8. The Self-made Checklist -Further Analysis

An observation checklist was applied to recoding some activities during the lessons which were not specifically identified by either COLT or UCOS. The findings from the checklist are now presented. Through the self-made checklist, teachers' personality and professional behaviours were coded. Teacher's personality and professional behaviours contribute learning or not learning. The researcher observed 10 EFL teachers. The findings of additional analysis are present in table (Table 8) below:

[Teacher's personality and professional behaviours are coded as, A= always, E=Excellent, F=Frequently, G=Good, M=Moderate, N=No, P=Poor, S= Sometimes, Y=Yes]

Table 8: Teachers' personality and professional factors in generating washback

Personality & Professionalism	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10
Friendly (Y/N/M)	M	Y	N	Y	M	Y	N	Y	M	Y
Angry (Y/N/M)	N	M	Y	N	N	M	Y	N	Y	N
Introvert (Y/N/M)	Y	M	Y	N	N	N	M	N	Y	M
Extrovert (Y/N/M)	N	M	M	Y	Y	Y	M	Y	N	M
Laughter (Y/N/M)	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	M
Shouting (Y/N/M)	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y
Smiling (Y/N/M)	Y	Y	M	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	M	M
Well-behaved (Y/N/M)	Y	Y	M	Y	Y	Y	M	M	M	M
Encouraging (Y/N/M)	M	M	M	Y	M	Y	M	M	N	M
Sincere & Caring (Y/N/M)	M	M	M	Y	Y	M	M	Y	N	M
Punctual (Y/N/M)	M	M	Y	Y	M	Y	N	N	Y	M
Fluent (Y/N/M) in English	M	M	M	Y	Y	Y	M	M	N	N
Knowledge of Communicative Competence (E/G/M/P)	P	M	P	G	G	G	M	P	M	P
Target language use (A/F/S/N)	S	S	S	A	F	A	S	S	S	S
Presentation(E/G/M/P)	G	M	M	E	P	G	M	M	M	G
Pronunciation (E/G/M/P)	G	G	M	G	M	G	P	M	M	P
Preparedness for Teaching (E/G/M/P)	G	M	M	E	M	G	P	P	M	P
Hesitant (Y/N/M)	M	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N
Curriculum Knowledge (E/G/M/P)	M	P	M	E	G	E	P	P	P	P

As the Table 8 shows, 6 teachers (T2, T4, T6, T8 and T10) were found friendly to their students. Andrew (2004) suggests that friendly teachers are always considered as good language teachers. It is sometime true that all successful language teachers are not treated as socially amiable. Out of 10 teachers, 3 teachers (T3, T7 and T9) were found very angry in different situation while teaching their students. Some teachers (T1, T3, and T9) were found very introvert while teaching. The introverted teachers taught to the test and less friendly to their students. Four teachers (T4, T5, T6 and T8) were found very extrovert. The extroverted teachers were found friendly. Ellis, R (2001) finds extroverts as good instructors.

This study found that the extroverts were better teachers than others. Three teachers (T4, T5 and T8) were found very sincere and caring to their teaching. Among the 10 observed teachers, two (T4, T5 and T6) were found fluent in English at satisfactory level. Only three teachers (T4, T5 and T6) had good knowledge and experience of communicative competence.

The observation recorded that only three teachers had good level of curriculum knowledge. One of the interviewed teachers commented that curriculum knowledge was not important to teach English to his students. Chen (2002), in her study, finds that teachers prefer to 'teach to the test' when they have little knowledge of curriculum goals; and therefore, they use commercially produced materials for test preparation. Promotion of beneficial washback has deep relation with teaching to the curriculum opposed to teaching to the test.

Noble and Smith (1994) point out those teachers' manners and professional behaviours are the indicators of being good language teachers. The observation schedules (COLT, and UCOS) and a self-made checklist were complementary for each other. The classroom observation found sufficient evidence of negative washback of the HSC examination in English on teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

The use of COLT and UCOS in combination with the specific further analysis (self-made checklist) enabled the present researcher to collect qualitative primary data from the respondents for the present study. This was an attempt not only to determine the range of activities that might occur in the HSC examination preparation class, but also to identify the amount of lesson time in which the students in the observed classes were actively communicating, as this would be an indication of good classroom practice which could in turn possibly be seen as a result of a 'good' test. Teachers' and students' perspectives were elicited and cross-referenced to the findings of the instruments, using a combination of purpose built questionnaires and interviews. The combination of the instruments used to draw a possible true picture of influence of the HSC examination in English and EFL education.

All 10 observed classes were found to consist predominantly of materials written for language students; contained a significant number of practice tests; included examination-related activities; and incorporated few academic study skills. Most of the teachers (80%) were totally HSC examination focused, i.e., not preparing students for academic study or teaching the curriculum. The findings revealed that due to college differences as well as differences among teachers and students, not only the ways teachers perceived and reacted to the HSC examination and its washback varied from college to college, but they also differ from

individual to individual. On the one hand, teachers' beliefs and knowledge of the HSC examination vary from context to context. When talking about the effects of the HSC examination in English on their teaching, the majority of them suggested that they were motivated by the test. They also expressed in a way that the examination preparation was their prime concern. Out of 10 observed teachers, a number of 7 teachers could not make any difference between teaching to the test and teaching to the syllabus, which could be interpreted that their curriculum knowledge was indeed limited or insufficient. One significant feature that emerged from the data was that the observed teachers seemed to be more nervous about the HSC examination in English subject.

The overall findings of the classroom observation reflected that the HSC examination in English influenced most of the teachers directly. But T4 was found an exception in this case. The EFL classes were found teacher-centered and teacher dominated. On an average, 67.5% of the total class time was occupied by the teachers. They dominated class time, contents, and class activities through different types of actions. The classroom observation revealed that some of the teachers used mainly the grammar-translation method. For instance, one teacher, in her class, asked her students to translate sentences from Bengali into English to ensure that the students fully mastered the structure and its meaning. To a certain degree, the use of the grammar-translation method was counterproductive; not promoting students' communicative skills, especially speaking skill, as prescribed in the syllabus.

Mostly, writing and reading comprehension were practised in the class because it was considered to be the demand of the test. There were very little opportunities for pair work and group work in the observed classes, except in the class of T4. With regard to use of materials, the classroom observation found that more than 80% teachers were reliant on the test related materials though a few teachers occasionally used *English for Today* (EFT) in the class. Some teachers claimed that the test affected their teaching negatively, and asserted that it had a beneficial impact on learning in that it motivated their students to learn. Interestingly, T8 showed negative attitudes towards the HSC examination, and assumed that the examination constrained learning more than it did teaching.

It was also found that (using UCOS) nearly, on an average, 42 minutes (out of 50- minute class) was spent for examination preparation activities (EPA). The teacher at times supplied answers after the students had spent some time discussing the task in groups and reaching some form of agreement. This finding indicated that the HSC examination did have much influence on the teachers. The observation discovered the evidence of negative washback in all around the classroom environment. The class

time, lesson contents, activities, use of materials, teacher's behaviours, and teacher's mode of instruction were all influenced by the HSC public examination in English.

Conclusion

The classroom observation were conducted sequentially at selected times, but they were not done continuously. Thus, it is hard to guarantee that they could capture a comprehensive picture of the teaching behaviours in the classroom. However, the data gathered were still representative in the sense that they recorded and reflected typical events and behaviours of the classroom. Overall, the data set presented in this section is qualitative. The Observation-study results reflected that the participants, guided by their personal beliefs, were split in their perceptions of the HSC exam, its impact, and the syllabus and curriculum. Through the classroom observation, the present researcher tried to draw a true picture of what happened in the language class for the preparation for the HSC examination. Specifically, the classroom observations convincingly revealed the negative washback both overtly and covertly as Latimer (2009) delineated. The teachers were found using examples from textbooks that primarily emphasized the skills used in taking the HSC examination. Therefore, a conclusion may be drawn that most of the teachers (80%) teach to the test using commercially produced material such as guide book, suggestion book, test papers, etc. Thus, the syllabus, curriculum and their objectives are ignored in the classroom on the pressure of test preparation.

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Challenges of Implementing CLT at Secondary Level of Education in Bangladesh

Ranjit Podder*

Abstract

Communicative language teaching (CLT) was introduced to class six in 1996, and then to other classes of secondary level on an incremental basis. Although English teachers were trained to teach communicative English, it was a popular opinion that CLT had not been successful in Bangladesh. So, the present study tried to explore the ways how communicative English curriculum was being implemented and to identify the challenges of communicative English teaching-learning at secondary level of education in Bangladesh. It was a mixed method research which employed questionnaire survey on 200 randomly selected students from class six to ten, face-to-face semi-structured interview with 20 English teachers, four head and four assistant head teachers of four secondary schools in Narsingdi district. Teaching sessions of 20 English teachers were observed using a checklist to see the frequency of interactions in English between teacher and students, students and students, and to check how well the teachers were teaching communicative English. The findings of the study showed that most teachers did not follow CLT approaches in teaching; teachers did not assess listening and speaking skills of students; English teachers were not adequately qualified and trained; appropriate teaching-learning materials were not used; large multi-level classes were difficult for teachers to deal with; and teachers and students' motivation level was low.

Keywords: CLT, assessment, listening, speaking, secondary level.

1. Introduction

The first Education Commission of Bangladesh (1974), which is popularly known as the Qudrat-e-Khuda Education Commission, spelt out the place of English in the education system of Bangladesh. The commission recommended that although the medium of instruction at all levels would be Bangla, English should continue as the compulsory second language as it was in undivided Pakistan since English had become so important to the Bangladeshis for personal, national and international

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reasons. So English language rather than English literature should be compulsorily taught from class six to twelve (BCUSS, 1998). Currently students from class one to twelve have to study English as a compulsory subject. The National University of Bangladesh made a 100-mark paper of English compulsory for all students studying at degree level from 1995. But the reality is that even after studying English for long 12 or more years, learners could not communicate well in English in real life situations.

With a view to achieving the goals of communicative language teaching (CLT), new textbooks based on CLT were written and the English teachers were trained to implement the communicative English curriculum. The Ministry of Education of Bangladesh provided training to the secondary English teachers on CLT through some projects such as English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP), Secondary Education Sector Improvement Project (SESIP), Female Secondary School Assistance Project (FSSAP), and Teaching Quality Improvement in Secondary Education Project (TQI-SEP). Moreover, National Curriculum & Textbook Board (NCTB) provided training to secondary English teachers in 1996 with a view to disseminating the communicative English curriculum. So it can be said that, almost all the English teachers have been trained until now. However, Mozumder (2013) reports that even 12 years after the introduction of CLT to the secondary English curriculum, students' communication skills in English have not improved to that level expected in the curriculum document. Hussain (2004) observes that despite manifold virtues of CLT, the teaching-learning activities remain static owing to a lack of competent and well-trained teachers in English. In view of the issues discussed, the following research questions were addressed:

- a) How do teachers deal with communicative English?
- b) What are the major challenges of implementing communicative English curriculum at secondary level of education in Bangladesh?

2. Significance of the Study

Communicative English is being taught in Bangladesh with a view to enabling students to use English to contest in every field in the national and international arena and to cope with the socio-economic, edu-cultural, and technological changes and challenges. Although *English for Today* (EFT) books are written to serve the stated purposes, the reality is that, most secondary school leavers cannot use English properly when they need it. The pass rate in the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) examinations has increased significantly in the last 10 years but the English teaching-learning situation has not improved considerably. Most

of the successful students, too, cannot speak and do not understand when somebody speaks English. Moreover, they are unable, in most cases, to write even simple pieces of text correctly; and they fail to understand fully when they read a piece of text. At this point it seems urgent to identify the challenges of communicative English at the secondary level of education in Bangladesh and to find ways to address them. So this study is significant to improve the English language teaching and learning situation at Bangladesh secondary level of education.

3. Research Design

The study employed a mixed-method approach to delve deep into the problem. Semi-structured interviews with 20 English teachers, eight head and assistant head teachers of four secondary schools in Narsingdi district; questionnaire survey on 200 randomly selected students studying from class six to ten; and teaching observations of the mentioned English teachers were conducted to collect data. Semi-structured interview questionnaire was developed covering questions such as ‘how do you teach the *English for Today* books?’, ‘what is your understanding about CLT?’, ‘what are the challenges you face in teaching English using CLT approach?’, ‘why do you not involve students in listening and speaking skills practices and assessment?’; and some probe questions were asked as per the demand of the situations. Observation checklists had provisions to put a tick in every five seconds to record whether the teacher was talking to students or students were speaking to the teacher or to their classmates or students were reading or writing, they were speaking English or Bangla etc. Additionally observation field-notes were written during and after the teaching observation sessions and they were further developed from recollections. Data collected through semi-structured interviews and observations were coded, categorized as coding and categorizing enables a researcher to sift out what the data are saying (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). The coded data were described qualitatively; and the data collected through questionnaire survey and interactions observations were shown in tables, percentage, charts, and in diagrams.

4. Findings and Discussions

The challenges of CLT at secondary level in Bangladesh emerged while observing teaching sessions, interviewing teachers, and coding the data collected through observation, interviews, and questionnaire survey. The major findings of the study were: most teachers did not follow CLT approaches; Curriculum did not compel teachers to teach and assess oral-aural skills of students; English teachers were not adequately qualified, properly trained, and fluent; appropriate teaching-learning materials were not used in teaching English; large multi-level classes were difficult for the

teachers to deal with; and neither teachers nor students were motivated enough. The findings of the study have been presented in detail and discussed in the following sections:

4.1. Applying CLT approaches by teachers

The study revealed that the vast majority of the English teachers (95%) did not use CLT methods and techniques in their teaching. They loved to teach English in Grammar Translation method where teachers spoke Bangla most of the class time and they solved almost all the activities which were set for students marring learners' opportunities for practising English language skills. Along with the teachers, students too, spoke Bangla indiscriminately in English classes. During teaching observations, teachers were found to read out and clarify every piece of text without considering whether they were set for students' listening, speaking, reading, or writing skills practices. Additionally, teachers were found to explain the grammatical rules even though the text was set for students' reading practice. Observation field-notes of a teacher follow, for example:

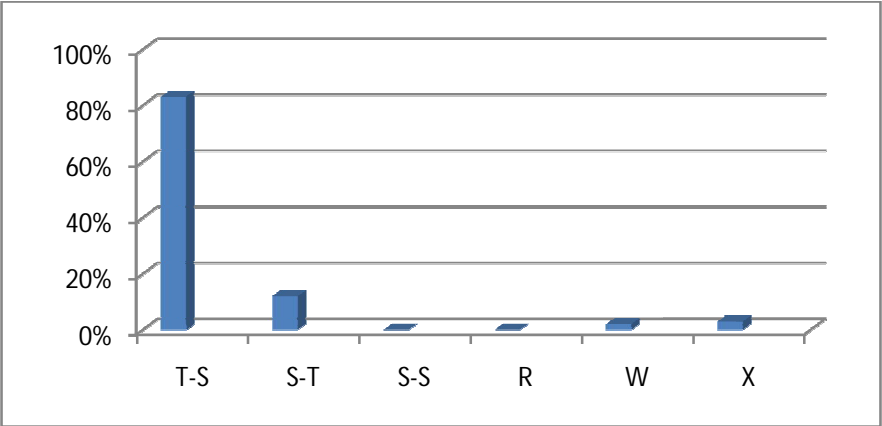
The teacher taught a lesson which focused speaking, reading, and writing skills practices in class ten (class X, unit 10, lesson 1, topic: Meeting Feroza). He readout and explained the text for the students line by line in Bangla even though the text was set for the students' reading skill practice. After finishing reading and clarification, the teacher asked five students some questions such as 'when did Becky come to Bangladesh?', 'where did Masum take Becky to'? The teacher did not utilize the existing opportunities to involve students in speaking practices in section A of the lesson. He could involve students in talking about the picture in pairs or in describing the picture or in asking and answering the questions given underneath the picture. In the similar way, all other activities in other sections of the lesson were also done by the teacher keeping students inactive throughout the session.

Although the teachers said in their interviews that they organized pair work, involved students in role play, drill, dramatization, and debate in their English classes, those kinds of activities were absent in their teaching sessions. On the contrary a vast majority of the students (95%) reported that teachers did not involve them in activities such as pair work, role play, pair checking etc. During observations, it was disclosed that the teachers' talking time was unnecessarily much more than the students' talking time in the English classes, and 19 teachers out of 20 did not involve students in language practice activities; they were just preaching keeping students totally inactive. Twenty lessons by 20 English teachers who taught lessons from *English for Today* and grammar books included, for example, topics such as The Maghs (class ten), Pahela Baishakh (class nine), The Fisherman and the Gene (class ten), Tenses (class eight), Active

and Passive Voices (class eight), Direct and Indirect Speech (class nine), Help! Snake (class seven).

Almost all of their teaching styles were significantly similar and the following bar diagram prepared on the basis of classroom interactions of a teacher could be used as a sample of teaching representing others since other sessions observed were roughly similar. In that lesson, the teacher was teaching *The Maghs* in class ten from *English for Today* book (Unit 17, Lesson 1; Skills focused: listening, speaking, reading, writing). The diagram shows the frequency of interactions between teacher and students, and students and students in the English classes.

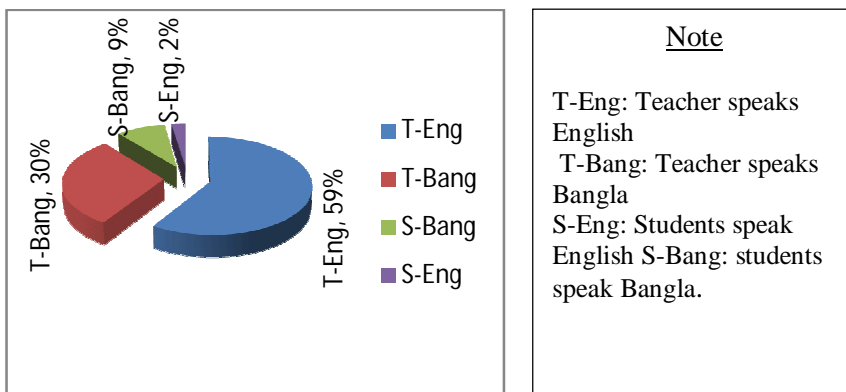
Figure of classroom interactions:



The above diagram shows that the classes were teacher-centred and interactions between students were not satisfactory at all. The teacher talked 80% of the total class time and few students talked only 10% of the total class time to the teacher, and there were almost no student-student interactions. Although the lesson focused all the four basic language skills, the teacher did not exploit the opportunities for language practices through involving students in different activities provided in the textbook.

Although CLT advocates learning English through practices, it was observed that the vast majority of the English teachers (95%) did neither exploit the existing opportunities for language practices nor they did create any for students. The following pie chart shows that teacher's talking time was much more than the students' talking time which portrays a picture which, no way, supports communicative English teaching principles.

Language used by the teacher and the students:



Although the pie chart shows that the teacher spoke English 59% of the total class time, this speaking includes his reading out the text, instructions to students, telling the word meanings and other activities including clarifying the text. The teacher did not take into cognizance the skills focused in the lesson. Similar were the happenings in case of all other lessons although Cook (1996) claims that learners are expected to acquire communicative competence rather than linguistic competence in communicative classrooms. So, the ability to use the language for better communication is emphasized in place of teaching grammatical rules in CLT. But in Bangladesh secondary schools, most teachers put emphasis on accuracy of the language ignoring fluency. Podder (2007) alleged that learner-friendly atmosphere was, in most cases, absent from the classrooms and some teachers took students' speaking and writing grammatically incorrect English as an offence and they tended to punish those who committed mistakes in using English. A good number of the students (94 out of 200) informed the researcher that they spoke English with their teachers but the English they uttered was limited to 'hi', 'hello', 'good morning', 'yes sir', 'no sir', 'thank you' etc., and the rest 53% of the students were afraid of speaking English.

4.2. Assessment of aural-oral skills of students

During interviews with teachers, they claimed that they did not have to test students' listening and speaking skills in schools examinations. Furthermore, students did not have to face any oral-aural tests in the SSC examination either. As a result, both students and teachers were not interested in those skills practices. Although the curriculum report 1995 gave teachers mandate to assess learners' listening and speaking skills in schools, they did not do that as those two skills were not tested in public examinations. Additionally, the test format provided in the curriculum report (NCTB, 1995) did not contain any test items for listening and

speaking skills assessment. In the sample question paper, total marks were shown distributed for reading and writing skills only.

That is why teachers assessed only reading and writing skills of the students in school examinations and ignored listening and speaking on pretext that those two skills were not tested in the public examinations like SSC examinations. As listening and speaking skills were assessed neither in internal nor in the SSC examinations, teachers and students were not willing to 'waste' time on them. "Curriculum did not keep any provision for testing listening and speaking skills of students and not allotted any marks for the stated two skills. We have to prepare students for the examinations. So we do not have time to waste on unnecessary matters", asserted an English teacher.

Although curriculum report (NCTB, 1995) states that internal examinations would comprise formative and summative assessment and they should be based on listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, it recommended that the final grades of students would be determined on the basis of formative and summative assessment results. However, one head teacher alleged that they could not compel the English teachers to organize listening and speaking tests as there was no order from the concerned authority regarding oral-aural skills assessment. He further added that they did not teach and test listening and speaking skills as there were no marks allotted in the curriculum for the assessment of those two skills. A similar situation is reported by Christ and Makarani (2009) in India where students were examination-oriented and neither students nor teachers cared for oral-aural skills practices. Brown (2004) claimed that assessment procedures had a huge power to change the classroom practices. As there were no marks allotted for listening and speaking skills in the curriculum, most Bangladeshi teachers did neither involve students in those two skills practices in the classrooms nor they did assess students' aural-oral skills. However, in order to change the current practices in the English classrooms, Podder (2011) advocated for attaching equal importance to listening, speaking, reading, and writing through allotting 25 marks for each of the skills.

4.3. English teachers' qualifications, training, and fluency

The study revealed that the study schools lacked qualified English teachers. One fifth of the practising English teachers did not study English at degree level and 35% of them taught English with a background of reading a paper of 100-mark compulsory English at degree level. 25% of the teachers have got degree or diploma in education but 60% of them (three out of five) did not study English in B.Ed course. 80% of the English teachers had received training on CLT but 95% (19 out of 20) did

not practise the techniques of CLT. The following table shows the status of English teachers working at the four study schools of Narsingdi district.

English teachers’ background:

Marks in English at graduation level	Number of English teachers	Percentage
100	07	35%
200	02	10%
300	06	30%
400	01	05%
No English	04	20%

Note: Dhaka University (DU) had 200 marks elective English in their BA pass course but they introduced 300 marks elective English (3 papers: grammar 100, prose 100, and poetry 100) later on. Afterwards the colleges were detached from DU and affiliated to National University (NU) after its establishment in 1992. NU continued the 300 marks English as elective subject for their BA pass students. Additionally, NU made a 100-marks paper of English compulsory from 1995 for all studying at graduation level.

Teaching observations showed that 19 out of 20 teachers possessed dominating attitude although communicative language teaching demands friendly environment. Littlewood (1988, p. 19) spoke for the friendly classroom environment where ‘his (teacher’s) function becomes less dominant than before but not less important’. He further added that teachers should offer advice and provide necessary language items to students for practice and thus create opportunities and involve them in language practice activities.

Alongside the poor English learning background, 75% of the trained English teachers did not have English speaking ability although they had been teaching English for five or more years. In the four study schools, four out of 20 English-teaching teachers studied science or commerce at degree level and they did not have to study English to pass graduation. The government statistics shows that 18435 teachers are teaching English countrywide at secondary level without having studied English at graduation level; and although there are more than 20,500 secondary schools countrywide, there are only 2220 teachers having studied honours and masters in English (BANBEIS, 2010).

The study also revealed that there was almost no English speaking environment in the English classes. 19 out of 20 teachers were found to teach English through Bangla and they did not motivate students to speak English as they believed that listening and speaking skills practices were nothing but wasting time and energy because these two skills were neither tested in schools nor in the SSC examinations. Most English teachers (19

out of 20) were unable to speak English fluently during interviews although most of them alleged, “students cannot understand if I speak English always”. It was observed during interviews that they were faltering and fumbling for suitable words, phrases, and tenses of verbs. Some of the English teachers’ pronunciation was so bad that it hampered smooth communication. The stated factors remain as real barriers for most of the English teachers and highlight the need for qualified and well trained teachers who themselves would be confident in English speaking and listening and thus improve the English teaching-learning situation in secondary schools.

According to English in Action (2009), none of the English language trainers or the teachers emphasized spoken English in their teaching and training resulting in poor role modeling for the young people they taught; and even those who were well qualified academically were often poor at communicating in English. Khamkhien (2010) reported that although the Thai government wanted their school students to be able to speak English, the learners could not achieve the expected English language proficiency mainly because of English teachers’ excessive use of Thai language in the English classrooms. This might also be true in case of Bangladesh secondary level because Bangladeshi English teachers, too, speak Bangla most of the time in English classes.

Podder (2007) alleged that there was almost nobody to supervise the academic activities in the schools. He further added that the government had spent a huge amount of money to train the secondary English teachers but nobody or no authority was there to look after if the trained teachers were implementing the training they received or not. Interviews with the head and the assistant head teachers revealed that they were not aware of CLT approaches and for that reason they were not in a position to supervise the English classes. In order to be able to supervise English teachers’ teaching, the head and the assistant head teachers demanded training in CLT.

4.4. Use of appropriate classroom materials and aids

Although CLT curriculum was first introduced to secondary level about 17 years ago, most of the English teachers did not have Teacher’s Guides (TGs) for their individual use, and those who had TGs, they did not use them to plan their lessons. Most teachers did not use any other materials in teaching other than the textbook and the black board. Only one teacher was found to use teaching aids such as a packet of potato crackers, soft drink cans etc. which seemed appropriate to the lesson ‘Junk Food’ (English for Today, class X, unit 6, and lesson 4). The schools did not have technology such as CD players, audio and video CDs, computers or laptops and multi-media projectors those which could enhance English

language teaching and learning. One of the four schools had a television but that was not for use in teaching English language. Besides, books in easy English such as ‘great stories in easy English’, daily English newspapers, English magazines which could help students learn English were not available in schools. The study schools had a library each, but they neither had useful books for the students nor were the libraries functional.

During teaching observation, it was evident that most students in the classrooms were using guide books instead of English for Today books. Teachers informed during interviews that most test items in the SSC examinations were set directly from the illegal guide books, which allured students to buy them. As a result, ‘some teachers, too, very often use the guide books in the classroom teaching’, said an English language teacher. Teaching observations revealed that the textbook pictures were not exploited to involve students in language practices. Of course, the pictures were black and white and so blurred that most of them were not worthy of being used for speaking practices. However, the study found that the only resources English for Today books were not properly exploited further minimizing the opportunities for students’ English language practices.

4.5. Management of large and multi-level classes

According to the English teachers, one major problem on the way to implement CLT curriculum was large multi-level classes. They said that it was really difficult for them to take care of every individual student with different level of language acquisition-and-learning ability, motivation, intelligence, self-discipline, literacy, and interest. Although 20 to 30 students are usually there in a class in the developed countries, most secondary schools in Bangladesh have class size ranging from 60 to 100 or more. The study schools, too, had students ranging from 60 to 100 or more in each section. The teachers questioned, “How is it possible to teach a class with more than 60 students in 30/35 minutes?” It deserves a mention that each class time in secondary level institutions has been made 50 minutes in the curriculum of 2012. Teachers were found to be in trouble to handle learners with different quality in the same lesson although Hess (2001) asserted that students in a large multi-level class could be used as resources through putting fast and slow learners together in pairs and groups for language practices.

Conclusion

Although Communicative English is being taught in Bangladesh secondary schools since 1996, the secondary school leavers have yet not attained English communication competence up to the expected level probably because the curriculum has not yet made aural-oral skills practices and assessment mandatory. Moreover, there is lack of qualified, motivated, and trained English teachers in secondary schools; there is lack of appropriate English language teaching-learning materials. Minimizing the class size, allotting marks for all four skills, and providing appropriate training to English teachers could ease the situation. Additionally, if the concerned authority issues an order to use CLT approaches and to assess all the four skills of English language in every secondary school, the current situation is expected to change gradually. If the students can be involved in language practices, they are expected to be able to use English confidently in different situations locally as well as internationally.

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Impact of ELT Methodology: Students' Attitudes and their Achievement

Ayesha Siddiqua*

Abstract

The present study was conducted in ten colleges at the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) level in Bangladesh, including urban and rural, to determine Foreign Language (FL) learners' attitudes towards English teaching and learning, the performance of the students in the process of learning English while the contradictory views on whether to use the target language or using the mother tongue or allowing the learner to use it in the class, even when inevitable. The study was implemented with 500 subjects 50 from each college, were randomly selected of which 250 were female and 250 were male. Questionnaire survey and document analysis methods were employed to collect data. A vast majority of students' attitudes were similar regarding the instructions of the English teachers in the classroom activities and also showed liking to do much homework, which impact highly and positively on students' achievement. This investigation disclosed that the learners' attitudes towards the thoughtful use of the learners' mother tongue both by the learners and the teachers resulted in linguistic, extra-linguistic and psychological facilitation and help to the learners.

Keywords: Methodology, achievement, EFL, language skills, learning

1. Introduction

In the case of bilingualism or multilingualism, foreign language learning has always been an important concern. In the eighteenth century, written sentences in the textbooks were constructed to illustrate the grammatical system of the language but not to maintain relationship with real communication. The immediate aim of this approach was to teach rules by means of appropriate exercises. Later on, the necessity of the spoken English and emphasis on phonetic training emerged of the Direct Method, the Audio Lingual Method, the Situational Method and other methods influenced by their objectives. In learning of English language,

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learner's role and teacher's role are closely related to each other in an instructional system. Only their roles can influence the design of an instructional system. A learner's contribution to the learning process specifies a method whether it will be explicit or implicit responses. The roles or activities of learners are reflected in the degree of control the learners have over the content of learning and the view of the learner as processor, performer, initiator, and problem solver. The roles of teachers are also related to both the assumptions about language and language learning at the level of approach. For a source of knowledge and direction, linguists consider the teacher's role as a catalyst, consultant, guide and model for learning. Jack. C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers (2001) say:

Teachers' role in methods are related to the following issues: (a) the types of functions teachers are expected to fulfill, whether that of practice director, counselor, or model, for example; (b) the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place; (c) the degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught; and (d) the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners.

Counseling learning considers the teacher's role as that of psychological counselor. The potential role - relationships of teacher and learner are many and different. The success of a method may depend on the degree to which the teacher can provide the content for successful learning. In Bangladesh, English is a foreign language which is a compulsory subject to be taught in all schools and colleges from the primary to the higher secondary levels. The present curriculum suggests Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which primarily focuses on teaching the meaning, functionality and use of English in a learner-centred manner utilizing real life tasks, situations and roles in order to develop learners' communicative proficiency in the language. Teacher's and learner's role and learning situations define the types of interaction of a particular method used in a classroom producing a successful result.

The approach mentioned in *English for Today* (EFT) book for class xi and xii is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which focuses on "the principle of learning a language by actually practising it. This practice, which is carried out through the four language skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing usually in an interactive mode underlies the communicative approach to language learning. Each unit, based on a theme, has several lessons that contain reading texts and a range of tasks and activities designed to enable students to practise different skills, sometimes individually and sometimes in pairs or groups. The emphasis on the communicative approach, however, does not disregard the role of grammar. Instead of treating grammar as a set of rules

to be memorized in isolation, it is taught in contexts. “Thus students develop their language skills by *practising* language through activities and not merely by *knowing* the rules of language” (NCTB, 2001, p. i). Design and syllabus of the CLT aim the need of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, which can be approached from a communicative perspective. Communicative competence involves acquiring both sociolinguistic and linguistic knowledge referring the ability to use the target language effectively for communication in any situation.

To achieve communicative competence, the approach demands that the medium of instructions will be the target language for teaching and learning. Teaching environment and quality of students cannot keep pace with the approach mentioned in the EFT. Besides, in a big classroom, the proper application of the CLT is supposed to be much difficult for both teachers and learners. The quality of the learners is also very important for learning the target language successfully. The learners get themselves admitted into the HSC level bearing a weak foundation in English. Students usually feel and show disinterest and sit idle as inactive listeners while teachers use the CLTA in the classroom. In such a situation, a good number of learners remain weak in English language. Considering the learning situation, communicative competence (CC) has been turned into a linguistic form while medium is the native language. Student- centered learners did not achieve permanent benefit although the teachers sometimes had explained textual integrated grammar. To handle the communicative textbook the classroom was fully teacher- centered. As a whole, the attitude of learners and teachers towards CLT is not positive. Therefore, this study signifies the impact of students’ attitudes on the teaching methodology and their achievement focusing the following research question:

1. How do students’ attitudes towards teacher’s teaching methodology affect their (students’) achievement in English at the HSC level?

Attitudes are associated with attitude-objects and evaluations of those objects. An attitude is a hypothetical construct oral psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavor for an item. It is also a set of opinions on beliefs, feelings, and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols, which may be rival or acceptable. Positive attitude is a taking decision of acceptance or reaction that reveals the advantages of the subject to take up its value. On the contrary, negative attitude is the attitude that reveals the disadvantages of the subject to dismiss it and to weaken its strong attitude. People can also be conflicted or ambivalent towards an object or meaning that they simultaneously

possess both positive and negative attitudes towards the item in question. The teachers are interested to use traditional strategies more frequently than innovative strategies and that the students are more aware of the traditional than the innovative strategies. Many studies show evidence that favourable attitudes towards the learning situation contribute positively to achievement only when they influence motivation; otherwise, the effects tend to be negative, supported by Ibararan, Lasagabaster, and Sierra (2007). A schematic representation of the relations of attitudes to motivation and SL/FL achievement has been demonstrated below:

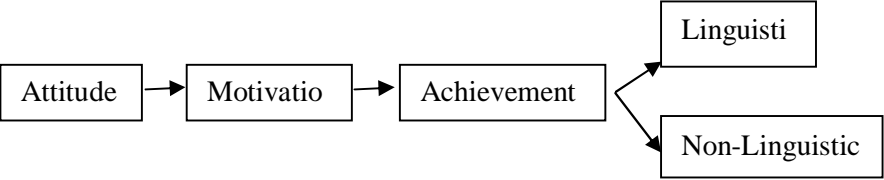


Figure: Attitudes to Motivation and Achievement (Adopted from Gardner, 1979, p.207).

2. Research Design

2.1. Subjects and research sites

The study was implemented with 500 subjects (250 of the subjects were females and 250 were males) from ten colleges; 50 students were randomly selected from each college. The study was conducted into ten colleges including urban and rural at the HSC level.

2.2. Research sites and participants

Data were collected from 10 research sites as shown in the table below (Table 1). The subjects enrolled in this programme belonged to Science, Arts, and Business Studies groups. Their age ranged from 16 to 17. The subjects were native speakers of Bangla with a compulsory subject of English at the HSC level.

Table 1: Research sites and participants

SL	Name of research sites	Male	Female	Total
1	Motijheel Govt. Boys' College	50	-	50
2	Dhaka Mohanagar Mohila College	-	50	50
3	R .K. Chowdhury University College	25	25	50
4	T&T College, Dhaka	25	25	50
5	Cosmopolitan College, Dhaka	25	25	50
6	Salimullah College, Dhaka	25	25	50
7	Donia College, Dhaka	25	25	50
8	Demra College	25	25	50
9	Araihazar Hazi Balayat Hossain Degree College	-	50	50
10	Rokunoddin Girls' College	-	50	50

All the colleges had similar facilities such as same curriculum, same material, same testing system, same methodology, similar number of teachers with similar qualifications and similar class- size. The researcher administered the survey in the selected higher secondary colleges and collected mark- sheets of the achievement- tests form those colleges.

2.3. Instruments

In order to investigate the current study, both quantitative and qualitative research methods were applied. With a view to ascertaining the subjects' attitudes towards the teaching methodology, a *questionnaire* was developed (see Appendix). Moreover, students' First Year test score in English language was analysed to check the achievement of the subjects. The data collected for this study were of different types. They included:

- A teacher questionnaire
- Test Score of Year Final Examination

The test (question-paper) carried 100 marks and three hours with the items of two seen comprehensions, vocabulary, and guided writings. The test of each college was prepared by the English teacher of that institution. The answer-scripts were examined by the respective teachers of those institutions and obtained marks indicated the achievement of the learners. The questionnaire was developed by adapting various items on attitudes with cross questions to find out the real attitudes of the learners as well as how it affected their achievement. The questionnaire was built on a five-point Likert (1932) scale having the options of (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) no opinion, (4) disagree, (5) strongly disagree. To ensure spontaneous participation and for better understanding for the participants, the researcher used the translated form (Bangla format) of the questionnaire. Cross questions (Q6,14,15; Q8,13; Q9,10,12;Q16,17) strongly focused on which method was used for the EFT teaching specifically whether the communicative language teaching approach (CLTA) was practised in the classroom as well as how attitudes to teaching methodology of the learners motivated them for achievement. Q 1, 16 and 17 directly determined students' attitudes towards teaching methodology related to achievement. The participants' test scores are presented in Table 2:

Table 2: Test scores and number of participants

SL	Name of the colleges	Test scores range: Year Final examination		
		31-45	46-60	61-75
1	Motijheel Govt. Boys' College	0	34	16
2	Dhaka MohanagarMohila College	17	31	02
3	R .K. Chowdhury University College	50	0	0
4	T and T College	33	16	01
5	Cosmopolitan College	50	0	0
6	Salimullah College	26	24	0
7	Donia College	09	36	05
8	Demra College	25	25	0
9	Hazi Balayat Hossain Degree College	12	30	08
10	Rokunoddin Girls' College	34	15	01

2.4. Data Collection and Analysis

After the ensuring the validity, the reliability, and the practicality, the final questionnaire related to teaching methodology was distributed by the end of the 1st semester to the subjects directly by the researcher. At the beginning of the programme, all participants were informed that the purpose was to draw out both positive and negative attitudes on the ELT method at the HSC level and their impact on achievement. They were given the translated form of the questionnaire and also given forty minutes to fill the questionnaire. The participation was voluntary. After that, the collected data was analyzed by the computer software programmer (SPSS, version 18.0). The questions are close- ended in respect of learners' attitudes towards teaching and achievement. The questionnaire was coded by strongly agree =5; agree=4; no opinion=3; disagree strongly=2 and disagree=1. Descriptive statistics (frequency measure and SD), tables, charts and graphs are applied to clarify and explain the analysis. After analyzing all types of data, the researcher made a comparison between students' attitudes towards teaching methodology and its effect on their achievement.

3. Findings of the Study

3.1 Questionnaire

Question 1: I like classroom activities that my English teacher wants me to do -

In response to the statement, maximum students (strongly agree 40.6% and agree 41.4%) want to follow the instructions in the classroom activities. But a small number of students strongly disagree (5.4%) and

disagree (5.0%) who dislike (Table 2). Mean attitude scores for different categories of the marks obtained by the achievement tests are 3.613, 4.554 and 4.484 (for category 31- 45, 46- 60 and 61- 75, respectively) and std. deviation is 1.079 (Table 3). The finding reveals that attitude of the learners had highly positive impact ($r = 0.436$) on students' achievement (Figure 1). Teaching methodology employed by a teacher is the notion of the use that will bring forth positive or negative outcome in second/foreign language teaching and learning and learners' attitudes towards teaching methodology might be related to their achievement. The learners, who are comparatively more positive to this liking of their teachers, may be dependent on their perception of teachers' knowledge of the subject matter, are being able to earn better academic performance (similar to Eggen and Kauchak , 2001).

Question 2: My English teacher teaches me in pairs and groups -

In reply, the most of the students who strongly disagree (56.4%) and disagree (39.6%) opine with negative attitude and only a few students who strongly agree (0.8%) and agree (3.2 %) mention positive opinion about pair and group work in the classroom activities (Table 2). Mean attitude scores for different categories of the marks obtained by the achievement test are 1.464 for category 31- 45, 1.597 for category 46- 60 and 1.515 for category 61- 75 and std. deviation is 0.733 (Table 3). The attitude (positive/negative) has no significant effect ($r = 0.084$) on students' achievement (Figure 1). The classroom environment (insufficient classroom- time, too many students in a classroom, teachers are in a hurry to finish the syllabus etc.) is not in favour of this technique of Communicative Language Teaching.

Question 3: My English teacher wants me to learn individually -

Here, only few students (4%) give positive opinion, but maximum learners (strongly disagree 39.6% and disagree 51.0%) opine negatively i.e., they opine that their English teachers do not want them to learn individually (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores for different categories of the marks obtained by the achievement test are 1.828 (for category 31- 45), 1.706 (for category 46- 60) and 1.484 (for category 61- 75) and std. deviation is 0.794 (Table 3). The finding reveals highly negative significant attitude effects ($r = -0.118$) on students' achievement (Figure. 1).

Question 4: My English teacher wants me to learn everything in the classroom -

As shown in Table 3, maximum students opine negatively (disagree 51% and strongly disagree 39.6%) and minimum students give their opinion positively (strongly agree 1.2% and agree 2.8%). Their mean

attitude scores are 1.828, 1.696 and 1.484 (for the category 31- 45, 46- 60 and 61- 75, respectively) and std. deviation is 0.780 (Table 3). It indicates that there is strongly negative correlation ($r = - 0.127$) between the respondents' attitude and achievement in this respect (Figure 1).

Question 5: My English teacher gives me much homework -

As shown in the Table 3, the minimum students opine negatively (disagree 9.6% and strongly disagree 7.4%) and maximum students show their positive attitude (strongly agreed 38.4% and agreed 44.6%). Their mean attitude scores are 3.574, 4.369 and 4.484 (for the category 31- 45, 46- 60 and 61- 75, respectively) and std. deviation is 1.198 (Table 3).

Table 3: Frequency measure on the statement of respondents

No.	Frequency of the respondents										Total stud ents
	SA		A		N		D		SD		
	Frequ ency	%	Frequ ency	%	Frequ ency	%	Frequ ency	%	Frequen cy	%	
Q 1	203	40.6	207	41.4	38	7.6	25	5.0	27	5.4	500
Q 2	4	0.8	16	3.2	0	0	198	39.6	282	56.4	500
Q 3	8	1.6	12	2.4	27	5.4	255	51.0	198	39.6	500
Q 4	6	1.2	14	2.8	27	5.4	255	51.0	198	39.6	500
Q 5	192	38.4	223	44.6	0	0	48	9.6	37	7.4	500
Q 6	0	0	173	34.6	38	7.6	250	50.0	39	7.8	500
Q 7	198	39.6	237	47.4	38	7.6	27	5.4	0	0	500
Q 8	0	0	53	10.6	64	12.8	252	50.4	131	26.2	500
Q 9	29	5.8	260	52.0	38	7.6	173	34.6	0	0	500
Q 10	32	6.4	257	51.4	38	7.6	173	34.6	0	0	500
Q 11	57	11.4	301	62.2	53	10.6	89	17.8	0	0	500
Q 12	0	0	173	34.6	27	5.4	269	53.8	31	6.2	500
Q 13	0	0	53	10.6	89	17.8	276	55.2	82	16.4	500
Q 14	0	0	173	34.6	38	7.6	262	52.4	27	5.4	500
Q 15	26	5.2	263	52.6	38	7.6	173	34.6	0	0	500
Q 16	223	44.6	277	55.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	500
Q 17	221	44.2	279	55.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	500

*SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, N = No Opinion, D = Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree

The result shows that the learners' attitude has highly positive significant effect ($r = 0.348$) on their achievement in this respect (Figure 1). Much homework helps learners go to continuing developments of reading and writing and affect their achievement. This finding supports

the view that drilling, mimicry, and memorization support learning (Wilson, 2002).

Question 6: My English teacher does not want me to ask any question –

A number of 34.6% students agree to the statement, 50.0% learners disagree and 7.8% respondents disagree strongly while 7.6% learners have no opinion (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores for different category of the marks obtained are 2.726 (for the category 31- 45), 2.635 (for the category 46- 60) and 2.757 (for category 61- 75) and std. deviation is 1.031 (Table 4).The finding reveals that there has no significant relationship ($r = -0.017$) between learners’ attitude and achievement in this aspect (Figure 1).At the HSC level, achievement of learners is evaluated by reading and writing skills based on much practice.

Table 4: Students’ attitudes and their achievement in EFL

Questions/ Statements	Mean attitude scores			St. deviation
	31-45	46-60	61-75	
Q1	3.613	4.554	4.484	1.079
Q2	1.464	1.597	1.515	0.733
Q3	1.828	1.706	1.484	0.794
Q4	1.828	1.696	1.484	0.780
Q5	3.574	4.369	4.484	1.198
Q6	2.726	2.635	2.757	1.031
Q7	3.914	4.530	4.484	0.802
Q8	2.273	1.862	1.939	0.899
Q9	3.250	3.346	3.242	1.007
Q10	3.261	3.360	3.151	1.015
Q11	3.539	3.772	3.757	0.901
Q12	2.707	2.644	2.757	1.016
Q13	2.378	2.056	2.121	0.846
Q14	2.750	2.660	2.760	1.003
Q15	3.242	3.341	3.242	1.000
Q16	4.371	4.530	4.484	0.497
Q17	4.367	4.526	4.484	0.497
Total	51.089	53.194	52.636	4.277

Question 7: My English teacher wants me to do what he/ she wants -

As presented in Table 3, most of the students opine positively (strongly agree 39.6% and agree 47.4%) and minimum students give their opinion negatively (disagree 5.4%) while 7.6% learners have no opinion. Their mean attitude scores are 3.914, 4.530 and 4.484 (for the category 31- 45, 46- 60 and 61- 75, respectively) and std. deviation is 0.802 (Table 3). The result shows that the learners’ positive attitude has highly positive significant effect ($r = 0.385$) on their achievement (Figure 1). Administration (teaching methodology, giving homework, controlling the class, etc.) led by the teachers in the classroom is very essential and useful

for the students, which might affect strongly on achievement. Che and Ying (2010) say, ‘Teachers are an important factor in the second /foreign language classroom simply because students’ language skills are developed by their instructors who are the first in modeling grammar and speech patterns in the target language’.

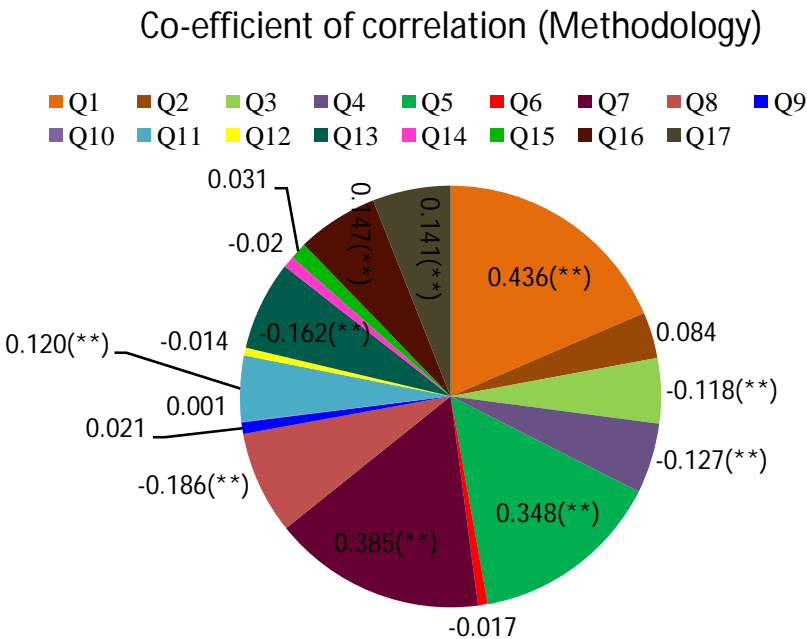


Figure 1: Correlation (r) between mean attitude and achievement
 (**) Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Question 8: My English teacher does not encourage me to speak English

Out of the 500 respondents, 252 students (50.4%) disagree, 131 students (26.2%) strongly disagree, 53 students (10.6%) agree and 64 students (12.8%) have no opinion (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores are 2.273, 1.862 and 1.939 (for the category 31- 45, 46- 60 and 61- 75, respectively) and std. deviation is 0.899 (Table 3). It indicates that there is strongly negative correlation ($r = - 0.186$) between the respondents’ attitude and achievement (Figure 1).

Question 9: My English teacher is sympathetic to me-

As shown in Table 3 4, 5.8% learners strongly agree, 52.0% students agree, 34.6% respondents disagree while 7.6% learners have no opinion to the statement. Their mean attitude scores for different category

of the marks obtained are 3.250 (for the category 31- 45), 3.346 (for the category 46- 60) and 3.242 (for the category 61- 75) and std. deviation is 1.007 (Table 3). The finding reveals that there are no significant relationship ($r = 0.021$) between learners' attitude towards teachers' sympathy to them and achievement (Figure 1).

Question 10: My English teacher teaches me in a friendly manner –

Out of 500 respondents, 32 students (6.4%) strongly agree, 257 students (51.4%) agree, 173 students (34.6%) disagree and 38 students (7.6%) have no opinion (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores are 3.261, 3.360 and 3.151 (for the category 31- 45, 46 - 60 and 61- 75, respectively) and std. deviation is 1.015 (Table 3). No significant relationship ($r = 0.001$) between the respondents' positive attitude towards teachers' friendly manner and their marks obtained in the achievement test is found (Figure 1).

Question 11: My English teacher understands my interests and needs –

Against this statement, most of the students express positive attitude (strongly agree 11.4% and agree 60.2%) while minimum students give their opinion negatively (disagree 17.8%) while 10.6% learners have no opinion (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores are 3.539, 3.772 and 3.757 (for the category 31- 45, 46- 60 and 61- 75, respectively) and std. deviation is 0.901 (Table 3). The result shows that the learners' attitude about their interest and needs considered by their teacher has highly positive significant effect ($r = 0.120$) on their achievement (Figure 1). The quality of learners vary in the classroom. If teachers apply same technique for all students, achievement of the all students may not be good. In the classroom, quality of teachers is also an affective factor. Teachers play a major role in motivating their students to learn by providing a comfortable classroom environment (Sarıçoban & Sarıcaoğlu, 2008). If the learners believe that the teacher is associated with them and their learning outcome, understands their problems, they react positively and this factor contributes to their achievement in the classroom.

Question 12: My English teacher is not kind to me-

A total of 173 students (34.6%) agree, 269 students (53.8%) disagree while 27 students (5.4%) have no opinion to the statement (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores are 2.707 (for the category 31- 45), 2.644 (for the category 46- 60) and 2.757 (for the category 61- 75) and std. deviation is 1.016 (Table 3). The finding reveals that there is not significant relationship ($r = -0.014$) between learners' attitude about teachers' kindness to them and achievement (Figure 1).

Question 13: My English teacher likes me not to speak English

In response to the statement, out of the 500 respondents, 276 students (55.2%) disagree, 82 students (16.4%) strongly disagree, 53 students (10.6%) agree and 89 students (17.8%) have no opinion (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores are 2.378, 2.056 and 2.121 (for the category 31- 45, 46- 60 and 61- 75, respectively) and std. deviation is 0.846 (Table 3). This finding supports the finding of Q 8.

Question 14: My English teacher minds if I ask him/ her any question

173 students (34.6%) agree to the statement, 262 students (52.4%) disagree and 27 students (5.4%) strongly disagree while 38 students (7.6%) have no opinion (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores for different categories of the marks obtained are 2.75 (for the category 31- 45), 2.66 (for the category 46- 60) and 2.76 (for the category 61- 75) and std. deviation is 1.003 (Table 3). The finding reveals that there has no significant relationship ($r = -0.020$) between learners' attitude and achievement in this aspect (Figure 1). This finding supports the finding of Q 6.

Question 15: My English teacher encourages me to ask him/ or her question-

As presented in Table 3, 26 respondents (5.2%) strongly agree, 263 respondents (52.6%) agree, 173 respondents (34.6%) disagree while 38 respondents (7.6%) have no opinion to the statement. Most of the students show positive attitude towards it. Their mean attitude scores for different categories of the marks obtained are 3.242 (for the category 31- 45), 3.341 (for the category 46- 60) and 3.242 (for the category 61- 75) and std. deviation is 1.000 (Table 4). The finding reveals that there are no significant relationship ($r = 0.031$) between learners' attitude and achievement in this respect (Figure 1). This finding supports the finding of Q 6.

Question 16: I like if my English teacher sometimes uses my mother tongue in the class-

A number of 223 learners (44.6%) strongly agree and 277 learners (55.4%) agree to the statement (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores are 4.371, 4.530 and 4.484 (for the category 31- 45, 46- 60 and 61- 75, respectively) and std. deviation is 0.497 (Table 4). The result shows that the learners' positive attitude towards the uses of their mother tongue by their teachers has highly positive significant impact ($r = 0.147$) on their achievement (Figure 1). The finding strongly shows that all the respondents like to learn English using their mother tongue in the class. Mother tongue always helps the learners understand the target language, though little

controversy goes over it. If a teacher uses the target language in the classroom, they hope the translation of the delivered lectures. Most researchers support the use of mother language (L1) in foreign language learning by claiming that when used appropriately, the use of L1 can be beneficial (Nazary, 2008). Therefore, the mother language of the learner has to be utilized to hasten the learning process.

Question 17: I do not like if my English teacher delivers lectures only in English-

In response to this statement, 221 respondents (44.2%) strongly agree and 279 respondents (55.8%) agree (Table 2). Their mean attitude scores for different category of the marks obtained are 4.367 (for the category 31- 45), 4.526 (for the category 46- 60) and 4.484 (for the category 61- 75) and std. deviation is 0.497 (Table 3). The result shows that the learners' positive attitude towards the uses of their mother tongue by their teachers has highly positive significant impact ($r = 0.141$) on their achievement (Figure 1). The findings of Q 16 & Q17 strongly show that all the respondents do not prefer to learn English only using the target language in the class. Thus, L1 serves as a medium in effective foreign language delivery and the needs of learners of various mother languages has to be taken into consideration prior to actual classroom teaching (Zhao, 2005a; Zhang, 2003).

3.2. Achievement Test

The achievement of the participants (male 250, and female 250) was classified into 3 categories as the obtained marks were ranged from 31- 45, 46- 60 and 61- 75 while the number of respondents are 256 (51.2%), 211 (42.2%) and 33 (6.6%), respectively. The achievement test reveals that the highest percent of the respondents remains to the category in 31- 45 while it is the lowest in percent to the category in 61- 75.

Conclusion

English at the HSC level predominates over the area of educational system in Bangladesh. The investigation uncovers a significant correlation between the subject's attitude towards the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and achievement in learning ESL/EFL. The application of any teaching methodology does not mean that it definitely generates positive output. But preferred teaching methods and the actual usage may assist to produce more effective second/foreign language outcome. Learners' attitude is also very important to be studied. The language classroom is a system where teachers and students together create a mini-society with its own characteristics, properties, roles, restrictions and expectations that is

similar to organism. Maximum students want to follow the instructions of the English teachers in the classroom activities and like to do much homework too. Attitudes of the learners towards classroom activities provide highly positive impact on students' achievement. More practice and drills create learners' ability in developing skills. Practice and memorization are almost unavoidable techniques in foreign language teaching, even though there are many latest teaching techniques introduced such as audio-video teaching, communicative language teaching, etc. the use of practice and memorization is still rudimentary (similar to Che and Ying, 2010, & Wilson, 2002).

Their English teachers do not arrange any sort of pair and group work in the classroom and only a few students mention positive opinions in favour of them (finding of Q2). English teachers do not want students to learn individually, and they do not want also to teach the students everything, which has highly negative co- relation between attitudes and effect on their achievement. English teachers prefer to teach the learners according to teachers' likings and necessity of the classroom. If students speak in English class, the teachers do not mind, but they (teachers) do not encourage the learners. The class is fully teacher-centered, though the objective of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is student-centered classroom. The findings uncover the negative attitudes of teachers and learners towards the CLT negatively affect their learning and achievement sufficiently. Positive attitudes, on the other hand, towards the target language and towards teaching and learning influence the learners to be motivated and lead them to achievement (similar to Moïinvazirii, 2008).

The responses provided by the students in the questionnaire (Q16, 17) indicate that their attitudes towards teaching the target language are generally found to be highly positive which has a strong positive impact on achievement. *English for Today*, class-xi-xii, (2001) prescribes the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), on the contrary, because of having no positive attitudes towards the CLT, the teachers do not explain the texts in the target language and do not engage learners in different language practice activities. It is emerged from the study that both the teachers and the students are more biased towards the GTM. An EFL/ESL teacher can understand the learners' attitudes, interests and needs, which has highly positive significant effect on their learning. The quantitative and qualitative findings also show that students should be taught in L1 (same as Nazary, 2008; Che and Ying, 2010) in EFL/ESL classroom. Therefore, this attitude (a balanced use of L1 and L2) can help both learners and teachers attain their goals in the target language. However, there are scholars (Johnson and Johnson, 1998; Littlewood, 1981) against the thought of the use of L1 in foreign language instruction who advocate the use of foreign language itself during foreign language instruction. The

efforts in knowing the best teaching methodologies, in bridging the expectation and practice in the learning of a foreign language should therefore be emphasized (Xiao, 2005).

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An Investigation of the Use of the Term Ms. among the University Students in Sylhet

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Abstract

It has always been a strong concern for the feminists to choose a courtesy title for women. During the 1970s, they promoted the use of Ms. as a title for women with the objective that it will become a substitution for both Miss and Mrs. and will be used in a manner similar to Mr. revealing nothing about someone's marital or family status. Despite the fact that many women started accepting Ms. for themselves and many more began to use Ms. while addressing women, the term had never been consistently used or understood as it was intended. As the study was not aware of any research on phenomenon of the use of term Ms. so far conducted in Bangladesh, this paper was designed to investigate the use of the term Ms. among the university students, especially, in Sylhet, Bangladesh. For this study 158 bachelor and master's students from six universities had been surveyed. A structured questionnaire based on Lillian's was used for the survey and data had been analysed to identify the use of the term Ms. among the university students. It is revealed that students have varied conceptions both similar to and different from those reported in the current literature.

Keywords: Miss; Ms.; Mrs.; university students; feminist.

1. Introduction

Ms. was first introduced as a substitute to Miss or Mrs. It was perceived as a radical feminist innovation but the use of the term has not got its desired popularity. If we look back in the history, we come to know that Ms., along with Miss and Mrs. began to be used as early as in the 17th century. These terms originated from Mistress, which like Mister, did not

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originally indicate marital status. Ms., however, fell in disuse in favour of the other two titles Miss and Mrs. It was not revived until the 20th century (Wikipedia, 2013).

The first known proposal for the modern revival of Ms. as a title appeared on page 4 of the Springfield (Mass.) Sunday Republican on November 10, 1901, under the heading "Men, Women and Affairs,": "There is a void in the English language which, with some diffidence, we undertake to fill. Everyone has been put in an embarrassing position by ignorance of the status of some woman. To call a maiden Mrs. is only a shade worse than to insult a matron with the inferior title Miss. Yet it is not always easy to know the facts... Now, clearly, what is needed is a more comprehensive term which does homage to the sex without expressing any views as to their domestic situation, and what could be simpler or more logical than the retention of what the two doubtful terms have in common.

The abbreviation Ms. is simple, it is easy to write, and the person concerned can translate it properly according to circumstances" (Zimmer, 2009). Sheila Michaels tried to put this term into use in 1961, "I created the term in 1961, from what I thought was a typo on my roommate Mary Hamilton's subscription to News & Letters..... No one wanted to hear about 'Ms,' and to this day Susan Brownmiller tells me she still thinks it's silly. It finally became current when a friend of Gloria Steinem heard me, filling a lull during WBAI radio interview with 'The Feminists'. When I went to get a copy of the interview, the guys who had, of course, recorded over women's liberation crap, hooted me out of the station. It would still be a dead item if Steinem's friend hadn't suggested it as the name of the experimental feminist magazine supplement" (Sheila, 2008). In February 1972, the US Government Printing Office approved using Ms. in official government documents (Zimmer, 2009). According to The Times, UK (31 October 2007), "Ms. is nowadays fully acceptable when a woman wants to be called thus, or when it is not known for certain if she is Mrs. or Miss". The Guardian stated on Friday 29 June 2007 in its style guide: "use Ms. for women... unless they have expressed a preference for Miss or Mrs."

Ms. is now around fifty years old but still it is suffering from widespread misunderstanding and misuse. Instead of replacing the terms Miss and Mrs. as a neutral term for age and marital status for women, like Mr. is for men, it has become a third choice to many. Its intended meaning and usage is somewhat lost on most of the respondents to the survey on which this research was based. Whereas, Ms. was once closely associated with the feminist movement, this study predicts that it no longer carries a strong feminist connotation.

2. Objectives

The purpose of the study was to investigate the use of the term *Ms.* among the university students, particularly, in Sylhet to have a clear picture about how the students understand and use it in some given scenarios and filling a gap in research on that particular topic in the local context. This was, of course, a prime field to be taken over eventually by indigenous scholars, but the outside workers can make their contribution still, and use the opportunity to test their explanatory models against their views.

3. Literature Review

Study related to the use pattern of female titles in Bangladesh is completely new. Various studies about the use of *Ms.* have been undertaken about people's perceptions or understanding of women who use *Ms.* Collectively, these studies reveal varied perceptions that women who use *Ms.* are more career-oriented, assertive, independent, and feminist than their counterparts who use *Miss* or *Mrs.* (Atkinson 1987, Connor et al. 1986, Davy 1978, Dion 1987, Dion & Cota 1991, Dion & Schuller 1990 and 1991, Feather et al. 1979, Heilman 1975, Jacobson & Insko 1984). The study which mainly looked at data by race, Murray (1997) reports that while White respondents label women who use *Ms.* as independent, feminist, unlikely to make a good wife or mother, prone to work outside the home, African American respondents do not see any difference between women addressed with *Ms.* and women addressed with *Miss* or *Mrs.* People who use *Ms.* at least some of the time, report that they use it primarily in business contexts, particularly when they do not know the marital status of the woman they are addressing, and that they use *Miss* or *Mrs.* in other situations. On the basis of these findings, the survey reported on in Lillian (1995) was framed within a business context. In Lillian (1995), the most notable change from Atkinson (1987) is that women using *Ms.* are no longer stereotyped as young. Rather, they are generally deemed to be older, although there is no general agreement on exactly what age constitutes older. Thus it is consistent to state here that as no such study has yet been done about the perceptions of the use of *Ms.* in Bangladesh perspective, it may be an issue of curiosity to learn.

4. Limitations

The limitations to each study method must be taken into account. For instance, many studies involved only a very small number of samples, which lead to low reliability of results and do not allow generalization, and provide no detailed information about the study. These studies were performed in a great range in different areas of the world. It is thus not easy to draw conclusions about the results in general. A relatively large

number of studies have been performed in the U.S.A, Canada, the U.K., etc., basically, in the feminist movement dominated regions. One must also be careful in comparing studies done very far apart in time. The use patterns of the terminologies have changed significantly in the last century. It is, therefore, important to take these changes into account when comparing studies. As far as study methods are concerned, it is very difficult to compare different studies and to come up with significant results. All studies have been done using different methods. So, we must be very careful in comparing them.

5. Methodology

5.1. Sample unit and sample size

Total 158 university students, 79 male and 79 female, both bachelor and master's studying at the six universities in Sylhet, have been targeted as sample for the survey. The students coming from different parts of the country study in the departments of Business Administration, English, Public Administration, Civil Engineering, Agriculture and Veterinary. From first year to master's students have been included in this survey. Breakdown of the number of the participants in the survey is given in Table 1.

Table 1: Breakdown of the Respondents

Sl. No	Name of the University	Number of the Respondents
01	Leading University	55
02	Metropolitan University	17
03	Sylhet International University	26
04	North East University	14
05	Sylhet Agricultural University	12
06	Shahjalal University of Science and Technology	34
Total		158

5.2. Sampling technique

Data has been collected from different sites from 158 respondents; and the random sampling technique has been used to select the respondents.

5.3. Questionnaire design

The survey consisted of twelve questions and respondents' personal details. Some questions were based on multiple choices. There was one open-ended question also. The multiple choice question provides responses regarding scenarios in which the respondents were asked whether they would use the term *Miss*, *Mrs.* or *Ms.* as appropriate to each woman described (See Appendix). Whereas, the purpose of having the

open-ended question was to allow respondents to define or inform, in their own words, what they think about what they consider the term, *Ms.*, to signify. For the questionnaire survey a modified and shortened version of Lillian’s (1995) has been used. The reason for modification was to make it culture-friendly. In addition, voluntary personal comments on why the respondents chose one term over another will provide qualitative insight into the current attitudes of males and females on the issue.

5.4. Data collection method

Both primary and secondary data were used to have a reliable picture about the study. For data collection, survey method was used. The researcher physically went to the six universities situated in Sylhet to carry out the survey smoothly. The objective of going physically to all universities was to explain the contents to the students clearly so that the real picture could come out. For secondary data various articles, books, online publications and research papers have mainly been reviewed. The questionnaires were distributed directly to the respondents, in the form of a paper questionnaire.

5.5. Statistical analysis

The qualitative results were read and classified into response categories. These categories were used to make quantitative results of the qualitative data.

6. Results and Key Messages

6.1. Age, sex and experience

The investigation found the very interesting segment in using *Miss*, *Ms.*, or *Mrs.* regarding age and sex. The survey (Table 2) tends to corroborate the differences among terminologies by age and sex: the highest percentage (73.42%) was found in the 18-20 age bracket (male), whereas the age group least (2.53%) likely to use the aforementioned terms was the over 24 age brackets (female). However, these surveys did not test the significance of the results.

Table 2: Range of Ages of the Respondents:

Group	Age Range	Frequency	Percent	Years in University
Males	18-20 Years	58	73.42	1-6
	21-23 Years	15	18.99	
	Over 24	06	07.59	
Females	18-20 Years	51	64.56	1-5
	21-23 Years	26	32.91	
	Over 24	02	02.53	

6.2. Judgment of scenarios

The judgment levels in relation to marital status, age and profession have been measured in using the terminologies. The study

found that a majority of the respondents (37% male and 39% female) had deep interest in the use of *Ms.* rather than *Miss* or *Mrs.* Survey results (Table 3 and Table 4) showed that *Miss* and *Mrs.* were also used overwhelmingly.

Table 3: Use of Each Term in Judgment of Scenarios:

Scenarios Presented	Used by Male Respondents			Used by Female Respondents		
	Miss	Ms.	Mrs.	Miss	Ms.	Mrs.
Student, single, 17	73	6	0	69	10	0
English teacher, Single, 28	38	34	7	41	33	5
Retired teacher, never married, 63	29	49	1	40	34	3
Old woman, living alone, 83	10	52	17	25	49	4
Lawyer, married, 35	0	8	71	3	11	65
Homemaker, married, 38	0	8	71	0	9	70
Mother of two children, divorced, 40	10	49	19	14	55	9
Journalist, divorced, no children, 30	19	38	21	19	43	14
Widow, retired, 41	7	20	52	7	29	43
Totals	186	264	259	218	273	213
Percentage of Use	26%	37%	37%	31%	39%	30%

Note 1. Two females did not provide response for the retired teacher scenario; one female did not provide response for the old woman scenario; one male and one female did not provide response for the divorced mother of two children scenario; three females did not provide response for the divorced journalist scenario.

Table 4: Use of Terms for Each Marital Status Presented in Scenarios:

Marital Status	Use of Miss		Use of Ms.		Use of Mrs.	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Single	47%	56%	45%	40%	8%	4%
Married	0	2%	10%	13%	90%	85%
Divorced	19%	21%	56%	64%	26%	15%
Widowed	9%	9%	25%	37%	66%	54%

6.3. Categorised judgment scenarios

The study revealed the findings from questionnaire segment Part B regarding the use of each title by female respondents and their mothers to refer to themselves (Table 5).

Table 5: Use of Each Term by Respondents' Mothers and Female Respondents²

Group Using Term	Male Respondents			Female Respondents		
	Miss	Ms.	Mrs.	Miss	Ms.	Mrs.
Respondents' mothers	0	07	72	0	4	74
Respondents	n/a	n/a	n/a	58	19	02

Note 2. One female did not provide response regarding her mother's title.

6.4. Key messages

- 1) In order to better address the female title *Ms.*, measures need to be mainstreamed in general plans regarding adaptation at the local and national level, which would simultaneously also increase awareness regarding the term *Ms.*
- 2) Many users are currently showing their traditional knowledge and attitude to respond to the different scenarios presented to them. Thus, the information about the new terminology *Ms.* and its practices need to be disseminated in a wider scale, for instance, through awareness-building programmes.

7. Discussion

This survey had limited potential for data interpretation and comparisons among the universities, as the survey samples were relatively low. Therefore, any results discussed cannot be considered significant or representative. Respondents in this survey ranged in between 18 and over 24 age brackets. The average age of both groups was still just between 18-20 years (male 73.42%, female 64.56%). Overall, respondents had spent an average of two years at the universities. As, there was no correlation between the degree of use of *Ms.* and the number of years in university, it has not been discussed further. Judgment of Scenarios (Table 3) illustrates that the overall percentage of use of *Miss*, *Ms.*, and *Mrs.* in all scenarios was nearly identical for both males and females. The study also notes that only 8.86% of the men's mothers used *Ms.* compared to 5.13% of the women's mothers. When referring to themselves, approximately most of the female respondents (73.42%) used *Miss* whereas nearly one fourth (24.05%) used *Ms.*, with the exception of two respondents who used *Mrs.* because they were married. Seven respondents indicated that they do not use the term.

In contrast, the female respondents were not as polarized in their use of the term. There were, however, three scenarios that displayed almost unanimous results. All females referred to the 17-year-old single student as *Miss*. Again, 88.61% females referred to the 38-year-old married homemaker, as well as, 82.28% referred to the 35 year-old married lawyer as *Mrs.* The unanimous responses to these two scenarios by the female group hints at a slightly higher degree of traditionalism than the male group in their definition of *Miss* and *Mrs.* More importantly, for both men and women, the two scenarios depicting married women (one a homemaker, the other a lawyer), overwhelmingly attracted the response *Mrs.*, suggesting that, for both men and women, marital status was a more important criterion than occupation. The English teacher scenario got quite similar responses using *Miss*. from both male (48.10%) and female (51.89%) respondents and regarding *Ms.*, male 43.04% and female 41.77%

respectively. Whereas, in the scenario depicting an older retired teacher who had never married was both more commonly responded to with *Ms.* indicating that the term *Miss* tends to be reserved for very young women.

The widow scenario was a source of ambivalence. Only 54% of female respondents chose the term *Mrs.* as opposed to 66% of the male respondents. Widowhood implies that a woman was married at one time, but this woman's nontraditional career may have swayed some respondents to the term *Ms.* The divorced scenarios attracted the most *Ms.* response (between 56% and 64%) regardless of occupation, suggesting that *Ms.* was mainly perceived as a term to be used for them. This corresponds with the comments of more than half of the respondents, who indicated that they use *Ms.* when they are confused of a woman's marital status.

While answering the question about their own understanding of *Ms.*, they came out with different conception about the use of the term. Most of the written answers considered only age and marital status as criteria for using and understanding the term *Ms.* Some males wrote they use *Ms.* when they "do not want to mention whether she is mentioned or not". Seven males stated that they use it in divorced cases and in official matters. Five male and seven female feminist respondents mentioned that "*Ms.* should be used in all situations". According to them "a woman is a woman", it doesn't matter whether she is "married or not". Some male and female respondents noted that they use *Ms.* when they are "not sure about which one to use". One female responded that *Ms.* should be used for "aged but unmarried, divorced or widow ladies". Some respondents had very weak understanding of the term *Ms.* or had difficulty defining this term in the context of the survey. They just wrote "I am confused". It was a matter of great surprise for the study that almost half of the respondents didn't know about the term *Ms.*; they simply stated "I don't know". There were some correlations between the reasons stated for using *Miss*, *Ms.* and *Mrs.* This was perhaps because of respondents' profession, marital status, age, sex, as well as, ignorance.

On the other hand, according to the respondents, 93% of their mothers use the term *Mrs.*, of those who commented on their mothers' choice of *Mrs.* most simply wrote "she is married" or "this is common", some adding that, "this is used in our society" or "this is a rule in our culture to change the title of a female after marriage". For respondents whose mothers use the term *Ms.*, the main comment was the mother had been divorced, but one male wrote that he doesn't know why his mother uses *Ms.*, while another male responded that "she is old and lost my father but not divorced". In conclusion, other components such as social values, personal knowledge as well as opinion and self-esteem, which

determine the use of the term *Ms.* in the past, at present and in future, are also, becoming important aspects in Bangladesh.

Conclusion

Based on the discussion, it seems that the terms Miss, Ms. and Mrs. seem to have become firmly linked to the idea of marital status. Instead of replacing Miss and Mrs., the term Ms. is a third option strongly associated with a woman who is not single or who had a marital status that was not traditional. The respondents did not use the term Ms. as an equivalent to Mr. Interestingly, through this survey many respondents came to know about the term Ms. for the first time. All conclusions at this juncture are preliminary and may be subject to subsequent reinterpretation. Feminists introduced Ms. as a term to be parallel to Mr., to be used for all women, regardless of race, age, sexual orientation, marital status. Though there were some who protested against the introduction of the term, Ms. is being used at an increasing rate.

Future activities should focus on more research for information exchange and networking including knowledge transfer systems regarding feminist courtesy titles, as well as, encouraging every concerned quarters.

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Using Reading Strategies for Developing EFL Reading Skills: A Study at Undergraduate Level in Bangladesh

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Abstract

Reading is an essential skill for English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners of all levels. In accordance with reading materials and applying proper reading skills, EFL learners are aided not only by developing their reading ability, but also, their writing and speaking competency in English. Proficiency in reading indubitably can assist the undergraduate level EFL learners to meet their academic demands as well as the global. However, students face many obstacles regarding adaptability of different types of effective and frequently used reading strategies. Thus, this paper is designated to investigate the usages of reading strategies for developing EFL learners. Following the data analysis, it is evident that there are several reading strategies which are incredibly effective but students are ignorant about those and in some cases, they avoid such strategies. In order to collect such data, a group of undergraduate level EFL learners from Department of English at Comilla University were selected as subjects provided with a questionnaire comprised 29 questions based on cognitive, metacognitive and memory strategies. Finally, the research also suggests surmounting shortcoming regarding usages of appropriate reading strategies with the aim of developing EFL reading skill. In addition, the study accumulates the credible suggestions regarding the stated shortcomings to facilitate EFL reading skill.

Keywords: Reading skill, ESL, EFL, undergraduate, reading strategies

1. Introduction

Paris and Jacobs suggest that skilled readers often engage in deliberate activities that require plentiful thinking, flexible strategies, and periodic self-monitoring...[while] novice readers often seem oblivious to

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these strategies and the need to use them(1984).Significance of reading skill is undeniable in the present globalized world. As Shuyun and Munby (1996) noted that English as a Second Language (ESL) academic reading is a very deliberate, demanding, and complex process in which the students are actively involved in a repertoire of reading strategies. While teaching reading, most of the students at the undergraduate level are facing challenges, because they are not able to make use of appropriate reading strategies, and there are several reasons which make learners lag behind in reading and understanding texts in English. To ensure the expertise of the learners in reading skills, it is very obligatory to make out the problems, such as lack of formal training, lack of motivation and understanding, absence of the appropriate classroom techniques and tasks, unaware of knowing the appropriate reading strategies. Moreover, most of the students are not able to verify reading strategies and evaluate progress.

The study, therefore, firstly intends to investigate the usages of reading strategies for developing EFL reading skills at the undergraduate level in the academic contexts and authentic situations. Secondly, this study makes an attempt to investigate the shortcomings regarding the reading strategies, and finally, to find out probable solutions or recommendations to overcome those problems. However, the undergraduate level of Bangladeshi EFL students come across secondary and higher secondary levels programmed with CLT syllabus. Despite this fact, in case of appropriate application of reading strategies, deficiency is evident in this level of students. An investigation has been conducted on the undergraduate level students from Department of English at *Comilla University* as subjects; it was observed that they preferred only a few numbers of selections while using reading strategies escaping from other existing effective strategies. Efforts have been given to probe particular types of reading strategies which are popular among learners while reading texts.

2. Literature Review

Strategies can be defined as conscious actions that learners take to achieve desired goals or objectives (Kawai, Oxford, and Iran-Nejad, 2000). Oxford (1996) defines strategy as “the tools for active, self-directed involvement that is necessary for developing communicative ability. Strategies are not a single event, but rather a creative sequence of events that learners actively use”. O’malley and Chamot (1987) have classified reading strategies into three categories, such as: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social-affective strategies (pp. 178-179). Another classification in where, Oxford (1990) added memory and compensation strategies. According to O’Malley and Chamot (1987) in case of cognitive strategies, the learner interacts with the material to be learned by

manipulating it mentally or physically. Cognitive Strategy Instruction (CSI) is an instructional approach which emphasizes the advance of thinking skills and processes as a means to enhance learning. The objective of this strategy is to enable all students to become more strategic, self-reliant, flexible, and productive in their learning endeavors (Scheid, 1993). It is based on the assumption that there are identifiable cognitive strategies, previously believed to be utilized by only the best and the brightest students, which can be taught to most students (Halpern, 1996). Usages of these strategies have been associated with successful learning (Borkowski, Carr, & Pressley, 1987; Garner, 1990). Metacognitive strategies allow students to monitor their progress when trying to understand and learn new materials (Camahalan 2006). Carrel (1995), Wenden (2001) and Chamot (2005) have addressed the positive effects of employing metacognitive strategies in the reading process. Among native English speakers learning foreign languages, Purpura (1990) found that metacognitive strategies had, “a significant, positive, direct effect on cognitive strategy use, providing clear evidence that metacognitive strategy use has an executive function over cognitive strategy use in task completion”.

Baker and Brown have further added, “checking the outcome of any attempt to solve a problem, planning one’s next move, monitoring the effectiveness of any attempted action, testing, revising, and evaluating one’s strategies for learning” (1984, p. 354). Memory Related Strategies are techniques that help learners to accumulate and review new information, e.g., creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds and reviewing in a structured way (Wu 2008). Purpura (1997) claimed that the use of memory strategies in a test-taking situation had a significant negative relationship to learner’s test performance in grammar and vocabulary.

In case of Bangladesh, Islam and Akter (2011) have mentioned that ‘paying attention’, ‘setting goals and objectives’, and ‘self-evaluating’ were of the high use range in case of using metacognitive language learning strategies among the Bangla-speaking undergraduate EFL learners. Paul (2012) investigates on the use of metacognitive strategies of the students of a Bangladeshi private university that shows students with low proficiency English language skills than students with high proficiency skills, and students of both low and high proficiency are frequent users of metacognitive strategies.

3. Methodology

3.1. Sampling

The participants were from the Department of English at *Comilla University*, where the undergraduate classroom contained 60 students (1st year 2nd semester; age 20-21) and they had a very recent course on

“Reading and Writing” in their previous semester. A questionnaire was provided to the 10 teachers of the same Department, having the experience to deal with “Reading and writing” course at the undergraduate level.

3.2. Materials and Instrumentations

Two sets of questionnaire were prepared, one for the students and another for the teachers. Students’ questionnaire was comprised of 29 questions, regarding cognitive, metacognitive and memory strategies. Students were asked to provide their response to those by choosing answers from multiple options given there. Before data collection, a briefing was placed about reading strategies. The multiple options of the questionnaire, as the answers, were constructed with four categories. To choose the multiple options against reading strategy questions, participants were asked to select statements in options on a continuum from *always* to *never of it*. Teachers’ questionnaire was comprised of 10 questions where the last question was open-ended. The rest of the questions were assembled with three categories where teachers were asked to choose options from *always to never*.

3.3. Procedure

Each question of the questionnaire indicates a particular reading type and strategies (Table 1). The questions can be categorized as follows:

Table 1: Distribution of reading strategies in students’ questionnaire

No.	Reading Strategy Types	Strategies	Questionnaire
01.	Memory Strategy	Using Imagery	14
		Associating/association	16, 26
		Re-reading	22
02.	Cognitive Strategy	Guessing	20
		Translating	9
		Scanning	7
		Skimming	8
		Predicting	10, 29
		Using linguistic elements	12
		Understanding textual organization	13
		Using Dictionary	15
		Global	17
		Highlighting	19
		Summarizing	23
		Previewing	28
03.	Metacognitive Strategy	Self-monitoring	2, 6, 11
		Making Inferences	3, 18
		Self-evaluating	21,24
		Planning	5
		Critiquing a text	25

Table 2: Distribution of reading strategies in teachers' questionnaire

No.	Reading Strategy Types	Questionnaire
01.	Memory Strategy	4
02.	Cognitive Strategy	2
03.	Metacognitive Strategy	3, 5, 8

4. Data Analysis and Discussion

4.1: Data Analysis from the students' questionnaire

4.1.1. Reading Habits

The following table shows that the students of undergraduate level have the reading habits and they try to find out suitable materials for them (Table-3)

Table 3: Reading Habits

Question No.	Questions	Always	Sometimes	I know, but not using it	Never heard of it
1.	Do you read enough books/newspapers/texts to enhance your reading capability?	23%	73%	3%	0.00%
4.	Do you try to find suitable materials other than texts for enhancing your reading capability?	23%	53%	10%	13.33%

4.1.2. Memory Strategy

4.1.2.1: Using imagery

Chart-1 shows that a significant amount of students (33.33%) does not follow this strategy at the time of their reading. They have limited idea about its effectiveness in reading.

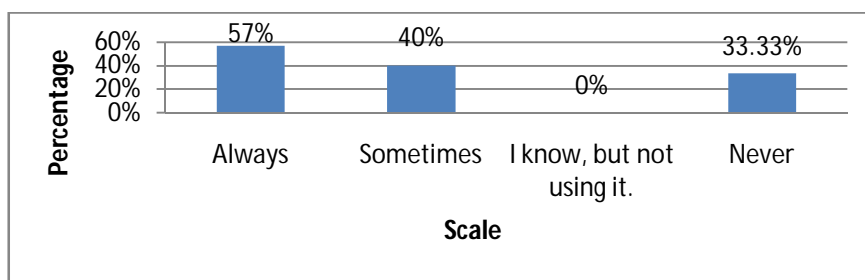


Chart 1: Do you create image in your mind while reading something to understand it in a more comprehensive way? (Using imagery)

4.1.2.2. Association

Chart- 2 exhibits 63% students use association technique, and find it quite useful to understand and comprehend the text to comprehend the text.

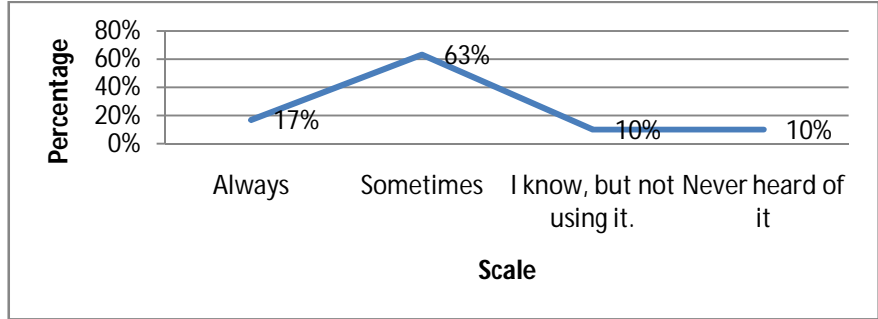


Chart 2: Could you connect the reading text from your own experience and retell the text from your own experience?

4.1.2.3. Re-reading

In case of ESL reading, re-reading strategy is very much common to the students (Chart 3). Students are using this technique in a frequent manner (80%) to understand the text.

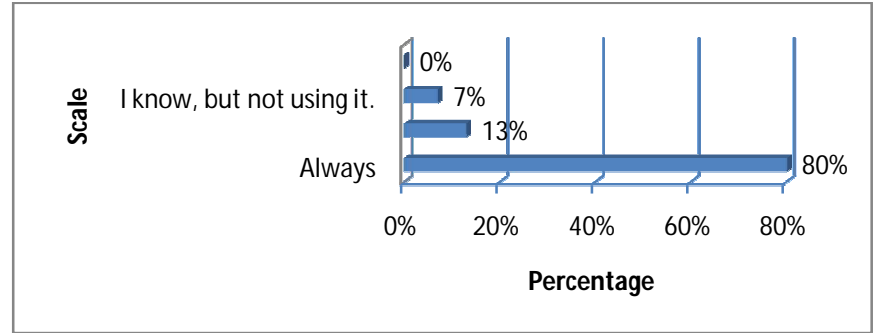


Chart 3: Do you read again if you do not understand anything of a text? (Re-reading)

4.1.3. Cognitive Strategies

4.1.3.1. Guessing

It is a quite common practice among the ESL/EFL undergraduate level learners to get the meaning of an unknown word from other associated words or sentences of related text. (Chart 4)

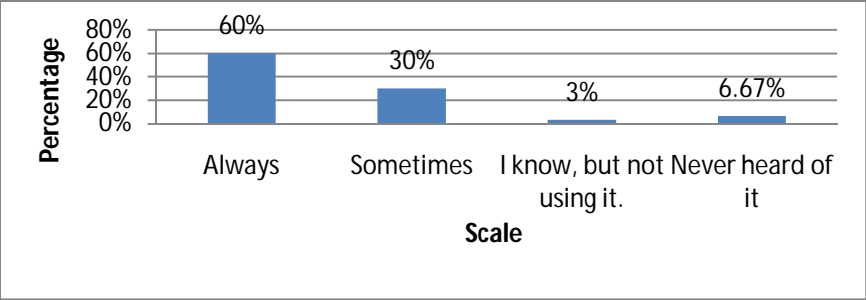


Chart 4: Do you try to get the meaning of an unknown word from other associated words or sentences of a text? (Guessing meaning without using dictionary)

4.1.3. 2. Translating

As an ESL/EFL learner, it is a very common practice among the undergraduate learners to translate any English word in their own mother tongue.(Chart 5)

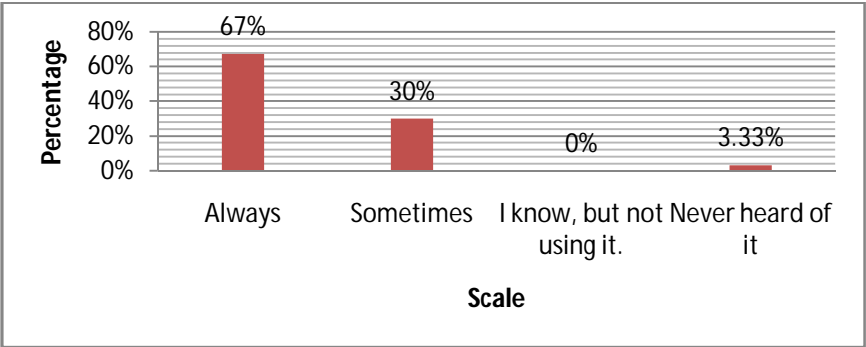


Chart 5: Do you try to translate any English word into your own language for better understanding? (Translating)

4.1.3.3. Scanning

It is quite surprising that 16.67% students never heard of the name of scanning.

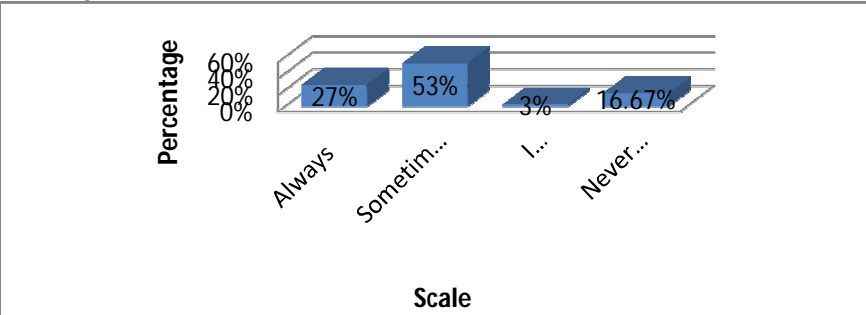


Chart 6: Do you use scanning to find out any information from any reading material? (Scanning)

4.1.3.4. Skimming

Chart 7 illustrates that most of the students (53%) find skimming quite functional to use it in every reading. On contrary, 10% students never have the concept of skimming, though it is supposed to use by an undergraduate level students.

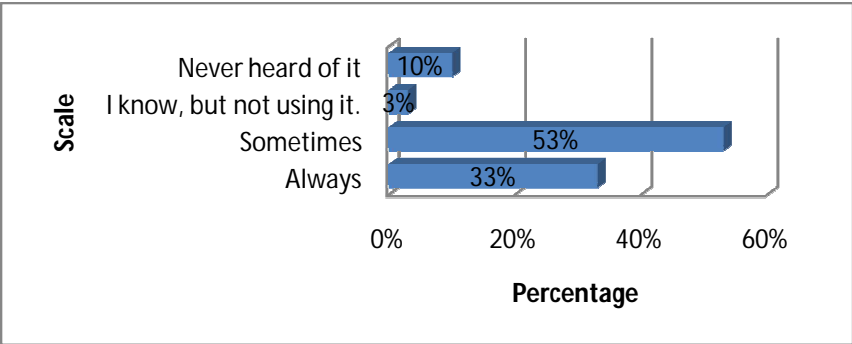


Chart 7: Do you use skimming to find out any ideas from any reading material? (Skimming)

4.1.3. 5. Predicting

In chart 8, a large amount of students (36.67%) did not have the knowledge of this strategy.

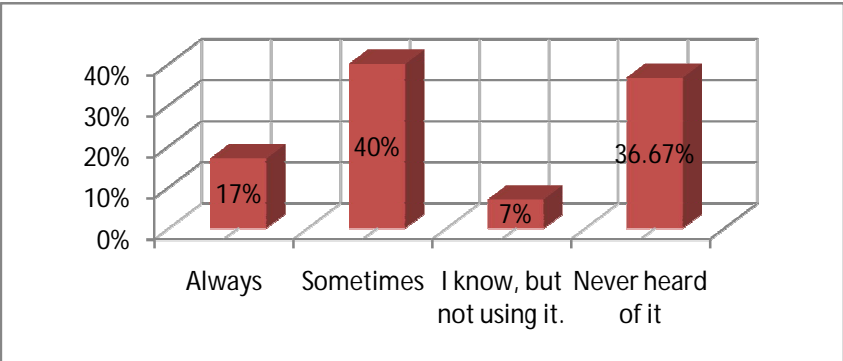


Chart 8: Do you make any predictions as to what will happen next while you read something? (Predicting)

Chart 9 shows that 57% students try to make predictions upon the basis of writing style, vocabulary and content, whereas 26.67% students' have no understanding of this strategy.

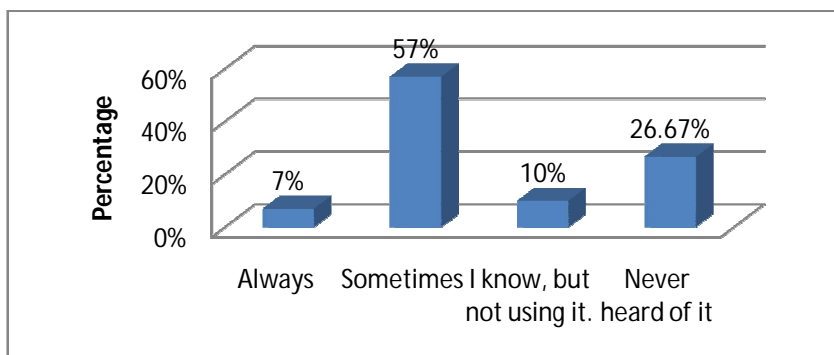


Chart 9: Do you make predictions while reading?

4.1.3.6. Using Linguistic Elements

A noteworthy amount of students (13%) know to use linguistic elements, while 30% students have not heard of this strategy (Chart 10).

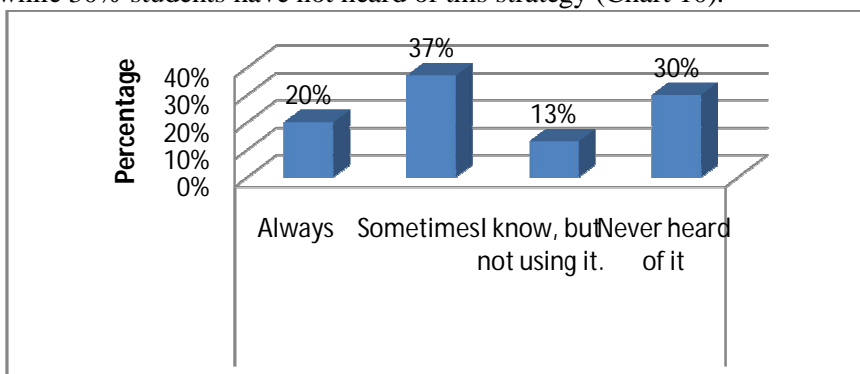


Chart 10: Do you use linguistic elements, for example: connectors, coherence etc. to comprehend a reading text? (Using linguistic elements)

4.1.3.7. Understanding textual organization

As an ESL/EFL learner, most of the learners (40%) agree with the statement that they make an effort to understand the textual organization in some cases.

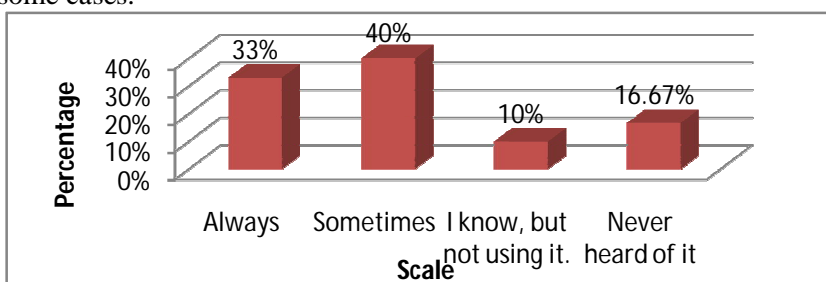


Chart 11: Do you pay attention to the textual organization of a reading text? (Understanding textual organization)

4.1.3.8. Global

As Mokhtary and Sheorey (2002) point out that global reading includes a purpose in mind of a reader, chart 12 shows that an ESL/EFL reader of undergraduate level has a purpose in reading.

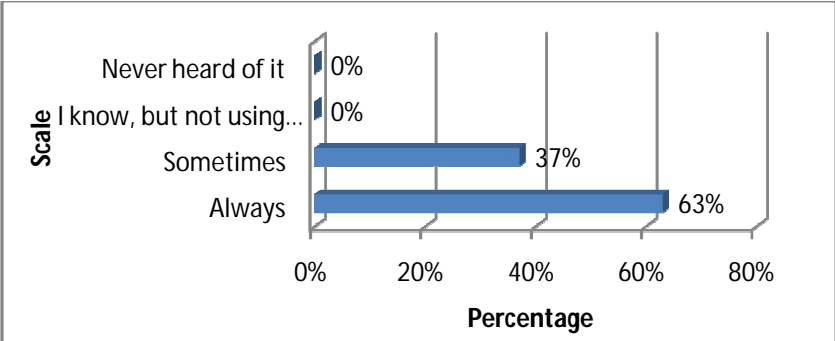


Chart12: Do you have any purpose while you are going to read something?

4.1.3.9. Highlighting

In chart 13, 53% students' have the tendency to highlight any word while they are reading something. On contrary, 13.33% students never enclose highlighting in reading.

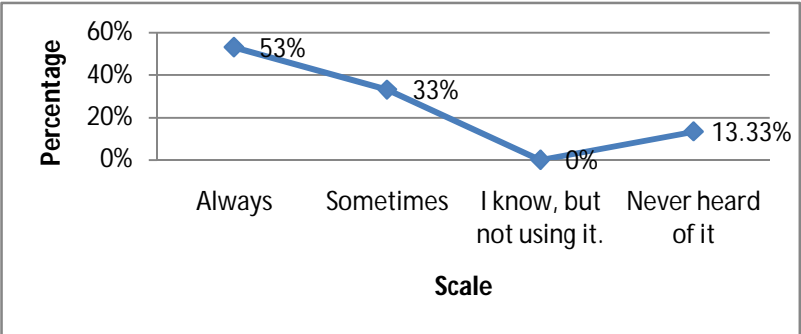


Chart 13: Do you highlight any word or segment of a text while you read something?

4.1.3.10. Summarizing

Although the syllabus of S.S.C and H.S.C. level covers intensive reading, a very few students (23.33%) have no difficulty to make a summary of a text. (Chart 14)

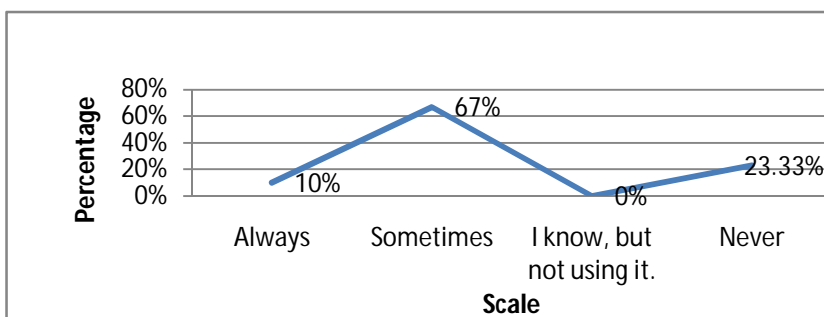


Chart 14: Do you find it difficult to make a summary of a text after reading a text? (Summarizing)

4.1.3.11: Previewing

Chart 15 shows that 30% students' have never heard of previewing strategy for reading. 40% students have acknowledged that they sometimes follow previewing strategy.

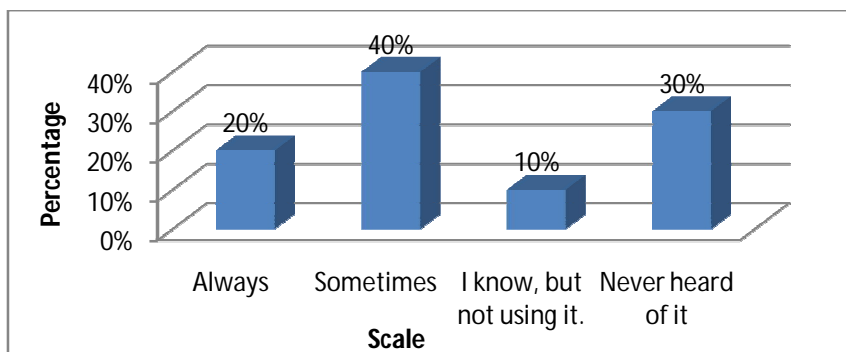


Chart 15: Do you make a preview (reviewing titles, section headings and photo captions) before reading a text?

4.1.3.12. Making Inferences

Chart 16 shows that a number of the students (37%) can make inferences while they are reading any text.

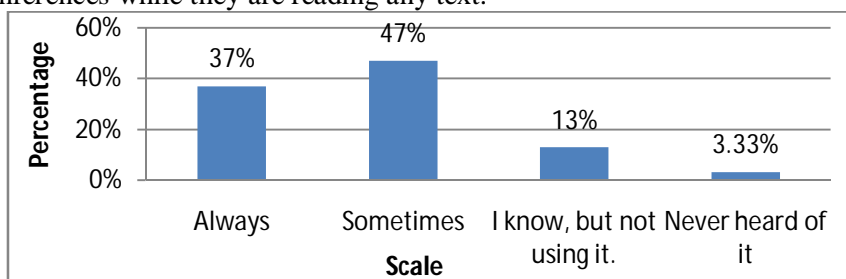


Chart 16: Do you try to find your desired answers to the posed questions after reading a text?

4.1.3.13. Making Decisions

At the undergraduate level, it has been found that many students (40%) can make decisions about what are the important issues in a reading text and found this strategy useful. (Chart 17)

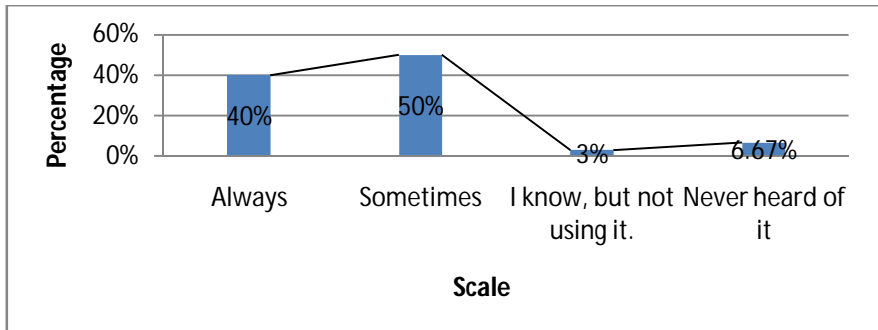


Chart 17: Do you make decisions about what are the important issues in a reading text?

4.1.4. Metacognitive Strategies

4.1.4.1.: Self-Monitoring

A significant amount of students have never heard of self-monitoring, as a consequence, they never have the scope to practice it (table-4).

Table 4: Self-monitoring

Q No.	Questions	Always	Sometimes	I know, but not using it	Never heard of it
2.	Do you ask questions before, during, and after reading? (Self-monitoring)	30%	23%	7%	40%
6.	Do you monitor and check your understanding after reading any materials? (Self-monitoring)	37%	33%	5%	25%
11.	Do you check your predictions after completing your reading? (Self-monitoring)	7%	40%	10%	43.33%

4.1.4.2: Self-evaluating

It is quite surprising that many students (50%) have the familiarity with self-evaluation strategy, but they are not using it to enhance their reading capability. (Chart 18)

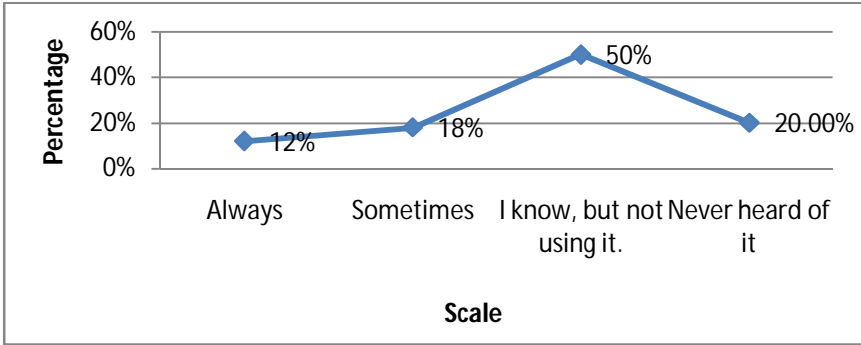


Chart 18: Do you evaluate yourself after reading a text? (Self-evaluating)

4.1.4.3. Self- evaluating (*Repairing*):

As many students have the inclination to evaluate themselves, chart 19 shows a very few students (7%) have the tendency to correct the faulty comprehension.

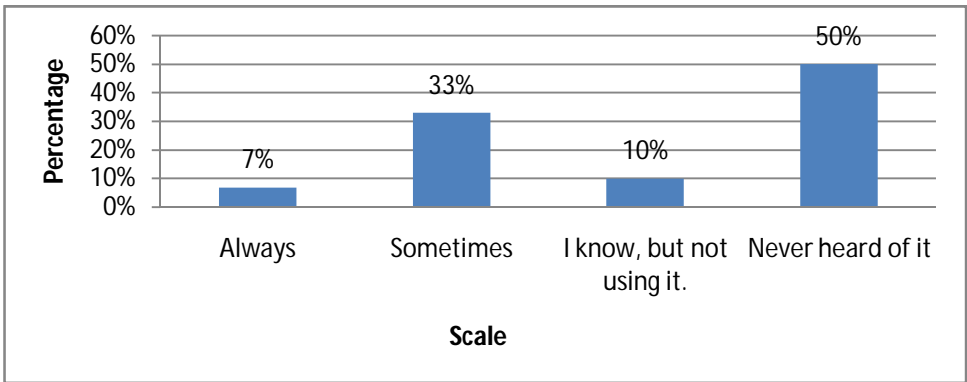


Chart 19: Do you try to repair faulty comprehension after reading?

4.1.4.4. Planning

Table 5 shows that 43% students have worked out plans to address a reading text from their own point of view, on contrary, 20% have never heard of a plan to attend to a text.

Question No. 05	Do you make any plan before reading any materials? (Planning)	Always	43%
		Sometimes	27%
		I know, but not using it.	10%
		Never heard of it	20%

Table 5: Planning

4.1.4.5. Critiquing a Text

Most of students (50%) have tried to analyze a text from a critic's point of view, when their teacher assigns them for a task. (Chart 20)

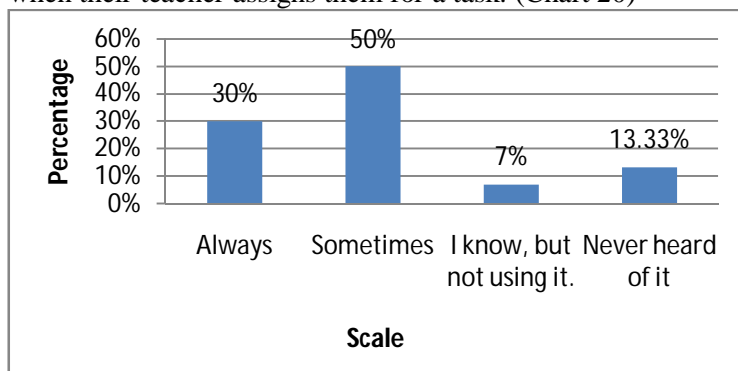


Chart 20: Do you critically analyze a text after reading it?

4.2. Analysis of teachers' questionnaire

The following table shows teachers responses towards the questionnaire. (Table 6)

No.	Questions	Scale	Responses (Percentage)
1.	Do you introduce the reading strategies in EFL classroom?	Always	100%
		Sometimes	0%
		Never	0%
2.	Do your students comprehend the cognitive reading strategies (Scanning, Skimming, Guessing, Making Inference etc.), while you teach them in a reading class?	Always	30%
		Sometimes	50%
		Never	20%
3.	Do you introduce metacognitive reading strategies in the classroom?	Always	50%
		Sometimes	30%
		Never	20%
4.	Do you think memory strategies (Using Imagery, Re-reading etc.) help the learners to understand their reading from their own point of view?	Always	70%
		Sometimes	30%
		Never	0%
5.	Do you find your learners facing difficulties while implementing metacognitive reading strategies in the classroom?	Always	80%
		Sometimes	20%
		Never	0%
6.	Do you evaluate the learning of reading strategies of your students in the classroom?	Always	30%
		Sometimes	60%
		Never	10%
7.	Do you encourage your students to co-ordinate and synthesize different types of strategies while reading?	Always	40%
		Sometimes	60%
		Never	0%
8.	Do you find it difficult to evaluate metacognitive strategies as these strategies largely depend on the learners' self-motivation?	Always	60%
		Sometimes	40%
		Never	0%
9.	Do you find your students enthusiastic enough when they are learning new strategies?	Always	30%
		Sometimes	20%
		Never	50%

Table 6: Analysis of Teacher's Questionnaire

4.3. Discussion

The data collection was modeled to investigate different reading strategies commonly habituated by the undergraduate level students and in parallel to find out several reading strategies which are also very effective to develop reading but generally avoided or disoriented by the students consciously and unconsciously. According to Anderson (2003), reading is inclusive of the reader, the text, fluent reading and strategic reading; all these four things are interactive (p.8). Besides, Anderson (2003) also asserts that learners may discover the best methods by choosing techniques and processes, which is the prominent goal of this research in reading strategies. Following the data analysis it is evident that under each category of Memory, Cognitive and Metacognitive strategies some reading strategies are frequently used by the subject learners, while in some cases, they ignore to choose and they cannot discover some very effective strategies, application of which may develop their reading far better.

As Wu (2008) maintains that memory related strategies help learners to store and review new information, e.g., creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds and reviewing in a structured way. Under this category, the data analysis manifests that *Re-reading* (Chart 3) is frequently used by the learners. As an EFL learner, the students try to revisit the text for better understanding. However, strategies like Using Imagery (Chart 1) and Association (Chart 2) are not commonly used by them. Even some students acknowledge that they have no perception about these strategies.

Cognitive strategies invoke declarative knowledge that refers to the “knowledge that a person may have about his or her abilities and about the salient learning characteristics that affect cognitive processing (McCormick 2003). From the data analysis, it can be inferred that students have some deficiency of using effective strategies that will increase their declarative knowledge like Scanning (Chart 6), Skimming (Chart 7), Predicting (Chart 8), Summarizing (Chart 14) and Previewing (chart 15). However, this inability is unexpected from the students because these particular strategies were anticipated and applied in Secondary and Higher Secondary level to teach communicative English. Additionally, these strategies are also included in the syllabus of “Reading and Writing” course and they are supposed to learn these strategies. Most surprisingly, many students claim that they have never heard about these strategies (Chart 6, 7, 8, 14, 15). Following the data analysis on cognitive reading strategies, it is apparent that strategies like Guessing (Chart 4) and Translating (Chart 5) are most regular strategies used by the students.

The common entity in metacognitive approaches stated (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo and Kupper, 1985) that except

metacognitive approaches students and learners remains directionless towards reviewing their progress, accomplishments and future learning directions. Therefore, in accordance with the data analysis, metacognitive reading strategies are the most incomprehensive strategies to the students. In most of the cases they are completely unaware of the knowledge of such strategies under this category. Self-monitoring (Table 4), self-evaluation (Chart 18), planning (Table 5) are such types of metacognitive reading strategies which are mostly avoided by the learners, and in some cases, the data proves their ignorance about some of those strategies.

Apparently, lack of motivation and lack of practice from the students' part can be the reason for such avoidance and ignorance. Moreover, some language skill teachers are also unaware of these skills (Table 6). Mostly, these strategies and skills are self-centered; therefore, adaptability to those strategies depends on the learners' attitude towards them.

Following the data collected from the individual response taken from 10 teachers of the selected institution, who are generally experienced in conducting reading classes, the problems regarding instructions given by the teachers and perceptions of those instructions from the learners' part are marked (Table 6). According to the data analysis, teachers try to devote themselves in highest range to refer, introduce and initiate a variety of reading strategies during reading class. On the contrary to this fact, the analysis also explains that most of the teachers are successful in introducing cognitive and memory strategies effectively but in case of metacognitive strategies there are some dilemmatic predicaments faced by them. Almost half of the teachers have mentioned that learners are able to comprehend reading strategies like scanning, skimming, guessing and making inferences etc. The largest part of the teachers have referred to memory related strategies as the most preferred and helpful ones among all other strategies for the students. Whereas, the metacognitive strategies are not up to the mark compared to cognitive and memory related strategies. One of the reasons, interpreted from the data, can be the irregular reference of metacognitive strategies mentioned by the teachers in the classroom, because, maximum of them have faced difficulties in encouraging the learners to get acquainted with metacognitive reading strategies in their reading classes.

As a result, the students who lack self-motivated strategy instructions, failed to be evaluated by the teachers on those occasions. Lastly with an open ended question, the teachers are asked to list the most common barriers that they have encountered with the implementation of the reading strategies in the classroom. The teachers have responded individually and the common entities within their answers are difficulties

regarding classrooms containing a large number of students, lack of learners' self-motivation, time limitations and pseudo-responses from the students. The analysis of the data extracted from the teachers has a correlation with the data analysis of the learners. In accordance to the data analysis of the learners, it is evident that they may be deliberately ignoring the metacognitive strategies, as teachers' data also indicate the lack of self-motivation amongst the learners in case of learning and implementing reading strategies.

5. Suggestions

The study shows some significant amount of problems that students of undergraduate level are facing regarding their use of strategies at the time of reading. The following suggestions could be applied at the undergraduate level to enhance the reading proficiency.

- 1) Teachers should give more emphasis on developing reading strategies of his/her students to enhance the reading capability.
- 2) Teachers should provide exercises on reading in order to judging the student's capability to use different strategies in different contexts.
- 3) Teachers' should explain and exemplify how to use different memory strategies (using imagery, association, re-reading) to develop the reading skill.
- 4) Metacognitive reading strategies should be introduced and the teachers can play a vital role in this regard.
- 5) Learners should learn consciously and practice specific reading strategies until the strategies move from conscious to unconscious, from strategy to skill (Nunan, 2003).
- 6) The teacher should allow the class to engage in group discussions after explaining and exemplifying reading strategies to the students.
- 7) The students should be encouraged to co-ordinate and synthesize the usages of various reading strategies to enhance their reading capability.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study highlights the most common strategies under the categories of Memory, Cognitive, and Metacognitive strategies preferred by the undergraduate level learners in case of reading materials academically, or in authentic situations. As stated by Takeuchi (2002) that the strategies preferred at the beginning stage of learning are not the same as those preferred at the advanced stage, findings followed by the data collection may enable the teachers to be concerned about some of the striking and effective reading strategies, with which learners lack attachment, can be incorporated in their teaching reading skills at the

undergraduate level in Bangladesh. Familiarizing those strategies at the undergraduate level learners in wide scale possibly can enhance reading skills and become competent in reading texts. The key goal of reading strategy instruction is to improve students' reading comprehension and the readers who use reading strategies (cognitive and metacognitive) frequently and adequately are more successful reader than who do not use them. The statement is justified by Brown(1994) that strategies are contextualized battle plans and they vary individually. So, different types of learners use them according to their own individual efficiency to conquer the comprehension of the text.

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Status of Learner-centred Participatory Approaches at Secondary Schools in Bangladesh

Sheikh Shahbaz Riad*

Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine the status of learner-centred participatory teaching-learning approach in the secondary schools in Bangladesh. The study was conducted through one to one interviews with six head teachers, focus group discussions with six groups of students and six groups of classroom teachers in six different secondary schools of Dhaka division. Besides, field-notes were taken through observing twelve classes to see what are actually happening in the classrooms. Findings of the study revealed that all stakeholders of the secondary level in Bangladesh reflected common understandings on student-centred learning (SCL) and its objectives. The study also indicated that although teachers were highly positive to student-centred learning approach, they were not able to apply the learner-centred participatory techniques effectively because of some reasons like large class size, excessive class loads of teachers, lack of subject-based teachers, no time for before class preparation, and lack of necessary teaching aids.

Keywords: *Learner-centred teaching, participatory approach, curriculum, teaching aids.*

1. Introduction

Holsinger (2000) claims that secondary education has increasingly become a central policy concern of developing countries especially among those which have made rapid progress in universalizing primary education. In Bangladesh, importance has been increasingly attached to secondary education for the last two decades. A good number of education projects such as Teaching Quality Improvement in Secondary Education Project (TQI-SEP), Secondary Education Sector Development Project (SESDP), and Secondary Education Quality and Access Enhancement Project (SEQAEP) are working with a view to achieving quantitative as well as qualitative development in secondary education. The quality of education depends, to a large extent, on the quality of teachers involved in implementing the curriculum. Teaching is mainly based on two major categories of methods; namely the teacher-centred and Learner-centred. In

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teacher-centered approach, students set all of their focus on the teacher. The teacher talks, while the students exclusively listen and jot down. Learners work alone and there is a very little scope for cooperation and participation. On the other hand, 'Learner-centered teachers do not employ a single teaching method. This approach emphasizes different types of methods that shift the role of the instructors to facilitate students' learning (Blumberg, P. 2008). In Bangladesh, for the last ten years emphasis has been put on learner-centred participatory approach of teaching-learning. The present study has been carried out to see what are actually happening in the classrooms of secondary schools regarding the use of participatory approach.

1.1. Learner-centred teaching-learning in Bangladesh

Student-centered teaching-learning focuses attention on what the students are learning, how the students are learning, and the conditions under which the students are learning, whether the students are retaining and applying. In student-centred approaches students are not considered to be empty vessels. They come with their own perceptual frameworks. Students construct their own meaning by talking, listening, writing, reading, and reflecting on contents, ideas, issues and concerns. In student-centered classrooms, students are directly involved in the discovery of their own knowledge through collaboration and cooperation with others. In a student-centred learning situation, teachers are expected to talk less than learners creating learning-opportunities for them through active and self-involvement. Some of the characteristic features of a participatory classroom are the combination of some activities like group work, pair work, role play, acting, peer observation, panel discussion, brainstorming, pair checking, peer teaching, group teaching, debate, recitation, assignment, project work, report writing and so on (Riad &Podder, 2014). In Bangladesh 'Teaching Quality Improvement in Secondary Education Project' (TQI-SEP) under the Ministry of Education (MoE) has introduced student-centred participatory teaching-learning approach at the secondary level from 2005. One of the goals of the project was to increase the quality of education at this level by improving the quality of teaching process.

1.2. Teaching Quality Improvement in Secondary Education Project

The Most significant activities in relation to raising awareness, dissemination and providing necessary training on student-centered learning to classroom teachers, head teachers, teacher educators, educational administrators, School Managing Committee (SMC) members have been completed by TQI-SEP. From 2006 to 2012 this project has administered different training programmes for different stakeholders of secondary education. Among them Continuous Professional Development

(CPD) training was most effective one. Almost all subject teachers were trained in CPD and made them skilled in the use of participatory mode of teaching-learning like mini lecture, discussion, question-answer, pair work, group work, investigation, observation, role play, debate, and assignment . This project trained almost 5, 64,025 stakeholders under different training programmes. The following table shows a detail picture.

Table 1: Training programmes under TQI-SEP

S.N	Types of Trainings	Number of trainees
1	Training of Trainers/teacher educator (ToTs)	4,618
2	Head Teachers Training	28,645
3	Subject Based Training Continuous Professional Development (CPD) CPD 1, CPD 2 and CPD 3	4,20,368
4	Continuous Professional Development (Digital Content)	988
5	Secondary Teaching Certificate (STC) (3 months STC)	15758
6	Secondary Teaching Certificate (STC) (9 months STC)	1228
7	B.Ed (12 month) Govt. TTCs	14531
8	B.Ed (12 month) BOU	19694
9	Awareness creation training on inclusive education for HT and SMC members	53826
10	Inclusive education for classroom teachers in three outreach districts	2142
11	Education administrators' training	1177
12	Curriculum dissemination training	547
13	Foreign training	503
Grand total		5,64,025

Source: TQI-SEP

1.3. Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) Curriculum

The Secondary Teacher Education Curriculum developed by SESIP in 2006 under National University has significantly contributed to familiarizing student-centred approach of teaching to all stakeholders of secondary education. One of the goals of teaching-learning activities of B.Ed curriculum was to introduce activities and stimulate critical interaction to support, challenge, modify and extend learner competencies with a collaborative model in which the teachers created a learning community that is learner centred, development orientated and problem focused and facilitated through a variety of teaching methods that encourage the students to become reflective practitioners. This B.Ed curriculum mentioned some specific methods and techniques of teaching and learning which may encourage the trainees in their classroom activities. These are workshops, small group work, hands on practical

activity, investigation, reflective journals, seminars, group and class discussions, action research, problem solving and portfolio. With the mentioned student-centred techniques, it is hoped that trainee teachers will engage the students in a wide range of learning activities. Every year about 7000 in-service and would be teachers take B.Ed training from fourteen government Teachers' Training Colleges all over the country. In 2014, the total number of B.Ed trainees was 6,856 (BANBEIS, 2014).

1.4. Student-centred Learning in NCTB curriculum

After a long period of 17 years, the curriculum of secondary level has been reformed in 2012. A study on the previous secondary curriculum of 1995 identified many weaknesses, inappropriateness and problems in different components of the curriculum. It is found that the previous curriculum was excessively theoretical and informative, and it led the learners to rote learning. Beside this, scopes for investigation, acquiring problem solving skills, learning by doing and developing creativity and innovation were limited in that curriculum. Opportunities for developing moral and humane qualities were also insufficient. Moreover, it heavily emphasized content memorization. The newly developed curriculum of 2012 has tried to address those limitations. New curriculum of secondary education 2012 thought that ensuring learning through curriculum implementation depends mainly on two things. The most important one is the class teacher's active cooperation and the second one is the appropriate use of quality textbooks and other teaching aids. At the same time they especially put stress in learner mental and physical participation in the teaching-learning process. Learning can take place easily and effectively if learners actively participate in the learning process. So, class activities needs to be diversified. For this reason, curriculum 2012 highlighted different SCL techniques like discussions, group works, story writing, drawing, debates, role play, practical work, question-answer, demonstrations. However curriculum of 2012 highly acknowledged the constructivist theory, Gestalt theory and experiential learning where active participation, reflection, collaboration and involvement of learners are very crucial (NCTB, 2012).

1.5. Reflection of student-centred learning approach in secondary books

In the light of the present curriculum 2012, almost all the textbooks at the secondary level have been introduced. While introducing the textbooks, the capacity, aptitude and prior knowledge of the learners have been taken into utmost consideration. At the same time, special attention has been given on the expansion of the learner's creative faculty. Adding learning outcomes at the beginning of each chapter, hints about the achievable knowledge of the learners have been given. By adding variety

of activities, teaching and learning has also been made creative. Examining different books for class IX and X, it was found that almost all books included diverse techniques like group work, team work, pair work, worksheet, activity, tasks and experiment where there are extended scopes of active engagement for teachers and students. For the first time NCTB incorporated above mentioned student-centred techniques in the text books.

2. Rationale of the Study

The contemporary research of education theory has widely and deeply investigated many aspects of how students learn and how teachers should teach them more effectively. Many countries have adopted Student-centred teaching and learning. Emphasizing on SCL, UNESCO suggests that, Vietnamese students need to be trained with new methods so that they can be provided with the new working skills such as activeness, cooperativeness, creativeness and argumentativeness (Tran, 2000 in Thanh, 2010). Biswas and Roy (2011) in their article 'Important Consideration in Planning Student-centred Education in Bangladesh' recommended that as the Bangladeshi school system is based on banking concept of education, the curriculum should be more child-centric so that creating tomorrow's learner-centred environment would be ensured.

Ministry of Education (MoE) is trying to encourage teachers, administrators and others concerns regarding student-centred participatory approach of teaching-learning activities for the last ten years. With a view to obtaining that goal the 'Teaching Quality Improvement in Secondary Education Project' under MoE has trained almost all secondary teachers on student-centred participatory approach through Continuous Professional Development (CPD) training from 2006 to 2012 with the intention of ensuring quality education. At the same time, National Curriculum (2012) developed for classes from vi to x by National Curriculum Textbook Board (NCTB) has also attached importance to SCL to ensure learning. However, according to NCTB's statistics on 'Evaluation of Secondary Curriculum and Need Assessment' (2010), lecture method is still a favourite method to the students and teachers. Moreover, it is observed that teachers are enthusiastic and motivated to learner-centred participatory approach during training but in practical field that is, in the classroom they are found unwilling to apply these approaches due to some reasons. But no significant research work comes into view to have been available on this issue. Therefore, this study has been considered to investigate the present position of learner-centred participatory teaching-learning. The findings of the study would provide guidelines to the teachers, curriculum planners, education administrators and experts to find out proper means to implement SCL approach effectively.

3. Research Questions

In order to find the present status of learner-centred participatory approach in the secondary classrooms, the answers to the following questions were searched:

1. What do the teachers and students understand by learner-centred participatory approach?
2. What are the benefits of learner-centred participatory approach?
3. How do the teachers use participatory approach while teaching?
4. What are the challenges of implementing learner-centred participatory approach?

4. Research Design

It was a qualitative research which employed interviews, focus group discussions, and classroom observations in six secondary schools of Dhaka division. Six head teachers were interviewed and focus group discussion (FGD) were administered with 56 classroom teachers in groups of 9/10; and 69 students from the participating schools took part in FGD in groups of 11/12. Moreover, twelve teaching sessions from all the participating schools were observed in full to check if they follow participatory way of teaching. The schools covered government, non-government, boys, girls, and urban-rural secondary schools. Furthermore, the curriculum documents of 2012 were examined to find out how far they are supportive to learner-centred approach.

5. Findings and Discussion

The findings of the study have been placed and discussed below:

5.1 Belief and attitude toward learner-centred teaching-learning

All six FGD groups of classroom teachers' in the study have a very clear and common understanding about student-centred learning approaches. Most of them believed that learning-centred learning-teaching means such teaching-learning process where students and teachers collectively participate in different activities like pair work, group work, group presentation, individual work and assignment. In this process there is no scope to deliver one way lecture by teachers. Teachers play their role as facilitators. Six FGD groups of students' in the study expressed a very comprehensible understanding about the concepts of student-centred learning approaches. They opined that student-centred learning is where students actively participate and help each other with teachers in teaching-learning method. It may be group work, pair work and questioning.

Six head teachers of different secondary schools expressed that student centred learning means where students have great scopes to share

their ideas and views with teachers and other friends. In such approaches, they are active, engaged, involved with teachers in teaching-learning activities without fear and shyness and where learners are motivated, joyful and courageous to respond and ask questions.

5.2 Benefits of learner-centred participatory approaches

It is good for learners because they enjoy it very much, participate actively without nervousness. Backward and weak students can learn more with the help of their friends. On the other hand, teachers also enjoy this approach because they can determine the learning needs of learners applying different techniques and can ensure better learning.

5.3 . A small number of teachers applied participatory approach

Out of six, two schools confidently believed that they were enthusiastic to practice different techniques of student-centred learning like pair work, group work, group presentation, question-answer method, assignment and black board works. Students of those schools think that their teachers are happy, positive and motivated to practice SCL techniques in the classroom. They enjoy competition in group and pair work. They are habituated to make group and pair. For their long time practice, they can answer any question after consultation among their group. They have U-shaped sitting arrangements which are almost friendly to implement SCL techniques. Lighting is sufficient. Teachers of those two schools also feel that head teachers (HTs) are cooperative to SCL techniques in the classroom. Head teachers of those schools opine that their teachers-students freely, confidently and sincerely follow and practice SCL approaches in the classrooms. Both teachers and learners enjoy SCL approach. Though, as a non-participant observer of aforesaid schools, the researcher found that teachers used only group work as student-centred techniques.

The questions asked to foster student thinking and learning were lower order questions. They did not utilize any relevant instructional materials which might encourage students to be more participative in learning. However, the classes were in participatory mode because average number of present students of observing classes was 30. On the other hand, research findings from other four schools showed that their classrooms were not fully ready to practise different techniques of SCL due to some limitations; however they try to practice SCL techniques. They need flexible furniture in their classrooms, though the students of those schools felt that their teachers were happy, positive and motivated to practice SCL techniques in the classroom. Teachers of those schools informed that they tried to apply group work, pair work and questioning techniques. However, they cannot apply all times because of huge students in a class.

For example they mention that they have more than 80 students in a class. So they cannot make the classes participatory in most cases. It was found that there were more than 100 students in some observed classes.

5.4 Challenges of implementing learner-centred approach

Classroom teachers, learners and head teachers of participating schools identified some barriers as challenges of implementing learner-centred participatory approaches. Most of them believed that excess students in the classes, class load of every teacher, non-stop classes, no time for before class preparation, lack of subject-based teachers, teaching other subjects which they have not studied in their academic lives, burden of stop-gap classes, lack of flexible furniture and lack of necessary supportive teaching aids were the major difficulties in the path of proper implementation of student-centred learning approach. One of the head teachers recognized present class duration (45 minutes for double shift and 50 minutes for single shift) is not enough for student-centred learning approach. Despite the mentioned drawbacks and limitations to implement SCL, it has been appeared to the researcher that lack of commitment, lack effective patronization and mentoring by head teachers are the key barriers on the way proper implementation of student-centred learning approaches in secondary schools.

6. Recommendations

To overcome the hurdles of implementing learner-centred participatory approaches, the participants suggested the following ways:

- 1) Class-wise number of students should be reduced. It should be not more than 40.
- 2) Number of classes per teacher should be decreased. It should be maximum four out of six.
- 3) Teachers should be appointed or recruited based on subjects.
- 4) Poster paper, markers and necessary teaching aids and materials should be ensured to the make the classes participatory.
- 5) Music, arts and crafts teachers should be recruited in good number.
- 6) Teachers should be allowed to teach only those subjects in which they have sufficient contents and pedagogical knowledge and skills.

Conclusion

Learning and teaching improve as a result of cooperation between schools, parents, and the community under the leadership of the head teacher or the school leader. So the head teachers can play a very positive role to establish the culture of practising student-centred learning approaches in the class rooms. Participants also hoped that if student-centred learning could be ensured, there must have many positive effects to ensure quality education. They confidently believed that student-centred participatory approach will ensure good relation between teachers-students, students-students. Besides, examination phobia of learners will disappear gradually; attendance rate will increase and dropout rate will decrease.

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A Survey on Farmers' Practices for Prevalence of Natural Enemies of Yard Long Bean in Major Growing Areas of Bangladesh

Dr. Md. Shafi Uddin*

Abstract

The study was conducted in major intensive yard long bean growing areas such as Jessore, Dhaka, Narsingdi, Comilla and Chittagong of Bangladesh to know farmers' practices (FPs) for managing major insect pests of yard long bean during March 2009 to October 2009 in the farmers' field. The study comprised survey of sample farmers through intensive field visit for field data collection and inspection. A total of 5 farmers' practices (FPs) were found in use of which type 1 comprised chemicals plus non-chemical components and type-2 comprised only non-chemical methods. Of 75 sample farmers, 82.57% practiced FPs under type 1 while 17.33% practiced FP under type 2. Non chemical methods were congenial to protect natural enemies but net return and BCR were low. Combination of chemical and non chemical methods (chemical, mechanical cultural and field sanitation) was revealed as the most suitable option for managing major insect pests of yard long bean avoiding massive disruption of natural enemies.

Keywords: Survey, farmers practice, natural enemies, yard long bean.

1. Introduction

Yard long bean (*Vigna unguiculata* ssp. *sesquipedalis* (L.) Verdc) belongs to the Leguminosae family. It is one of the three subspecies of cowpea, the other two subspecies are cowpea or common cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* ssp. *sinensis*) and catjian cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* ssp. *unguiculata*) (Santhadphanich, 1987). All the subspecies have the same chromosome number ($2n = 2X = 22$) (Bounnhong, 1997). Yard long bean is also known as asparagus bean, string bean, snake bean or vegetable cowpea (Purseglove, 1977). It is mostly grown in Chittagong, Chittagong Hill Tracts (CHTs), Faridpur, Noakhali, Comilla and Rangpur districts. At present, it is extensively grown in Dhaka, Chittagong, Comilla, Narsingdi, and Jessore districts and also other districts of Bangladesh. It is extensively grown in kharif season when there is shortage of vegetables supply in the

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market. Yard long bean is one of the economically important vegetable crops in Bangladesh. The tender pods of yard long bean and their mature seeds are rich in protein (Aykroyd, 1974) with high amount of lysine; an essential amino acid (Ferny, 1981). It serves as a cheap source of protein, especially in south Asia. Sufficient production and consumption of this vegetable may contribute to solve protein–energy malnutrition in Bangladesh to some extent. If combined with market development, locally and abroad, yard long bean has the potential to become an excellent enrichment of the available vegetable assortment (Madamba *et al.*, 2006).

The insect pests have been reported as one of the serious problems to yard long bean cultivation in the country (Rashid, 1993). Pod borers have been frequently attacking various crops including country beans and causing enormous damages to the crop (Karim, 1993) but their status in yard long bean has not yet been reported. Aphids (*Aphis craccivora*) suck sap from tender leaves, twigs, inflorescences and pods and make colossal losses in leguminous crops. The farmers mostly depend upon chemical insecticides to control the pest infesting yard long bean. Such an over reliance on pesticides for controlling insect pests in crop fields has developed over generations (Islam, 1999). Insecticides commonly used, however, are not target specific and they frequently kill natural enemy populations and may cause upset and resurgence of other pest populations (Debach and Rosen, 1991). Reports about the natural enemies of insect pests' incidence and farmers' practices to combat them particularly the yard long bean in its major growing areas of Bangladesh are scanty. The present study was, therefore, undertaken to inspect natural enemies of insect pests and farmers' practices (FPs) for managing major pests attacking yard long bean in different intensive growing areas of Bangladesh.

2. Research Design

The survey was conducted in the farmers' field in five major growing areas of yard long bean such as Jessore (Jessore sadar), Dhaka (Savar), Narsingdi (Shibpur), Comilla (Chandina) and Chittagong (Mirshawrai) (Figure 1.1) during March 2009 to October 2009. The study comprised survey of sample farmers and intensive field visit for field data collection and inspection.

2.1. Selection of survey locations and their features

Jessore sadar, Savar, Shibpur, Chandina and Mirshawrai are the intensive yard long bean cultivated upazillas of Jessore, Dhaka, Narsingdi, Comilla and Chittagong districts, respectively. From each upazilla one union and from each selected union one yard long bean field was randomly selected for the survey and inspection (Table 1).

Table 1: Selected five sample locations for survey and their features

Sl.	Name of Village	No. of surveyed farmers	Upazila	District	Agro ecological zone
1.	Natuapara	15	Jessore Sadar	Jessore	11
2.	Daywin	15	Savar	Dhaka	28
3.	Ghasirdiah Borokanda	07 08	Shibpur	Narshingdi	28
4.	Pihor	15	Chandina	Comilla	19
5.	East Govnia North Umbaria	10 05	Mirshawrai	Chittagong	23

For each location, 15 yard long bean farmers were randomly selected for the study. For this purpose, a list of yard-long bean growers of the randomly selected location was prepared with the help of the Sub Assistant Agricultural Officers (SAAOs) of the respective location. From the list of each location, 15 farmers were randomly selected by applying the statistical random chart. Thus a total of 75 farmers were selected for interviews and their individual plots were visited for the survey (Table 1).

2.2. Methods of Data Collection

Data were collected directly from the sample farmers by administering predesigned and pretested questionnaires (Instrument I) and recording of data in pre-formatted register (Instrument II) at 15 days interval from the sample farmer's crop fields through field and crop observation. In questionnaire survey, the researcher directly interviewed the sample farmers and collected data on methods of pest control, mechanical control, cultural control, field sanitation and other control measures. Data were collected from randomly selected 7 (seven) yard long bean plants by using normal pace of 20 steps interval along the field avoiding boarder lines, on infested and healthy shoot, inflorescence and pod (in number and weight), and ultimately healthy and infested yield at harvest and sales of harvested produces. Such field data collection activities were assisted by the Sub Assistant Agricultural Officers (SAAOs) of Department of Agricultural Extension (DAE) of respective areas.

2.3. Data processing, Analysis and output Generation

For effectiveness and/or impact assessment, different farmers practices (FPs) were considered as treatment and the five districts were considered replication for output of all five districts. The data obtained for different characters were statistically analyzed to find out the significance of effects/impacts of the different practices including chemicals, mechanical control measures, cultural control, field sanitation etc. either alone or in different combinations used by the farmers in the field on yield contributing characters, yield, economic return and insect pest diversity in

yard long bean field. Data were analyzed by using MSTAT-C software for analysis of variance and ANOVA was calculated by F variance test. The significance of the difference was estimated by the Duncan’s Multiple Range Test (DMRT) at 5% level of probability.

3. Findings and Discussion

3.1. Farmers Practices for managing major insect pests

The farmers’ practices (FPs) for pod borer and aphid management as reported by 75 sample farmers from all the five districts together were categorized into two broad types. The broad type-1: those with chemicals as a common management component and the broad type-2: those without chemicals i.e. non-chemicals as management component. Broad type-1 invariably included chemicals as well as mechanical, cultural and field sanitation. The FPs under broad type-2 was non-chemical comprising mechanical, cultural and field sanitation. The study reveals a total of 5 FPs for pod borer and aphid management under two broad types, which are presented below:

Type 1 comprising chemicals + others	
FP 1	Combination of chemical, mechanical, cultural and field sanitation.
FP 2	Combination of chemical, cultural and field sanitation
FP 3	Combination of chemical and field sanitation
Type 2 Non chemicals (Other than chemical and botanical)	
FP 4	Mechanical, cultural and field sanitation
FP 5	Combination of cultural and field sanitation

The sample farmers together from five sample districts and those from each sample district practicing the FPs have been shown in Table 2. Most of the sample farmers (81.33%) practices Type 1 while 18.67% of sample farmers practices Type 2 in five districts. The farmers practicing FPs of Type 1 and Type 2 in each of the five districts were identical except Jessore district with some lower rate in case of type 1 (77.78%) while under type 2 with higher rate (22.22%).

Table 2: Farmers' practices for managing major insect pests

Farmers' practice		Practicing farmers (%) in					
Prac. code	Description of components	All 5 districts	Jessore	Dhaka	Narsingdi	Comilla	Chittagong
Type 1- Chemicals + others							
FP ₁	Combination of chemical, mechanical, cultural and field sanitation methods	11.11c	8.89c	8.89c	11.11b	17.78ab	8.89b
FP ₂	Combination of chemical, cultural and field sanitation methods	32.44b	26.67b	31.11b	40.00a	31.11a	33.33a
FP ₃	Combination of chemical and field sanitation methods	37.78a	42.22a	42.22a	31.11a	33.33a	40.00a
		81.33	77.78	82.22	82.22	82.22	82.22
Type 2- Non- chemicals							
Fp ₄	Combination of mechanical, cultural and field sanitation methods	9.78c	13.33c	8.89c	8.89b	8.89b	8.89b
FP ₅	Combination of cultural and field sanitation methods	8.89c	8.89c	8.89c	8.89b	8.89b	8.89b
		18.67	22.22	17.78	17.78	17.78	17.78
LSD ₍₀₎		3.43	12.23	7.59	9.16	16.76	9.72

*Means in a column having same letter (s) did not differ significantly ($p>0.05$) by DMRT.

The above finding indicates that the use of chemicals still highly dominates in the farmers' practices for managing major insect pests of yard long bean in all the surveyed areas. At the same time, the inclusion of mechanical control, cultural and field sanitation in the farmer's practices with chemicals is an indication of the farmer's motivation towards reducing sole dependence on chemicals.

3.2 Effectiveness of the FPs for managing major insect pests in yard long bean

The effectiveness of FPs in managing major insect pests was measured in terms of some important parameters such as number of pests, number of natural enemies, number of healthy and infested twig, inflorescence, pods and their percentage, weight of healthy and infested pod and their percentages, total pod yield, and benefit cost ratio (BCR). As shown in the Table 3, farmers' practices (FPs) had significant effects on control of major insect pests of yard long bean in farmers' field. Significantly the highest rate of effectiveness (94.10%) was observed in FP₁, which was followed by FP₂ (85.20%) and FP₃ (76.70%) and they were

statistically different from each other. But it was the lowest in FP₅ (54.00%) followed by FP₄ (65.80%) and they were significantly different.

Table 3: Effect of farmers’ practices (FPs)

Farmers’ practice		% pest control achieved by sample farmers.
Prac. code	Description of components	
FP ₁	Combination of chemical, mechanical, cultural and field sanitation methods	94.10a
FP ₂	Combination of chemical, cultural and field sanitation methods	85.20b
FP ₃	Combination of chemical and field sanitation methods	76.70c
FP ₄	Combination of mechanical, cultural and field sanitation methods	65.80d
FP ₅	Combination of cultural and field sanitation methods	54.00e
CV (%)		2.77

*In a column, the numeric data represent the mean value of 5 districts; data of each district were derived from the field of 15 respondents.

*In a column, means having similar letter(s) are statistically identical and those having dissimilar letter(s) differ significantly at 0.05 level of probability.

3.3. Number of natural enemies

Lady bird beetle, carabid beetle, syrphid fly, green lacewing and hymenopterans were the common natural enemies observed in the farmers’ field as presented in Table 4 and Figure 1.

Significantly the highest number of lady bird beetle per plant was observed in FP₅ (1.88) and FP₄ (1.11), which were statistically similar while it was significantly the lowest in FP₁ (0.47), which was statistically different from FP₂ (0.55) and FP₃ (0.59) but later two and FP₄ (1.11) were statistically similar.

In case of carabid beetle, statistically highest and similar number per plant was observed in FP₅ (1.12) and FP₄ (1.0) while it was significantly the lowest in FP₂ (0.39) followed by FP₃ (0.43) and FP₁ (0.44) but later two were statistically similar. Significantly the highest number of syrphid fly was observed in FP₄ (0.99) and FP₅ (0.77) with no statistical difference. But it was significantly lowest in FP₂ (0.05), FP₁ (0.06) and FP₃ (0.09), which were statistically similar. On the other hand, significantly the highest number of green lacewing was recorded in FP₄ (1.04) and FP₅ (0.90) and they were statistically similar while it was

significantly the lowest in FP₂(0.19) and FP₃ (0.19), which were statistically identical and was followed by FP₁ (0.24) having statistical difference. At the same time, significantly the highest number of hymenopteran was observed in FP₅ (1.07) and FP₄ (1.01), which were statistically similar while it was significantly the lowest in FP₃ (0.22) and FP₁ (0.28) with no statistical difference followed by FP₂ (0.36), which was statistically higher. When considered as a whole, the natural enemies were significantly higher and similar in FP₅ (5.74) and FP₄ (5.15) while it was the minimum in FP₁ (1.49), FP₃ (1.52) and FP₂ (1.54), which were statistically identical.

Table 4: Farmers practices and their effects on natural enemies

Code of farmers' practices	Number of Natural enemies per plant					Total no. natural enemies
	Lady bird beetle	Carabidbeelte	Syrphid fly	Green lacewing	Hymenopterans	
FP ₁	0.47c	0.44b	0.06 b	0.24c	0.28c	1.49b
FP ₂	0.55b	0.39c	0.05b	0.19b	0.36b	1.54b
FP ₃	0.59b	0.43b	0.09b	0.19b	0.22c	1.52b
Fp ₄	1.11ab	1.00a	0.99a	1.04a	1.01a	5.15a
FP ₅	1.88a	1.12a	0.77a	0.90a	1.07a	5.74a
CV (%)	18.32	15.70	3.29	20.78	19.52	15.18

*In a column the numeric data represent the mean value of 5 districts; data of each district are derived from the field of 15 respondents.

* In a column, means having similar letter(s) are statistically identical and those having dissimilar letter(s) differ significantly at 0.05 level of probability.

*[FP₁ = Combination of chemical, mechanical, cultural and field sanitation, FP₂ = Combination of chemical, cultural and field sanitation, FP₃ = Combination of chemical and field sanitation, FP₄ = Mechanical, cultural and field sanitation methods, FP₅ = Combination of cultural and field sanitation]

The recorded incidence of the natural enemies in yard long bean in the present study was comparable with other finding. FAO (2003) reported that among a number of predators, lady bird beetle, spider and carabid beetle were the most frequently occurring predators. A comparison of the total number of pests and natural enemies presented in Figure 1 showed a higher number of pests than natural enemies in all the FPs, both pests and natural enemies being lower in FP₁, FP₂ and FP₃ than FP₄ and FP₅ while it was the lowest in FP₁.

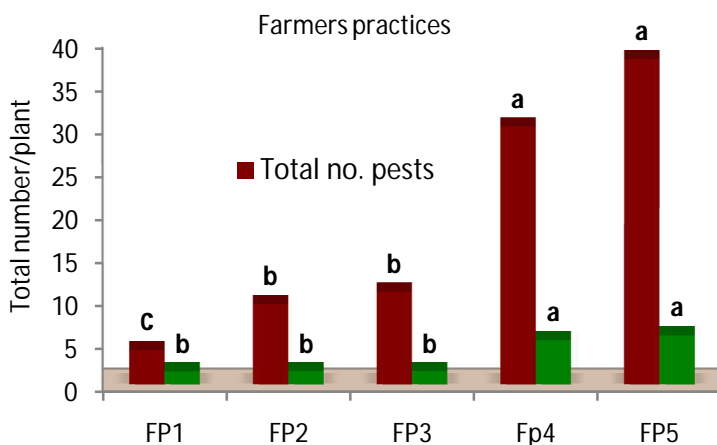


Figure 1. Farmers practices and their effects on insect pests and natural enemies of yard long bean in surveyed areas of Bangladesh.

*[FP₁ = Combination of chemical, mechanical, cultural and field sanitation, FP₂ = Combination of chemical, cultural and field sanitation, FP₃ = Combination of chemical and field sanitation, FP₄ = Mechanical, cultural and field sanitation methods, FP₅ = Combination of cultural and field sanitation]

It indicated that the chemicals used in FP₁, FP₂ and FP₃ considerably suppressed the pests along with the natural enemies, and the combined effect of all options suppressed the pests maximum in FP₁ while they had equally suppressed the natural enemies. But the same non-chemical components did not suppress the natural enemies so significantly. This suggests that the chemicals used in FP₁ and other FPs were nonselective and they might have destroyed the non target natural enemies along with the target pest.

3.4. Effect on yield

Infested pod yield, healthy pod yield and total pod yield significantly varied due to different FPs (Table 5). Significantly the lowest infested pod yield was observed in FP₁, FP₃ and FP₂ (0.85 t/ha, 1.01 t/ha and 1.04 t/ha, respectively), which were statistically similar while it was the highest in FP₅ (2.04 t/ha) and FP₄ (1.80 t/ha), which was statistically comparable. On the other hand, the highest healthy pod yield was obtained from the FP₁ (15.48 t/ha) followed by FP₂ (12.67 t/ha) and FP₃ (12.65 t/ha), which were statistically similar. This was followed by FP₄ (10.39 t/ha) and FP₅ (8.45 t/ha) but they were statistically not similar. Again, the lowest total pod yield was recorded from FP₅ (10.51 t/ha) and this was followed by FP₄ (12.19 t/ha) followed by FP₂ (13.69 t/ha) and FP₃ (13.67 t/ha), later two were statistically similar while it was statistically the

highest in FP₁ (16.93 t/ha), which differed significantly from all other farmers' practices.

Table 5: Effects of farmers' practices for the management of pod borer and aphid

Code of farmers' practice	Pod yield (t/ha)		
	Infested pod	Healthy pod	Total pod
FP ₁	0.85b	15.48a	16.93a
FP ₂	1.04b	12.67b	13.69b
FP ₃	1.01b	12.65b	13.67b
Fp ₄	1.80a	10.39c	12.19c
FP ₅	2.04a	8.452d	10.51d
CV (%)	20.49	5.57	9.35

*In a column the numeric data represent the mean value of 5 districts; data of each district are derived from the field of 15 respondents.

* In a column, means having similar letter(s) are statistically identical and those having dissimilar letter(s) differ significantly at 0.05 level of probability.

*[FP₁ = Combination of chemical, mechanical, cultural and field sanitation, FP₂ = Combination of chemical, cultural and field sanitation, FP₃ = Combination of chemical and field sanitation, FP₄ = Mechanical, cultural and field sanitation methods, FP₅ = Combination of cultural and field sanitation]

3.5. Benefit Costs Analysis (BCA)

As presented in Table 6, significantly the benefit cost ratio (BCR) was the highest in FP₁ (1.82) while it was the lowest in FP₅ (1.20) followed by FP₄ (1.35), FP₂(1.40) and FP₃ (1.40). In case of net return, the highest amount was received by selling produces from FP₁ (Tk. 1,75,000.00/ha) followed by FP₂(Tk. 1,27,700.00/ha) and FP₃ (Tk. 1,27,400.00/ha).But it was the lowest in FP₅ (Tk. 91,770.00/ha) followed by FP₄ (Tk. 1,12,200.00/ha).

Table 6: Benefit cost analysis of different farmers' practices

Code of farmers' practice	Gross return (tk/ha)	Production cost (tk/ha)	Net return (tk/ha)	BCR
FP ₁	270900.00a	95910.00a	175000.00a	1.82a
FP ₂	219000.00b	91290.00b	127700.00b	1.40b
FP ₃	218700.00b	90950.00b	127400.00b	1.40b
Fp ₄	195100.00c	82850.00c	112200.00c	1.35c
FP ₅	168200.00d	76390.00d	91770.00d	1.20d
CV (%)	1.2	0.75	1.9	2.0

The highest gross return was obtained from FP₁(Tk. 2,70,900.00/ha) while it was the lowest in FP₅ (Tk. 1,68,200.00/ha) followed by FP₄ (Tk. 1,95,100.00/ha),FP₃ (Tk. 2,18,700.00/ha) and FP₂

(Tk. 2,19,000.00 /ha). On the other hand, the lowest production cost was incurred to FP₅ (Tk. 76,390.00/ha) followed by FP₄ (Tk. 82,850.00/ha) followed by FP₂ (Tk. 91,290.00/ha) and FP₃ (Tk. 90,950.00/ha) but the highest production cost incurred in FP₁ (Tk. 95,910.00/ha).

*In a column the numeric data represent the mean value of 5 districts; data of each district are derived from the field of 15 respondents.

* In a column, means having similar letter(s) are statistically identical and those having dissimilar letter(s) differ significantly at 0.05 level of probability.

*[FP₁ = Combination of chemical, mechanical, cultural and field sanitation, FP₂ = Combination of chemical, cultural and field sanitation, FP₃ = Combination of chemical and field sanitation, FP₄ = Mechanical, cultural and field sanitation methods, FP₅ = Combination of cultural and field sanitation]

The above results indicated that among the different FPs, the FP₁ and other FPs that included combination of other control options (mechanical, cultural and field sanitation) including chemical method were more effective than the FPs excluding chemical. Thus the effect of chemicals, mechanical, cultural and field sanitation significantly reduced the pod infestation. Similarly, other measures particularly mechanical control through hand destruction of infested twig, inflorescence and pod, and field sanitation rendered non-congenial environment for the pod borer and aphid, which consequently reduced the population. The chemicals used in the FPs most significantly reduced the major insect pests to a minimum and consequently reduced the rate of infestation. All these contributed to higher healthy pod yield and ultimately resulted in the higher BCR. Finding of the present study are comparable with the findings of different components of IPM studied individually by many other researchers (Alam *et al.* 2005; Latif, 2007; Hossen, 2008; Anon, 2009).

Conclusion

Non chemical methods of farmers practices are equally provide low suppression of natural enemies and insect pests as well. Integrating chemical and non chemical methods, as a whole, integrated pest management (IPM) approach need to be adjusted to manage insect pests avoiding massive destruction of natural enemies.

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Integrating Reading and Writing in the ELT Classroom

Mst. Shahanaz Khanam*

Abstract

This study explores EFL students' thinking and reasoning abilities which is manifested in their argumentative writing when it is combined with the integrative teaching of reading and writing. Students' comprehensible and critical thinking skills and their ability to write logically and intelligently are part of English teaching objectives in the Bangladeshi curriculum. However, there are no explicit guidelines on how they could be achieved. The researcher observes that there are inconsistencies between the goals of teaching English as stated in the curriculum of SSC and HSC level, the teaching methods used and the real achievement. Both the curriculum stated that the aims of teaching English, besides developing students' communication skills, include improving their reading and writing skills. However, students completing their secondary and higher-secondary education still cannot listen to, speak, read or write effectively in English. Therefore, the researcher is keen to investigate the scope of argumentative writing with effective integration of reading which is considered to be a manifestation of thinking skills. In the same way a writer needs to analyze, evaluate and present a logical and argumentative text to convince the reader.

Keywords: Reading, writing, curriculum, higher-secondary, teaching methods

1. Introduction

For the Bangladeshi EFL learners, since Bangla and English do not have a one- to one correspondence in terms of the writing system, there is an added difficulty in acquiring proficiency for English writing. Most Bangladeshi EFL learners don't seem to understand the logical progression of a text they read which causes hindrance in their writing. Moreover, I believe that most Bangladeshi EFL teachers also have trouble with teaching writing system effectively in English, possibly because they face difficulties in identifying their students' level of understanding, presenting good writing samples so that the students can follow while organising their ideas for writing.

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Reading comprehension strategies have long been recognized by researchers of second/foreign language reading (Brantmeier, 2002; and Slataci & Akyel, 2002). Reading strategies have been defined by some theorists. They are referred to as mental operations which are used by readers when they read a text and try to understand it effectively (Barnett, 1988). In fact, reading strategies show how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand.

Some researchers stress that since reading is embedded in social practice and inculcated through the process of socialization from an early age, its underlying meaning cannot be acquired through instruction (Atkinson, 1997).

The emphasis in writing classes is usually on teaching narrative, expressive and descriptive genres. Argumentative writing needs to be embedded with critical thinking and reasoning abilities which could assist students to express their views in writing. Reasons are statements in writing used to support claims and generally answer why the claim should be believed, showing a direct logical link to the claim which makes the reader to come into the belief of an argument. Reasons need to be original thoughts of the writer, not just simple repetition or unnecessary elaboration. Reasons are often identified by indicator words and phrases such as – because, for this reason, for one thing.

The teaching objectives of the new English curriculum for secondary and higher secondary level in Bangladesh (National Curriculum, 2012) include to develop students' ability to use the language in a variety of ways, such as negotiating, questioning, hypothesizing, critical thinking, creativity and evaluation, and to process information from a variety of sources and to encourage them to develop a life-long interest in learning. Though these skills are crucial nowadays, they are not accompanied here by a clear method of how they could be achieved. The question, then, is what teaching strategies should be applied to encourage students to engage in critical and creative activities in English classes? How could they be encouraged to become lifelong learners, particularly in English?

The issue of EFL students' inability to express their views effectively in writing and to engage critically with what they read or write, especially in higher education, has recently received a lot of attention, and leading scholars such as Atkinson (1997) question L2 students' abilities to handle critical thinking courses. Therefore, the present study investigates the possibility of improvement of the students' through integrative teaching of reading and writing in the ESL classroom at tertiary level.

1.1. Good Argumentative/Persuasive Writing

McNamara *et al.* (2010) stress that writing well is of great importance for success in a wide variety of situations and professions. For example, they claim that writing skills are among the best indicators of student success at university, describing good writing as writing that articulates ideas clearly, argues opinions, synthesizes multiple perspectives, presents information effectively and consistently with well-chosen details, and avoids grammatical and mechanical errors. Similarly, Paul and Elder (2006, 2007) describe 'substantive writing', as that which has a clearly defined purpose, makes a clear point, and supports it with specific information which is clearly connected and coherent.

Crowhurst (1988), Brink-Budgen (2005), and Cottrell (2005) stated that the goal of argumentative writing is usually to persuade readers to accept certain viewpoints or explanations. To be convincing, the desired viewpoints needs to be supported with sufficient reasons and details, and these authors claim that good persuasive writing contains the following elements:

- i) Viewpoint: the writer's point of view that he/she wants to persuade the readers with clear understanding.
- ii) Reasons: the author provides propositions to support his/her position and reasons why readers should accept them.
- iii) A line of reasoning: whether or not the reasons given are presented in a logical order. Cottrell

(2005) argues that the logical flow of reasons acts as a path which leads towards the desired conclusions. A poor argument is where reasons are not presented in a logical manner or are incompatible with the intended conclusion. The strength of an argument thus lies in the reasons given to support the writing.

- iv) Persuasion: the purpose of an argument is to persuade readers to accept a point of view.

Therefore, the conclusion should be drawn from the reasons provided, which should be strong and appealing enough to convince the readers about the strength of the point of view.

- v) Signal words and phrases (clues): these are concerned with the structure and organisation of persuasive writing. Good persuasive writing uses transitional words such as 'so', 'thus', 'anyway', 'therefore' and 'as a result' which, if properly used, alert the reader to the intended conclusion. Students also need to acquire the skills to identify and understand underlying assumptions and conclusions even when such words and phrases are not explicitly used.

v) Conclusion: refers to the main purpose of the argument; the viewpoint the author wants to persuade readers to accept supported by the reasons provided. Moreover, although a summary of events can form part of the conclusion it should also provide judgments about the likelihood of these events. These judgments distinguish arguments from other types of writing such as description and narration (Cottrell, 2005).

1.2. Objective of the Study

Writing is a crucial element of any language learning context. It is the gateway for gathering information and sharing knowledge. Brown and Compione (1990) argue that students should be prepared to know how to learn from texts through reading. They should also be trained to know how to share and communicate their knowledge through writing. This study therefore, indicates the fact that improving students' writing and thinking skills means empowering them with the skills for knowledge seeking and building skills as well as communicating. In Bangladesh, it is noticed that there is a clear gap between English taught in classes and students' ability to express their views efficiently in writing. Hence, this research attempts to explore the integrative teaching of reading and writing and its possibility through collaboration and scaffolding. With this view, the research investigates the students' ability to transfer and utilize these strategies into their writing through the guided teaching of reading in conjunction with writing.

2. Literature Review

McNamara *et al.* (2010) mention that, to become good writers, students need to have a better command of a greater diversity of words and more complex syntactical structures which, as Kellogg (2008) says, takes time through continuous reading, writing and deliberate practice. Therefore, if the above mentioned elements are characteristics of good writing, how can reading improve writing? Paul and Elder (2006) offer an answer through what they call 'close reading strategies'. Both readers and writers integrate meaning across the text into a logical and coherent whole using a variety of linguistic cues and background knowledge to generate meaning. Paul and Elder (2006) consider that there is a profound relationship between good reading and writing, where deficiencies in either skill results parallel deficiencies in the other. They suggest close reading strategies i.e. clarifying purposes, formulating clear questions, drawing logical inferences can enlighten students about the similarities between reading and writing and how these strategies applied in one domain can be employed in the other. A student, for example, who cannot distinguish clear from unclear forms of writing, would have a similar problem in reading, mistaking vague ideas for clear ones.

Kucer (2005, 2001) has recently identified a common cognitive feature where contextual dependency is shared by the two skills. Therefore, text comprehension (reading) and composition (writing) always occur through the interactions and negotiations of both readers and writers with texts. Kucer furthermore claims some significant aspects of these interactions.

Firstly, knowledge search refers to the utilization of background knowledge, as suggested by schemata theory, in both reading and writing. Comprehension then occurs through the reader's internal dialogue comparing and contrasting prior knowledge with the new input. This dialogue leads to the assimilation and internalization of the reading input, and subsequent creation of new knowledge. Kucer emphasizes that writers too use background knowledge to rearrange, organise and refine texts in planning, writing and editing. In fact, one strong aspect of the connection between reading and writing is that it encourages students to engage in an ongoing dialogue with texts through combined reading and writing activities that facilitate the student to be efficient writer.

Smith (2004) claims the importance of the text for both readers and writers. Reading requires not only the physical existence of text and reader, but their interaction. Similarly, a writer can never make his/her intentions comprehensible unless they are encoded in the form of texts. Text, therefore, is an essential focal point where readers and writers meet. Readers concentrate on what the text elicits, while writers consider if the text elicits what is intended. Smith (1994) also notes reading as a collaborative learning process in which the reader is not performing the reading act alone, but that he/she reads like a writer and consistently works through the text following the intension of the writer's path of the organisation of words, sentences and meanings.

3. Methodology

Eighteen first year university students from the department of English, Prime University, Bangladesh were selected since the researcher conducted a course "Reading and Writing" with this group of students. The previous writing experience of these students was mainly connected with examinations and most of the classes were guided compositions. There were 10 female students and 08 male students. They were first pre-tested and then randomly assigned into experimental group. A twelve-week intervention was conducted in which the experimental group were taught reasoning and thinking to enhance their argumentative writing abilities employing integrative teaching of reading and writing. After the intervention of twelve-weeks, the group was post-tested after the completion of the study. The nature of the tests was argumentative written

compositions to trace and monitor how students' ideas and perceptions changed as a result of the intervention.

The experimental method was chosen for this study where every participant had an equal chance of being assigned to any of the tasks. The randomization of participants reduces the chances of inequality. This eliminates the possible effects of rival explanations of casual findings and strengthens the internal validity of the design (Bryman, 2008)

The participants in this study interact on a regular basis (twice in a week), and, as a result, the group might share what they have learned. However, scripts of students' collaborative work, classroom observation, scripts of their regular classroom activities, the pre –test and post –test scripts were used to measure the progress of individual students. In addition, students are always aware of being tested and competition is part of the education process. Instead, this awareness is essential and required to motivate and stimulate students to improve their performance.

Peer checking and editing each other's writing also develops awareness among students. Individuals often argue and challenge each other's views in focus groups, allowing the researcher to collect more realistic accounts because participants are forced to think about and possibly revise their views (Bryman, 2008).

3.1. Instruments

A writing proficiency pre-test was conducted to know the present proficiency level of the learners. They were asked to write an argumentative composition on **“Facebook mania of Young People”** ranging from 150-200 words in length. Based on the scores of the pre-test, the learners were treated individually and in groups as per their proficiency level.

3.2. Testing Procedure

After the completion of twelve-weeks the subjects were asked to write a composition on the same subject, ranging from 200-250 words in length to allow them scope of using more reasoning and argumentative abilities. The rationale for using exactly the same test for both pre- and post-test was to assure an exactly comparable test, avoiding the problem of comparing different forms of pre-test and post-test. The twelve-week interval between two tests was considered long enough to control for any short-term memory effect; since subjects were not known to the fact that they will be asked to the same composition after twelve-weeks though the corrected copies with necessary scope of modification were given to them after the pre-test. So, there is rare possibility that they could remember how they had written at the first time. Moreover, one of the most common

types of test reliability in psychometrics consists of such test-retest reliability.

3.3. Materials and Teaching Procedures

The course teacher (the researcher) selected twelve reading passages which would be covered during twelve-week intervention from a variety of sources. Six reading passages were drawn from the book *Basic English Language Skills* (Maniruzzaman, 2007), and six reading passages from popular writings or ESL reading materials. The reading passages were chosen on the basis of subjects' presumed readability and from simple to complex passages were chosen.

Before teaching, the teacher told the class about the purpose of developing reasoning and argumentative abilities in writing through reading. Through this discussion, the subjects were informed of the following points:

- 1) strategies help to improve reading comprehension;
- 2) reading with understanding also help to acquire vocabulary from context;
- 3) students will be asked to write composition on the topics relevant to their reading;
- 4) students are to read the text actively since there is relevancy between reading and writing;
- 5) i.e. the reading with understanding will be explicitly beneficial for the writing session

The teacher used this type of discussion not just in initial class periods, but also on a recurring basis to make sure that students were aware of the importance and value of what they are supposed to do.

The teacher clearly and explicitly explained the class about the purpose of reading and its benefit for writing. After that, the teacher asked the students to read silently the assigned section of the passage. In the beginning, the students were given enough time to read an assigned section of a passage; however, as time went by, they were gradually given less reading time to concentrate more for the writing part. Before writing starts, the teacher asks the class first of all to think of their thinking in corporation with the ideas they got from the passage they just have read so that they can organize their writing in the same methodical way. Secondly, the teacher asks them to design the chronological steps of writing. Finally, the teacher also asks them to review the internal consistency and coherence of their writing. After eight-weeks, the teacher also asks them to edit their own writing, sometimes peer-editing helps the class to interact with each other as well as scope of fun making.

3.4. Data Analysis

Though there are few guides to assess quality writing, one of the most generally accepted tests for evaluating critical thinking in written discourse has been the Ennis-Weir test of critical thinking, (Hatcher, 1995). Therefore, the finding of this study is qualitative. The results of the pre and post-written composition tests were analysed to reveal whether or not there were significant improvements in students' understanding abilities reflected in their argumentative writing. The teacher's classroom observation notes were analysed and interpreted in relation to other qualitative data.

4. Findings

The mastering of close reading strategies aimed to lead to substantive writing, defined as "the ability to identify important ideas and express significant implications of those ideas in clear and precise writing" (Paul & Elder, 2006, p.2). The intension was to help them experience how both readers and writers approach their tasks, providing insights about reading and writing that could not be explicitly taught. This integration reduces the concentration on grammar out of context which is often the focus of ESL classes where students find it hard to apply their knowledge in real communication.

Reading with understanding helps the students to improve their reasoning abilities which made them to produce a coherent writing. Thinking activities involve the generation of ideas and concepts, the organization, manipulation of the logical coherence and re-structuring of text. Similarly, both in reading and writing, the integration of background knowledge, the negotiation and prediction of meaning and selection of meaning from context are cognitive abilities involving thinking. Therefore, thinking and reasoning abilities conforms the relationship between reading and writing corresponds to what Hudson (2007) and Smith (2004) describe as the inseparable link between reading, writing and thinking.

When students were asked for the pre-writing activities like thinking about the topic, planning and listing main issues, they showed their disinterest. However, after 2-3 weeks, they demonstrated a proper understanding as well as practical knowledge of pre-writing activities.

Close reading strategies were taught with the use of relevant texts which encouraged students to read and understand the text and therefore enrich their vocabulary, formulate ideas which is essential for their development as writers. More importantly, the integration can push students towards abstract thinking of ideas, though sometimes with repetition of facts, but gives them a space to think beyond the textual lines and thus develops their thinking and argumentative skill in writing.

5. Discussion

1. **At the beginning** of the session the lack of a sense of working in groups was noticed. According to sociocultural theory, group work is the essence of interaction, leading to meaningful learning contexts, for mutual scaffolding, verbalizing thoughts, learning from each other through sharing. Therefore, students at this stage did not share among themselves for task completion. Their preference was to work individually or at best in pairs. Hence, it was found that few of them have discussed task leaving fellow group members behind. Those few members felt reluctant to check each others' opinions while performing a task which caused the purpose of group work in failure.

2. **During the middle**, i.e. in the fifth/sixth week, a sense of cooperation began to appear as they found the role of each group member inevitable to accomplish the given task. Since the credibility of the groups was rewarded through extra class performance points, everybody became enthusiastic to ensure that everyone understood the task. Specially, the quiz questions were designed after every reading so that each member has to answer at least one question. They themselves began to challenge each other and asked questions like-

Can you tell us the strong/weak reason of this thinking?

How can it be explained?

What do you think?

I do not understand you?

Why the author said like that?

Don't you find that the argument is not explained enough?

It was therefore found that the weakest member of the group was trying to be contributor in the task completion process.

3. **Towards the end**, the researcher observed remarkable change in their discussions and organization of tasks. They started concentrating on important issues, rethought and revisited task instructions which they did not do in the beginning days of the course.

Changes also have been noticed in the use of various strategies in their reading, such as guessing meaning of vocabulary from the textual context without consulting a dictionary. Guessing the meaning of a word from context is a reading strategy often used by experienced readers, competent in employing language cues utilized by the writer to predict meaning from context, or what Smith (2004) described as following the writer's footsteps in negotiating meaning. The frequent dictionary checking is remarkably reduced.

They also have learned other strategy use such as, when they did not understand a line or a passage; they have re-read and discussed it

repeatedly. Sometimes, they also have used background knowledge to attain a task.

Interestingly, the above mentioned strategy use helped them to judge which part of the writing task they performed well and which needed reworking and revision. The finding can be seen as a contribution to improve ESL students' logical and reasoning skills in writing.

At the beginning of the study students were found reluctant to revise and re-write their own writing. They felt they did not have anything else to add, a very typical attitude of poor writers. During the study, they were provided written feedback on how they could further improve the writing. And students' perception of proofreading noticeably changed after the intervention since they shared that they have never given their work to be proofread by others.

The study found among others that students' thinking, reasoning and argumentative writing skills improved dramatically after the intervention. In addition, there were improvements in their perceptions and attitudes towards thinking skills as well as in their understanding of the cognitive relationship between reading and writing. Moreover, a remarkable improvement in their spoken English was recorded as well as they developed positive attitudes towards learning English. The study concluded that thinking skills can be taught at Higher Secondary Level, Secondary even in the Primary level. It recommended that future research should investigate the complexity of argumentative texts written by L2 students and how the complexity of their thinking may lead to the increasing sophistication of the language.

6. Recommendations

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of integrative teaching of reading and writing to improve EFL students' writing and thinking skills. The findings proved that when formative assessment was integrated with instructional mediation that is properly designed, it helped promote the participants' overall EFL learning skills. When each participant was evaluated individually in their learning potential, integrative teaching proved to play a crucial role in helping individual learners realize their learning potentials. The participants' learning potentials were proved when they were able to learn and apply them to new materials presented in the post-test. All of the participants, except two/three, showed significant improvement in their writing skills.

One of the most important lessons revealed in this study is that a pre-test score was obviously not sufficient to indicate what a teacher would need to know to prepare for effective lesson plans. Therefore, understanding each individual's learning potential would help a teacher

design more effective lesson plans that would serve the individuals' unique instructional needs more properly.

For example, when two learners received the same score in a pre-test, it did not necessarily mean that they were actually at the same proficiency level. Even if they were at the same proficiency level, a teacher could not tell whether they had different degrees of future learning potentials until the post-test score is revealed. More specifically, when a participant's understanding and performance is low in a certain skill, we know that he/she would need more extra support in that area. On the contrary, when a participant obtained a high score in a specific skill, we could consider giving him more implicit feedback to replace explicit feedback in our future lesson designed for him in that area. This process helps a teacher to accommodate each individual's instructional needs based on the learners' responses, comments, and questions during the intervention period.

University students need to be exposed to various genres and different form of writing, especially academic writing. As Badger and White (2000) emphasised, language is a resource for making meaning in social situations, and that is why writing has to vary according to context and the goals to be achieved. Since L2 students need to master writing, they should not only acquire knowledge about the language, but also knowledge of the contexts in which it takes place and the ability to use it. This suggests that L2 students should possess knowledge of how and when to use a certain genre if they are to function successfully in their academic writing. It is therefore crucial that L2 students should be exposed to different forms of writing, either through direct teaching or indirectly through the integrative teaching of reading and writing as applied in the study. This may give them insight into the actual use of both reading and writing in academia as sources of knowledge gathering and reconstruction.

Reading and writing strategies were emphasised to accelerate students' learning ability and to use them as a substitute for their poor reading and writing skills (McNamara, 2007; McNamara, Crosseley & McCarthy, 2010). McNamara and his colleagues have argued that providing instruction and practice in the use of strategies in teaching contexts improves comprehension and compensates for deficient skills.

In fact, the rationale for integrating reading and writing in the study was to enable learners to know how good writers write and, through reading, to adopt some of the strategies into their writing which was learned in their reading. In this way, strategies acquired for one skill can be transferred to improve performance in the other (Paul & Elder, 2006, 2007). Therefore, emphasis was placed on various reading strategies that were aimed at improving students' argumentative writing skills, such as

how to identify a viewpoint or reason, write a conclusion, judge the credibility of a text and support argument with evidence.

Conclusion

It is thus reasonable to conclude from the current study that integrative teaching of reading and writing is a powerful way to help teachers to achieve the goal of improving argumentative writing with careful instruction. The intense interaction among the teacher, students, reading and writing allowed the researcher to examine the participants' gradual progress closely and in-depth. The participants' learning behaviors and reactions to the integration of reading and writing could be further explored in future research. Also, the interactional episodes that took place during the intervention sessions should be further explored to help design more effective plans that would help students move forward in their progress. In addition, it is highly recommended that future research focuses on developing high-quality integration sessions to use as guidelines while implementing writing development, broadly speaking language development.

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The Implications of Teaching and Testing English as a Global Language

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to describe the implications of teaching textbooks and testing in the context of my country, Bangladesh, in an attempt to explore and evaluate the teaching methods of English at the primary and secondary education level. The paper also studies the differences between native and non-native speaking teachers and the benefit for the native teachers in this context to make some proposals and recommendations for a better evaluation of the textbooks in terms of teaching English as a global language. The paper also reflects market policy and the commercialism of the textbooks in terms of the global perspective and popularity of English in the native and non-native speaking contexts.

Keywords: Textbook, teaching, curriculum, testing, speaking

1. Introduction

1.1. English Language Teaching in the Context of Bangladesh

During the British period of 1700-1947 for more than 200 years, English was the only language for the office and educational institutions of the then Bangladesh, prior to the independence of Bangladesh in 1971. It was actually the time when the seed of English was sowed at this Indian Subcontinent. After the independence of Bangladesh in 1971 the flow of English continued and still it goes on with Bangla. At the post-liberation era, English has been a coveted language for the aristocratic and the elite classes of the society. For many political and socio-economic reasons, English to a great extent, lost the importance and only practiced to a few though it is treated as the foreign language. And in many of the educational and official institutes, English was given much more preferences. But, from 1990 onwards, the government and non-govt. organizations of Bangladesh and the different donor and foreign aid organizations have been continuously supporting to develop the condition of English at the education and other official employment sectors. Either English as a second language or English as a foreign language in Bangladesh the present govt. is now giving more importance to the development of English at the primary and the secondary levels.

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1.2. Status of English in the national curriculum of Bangladesh

There are two types of institutions: Bangla and English medium schools run in the primary and secondary education in Bangladesh. Government or public institutions are followed by Bangla medium. English medium schools are governed privately and by the British Council of Bangladesh where English is the only medium of instruction. The National Curriculum and Textbook Board of Bangladesh (NCTB) is designated to design the syllabus for secondary and higher secondary level general education. English is taught as a compulsory subject from class 1 to 12 class. So, there is an urgency to compile a compact and up-to-date curriculum for the classes. English is designed to meet the challenges and demand of the students to be competent in the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been introduced in the country since 1990s by the NCTB with a view to strengthening the standard of English among more than 24 million students in the primary and secondary education (Hamid, 2008). This is huge task done by NCTB, and still, many projects has been undertaken to train up the teachers throughout the country for teaching students in the communicative way.

1.3. Textbooks of Bangladesh

The text books are commonly known as the books prescribed by the Ministry of Education. The books are dealt with English Language teaching and particular guidelines for improving the standard of English in accordance with education, culture and socio-economic conditions of country. According to Gray (2002), English language textbooks are designed as the core text used in the language classroom, and they are highly wrought cultural constructs and carriers of cultural messages for teaching English languages. The textbooks that are being taught in the primary and secondary education system in Bangladesh are commonly entitled as *English for Today* (EFT), as the official trade name for all the English textbooks.

The contents of the textbooks are also designed and planned to the standard of the classes and sufficiently incorporate the ideas that are fully comprehensible to the standard of Bangladeshi students. A large part of the EFTs focus on the background of increasing globalization representing the English speaking world for pedagogic and commercial purposes (Gray, 2002). Later part of the essay considers the commercial and business purpose of the textbooks.

Talking about inclusivity in the text book, Sunderland (1994) refers to a set of guidelines for a balanced and proportionate representation of the women and men in the English Language Teaching Materials which

is reflected by the British ELT publishers (Gray, 2002). Textbooks published by the NCTB also follow the guidelines and accept a gender balance in articulating and presenting the illustrations of women and men. Many of the units are enriched with a set of images and pictures representing activities with a perfect gender balance. Even the names of the characters are given equal value by providing some common names used in the country. Textbooks of class 9-12 are upgraded version of English language tests and activities where the texts and pictures are imported from international news and events like globalization, computer, greenhouse effect, alien forces, many historic and the geographical contemporary topics of the world.

Bangladeshi textbook publishers have got the right and freedom to avoid PARSNIP (politics, alcohol, religion, sex, narcotics, isms and pork); in addition to that, dress and fashions are also very delicately presented. One disadvantage of recognizing the actual concept of the texts at its right context is that all the pictures and images are printed black and white, and the books are usually printed at newspaper version. I think that this does not necessarily mar the importance of the texts though the representations of the colorful illustrations make a difference in the total understanding of the texts.

In a global context, the textbooks should not limit any objects and materials that might be a bar to proper and complete learning for the learners. I personally think that if any issue that might generate controversy, racism, religious sensitivity, or anything that goes against the political basis of a country it is better to avoid those. Students generally have a likeness for the textbooks and the mindset of the students should not be deviated from by introducing the issues that might bring a disorder and chaotic situation in the society.

Textbooks are meant to be the only recognized English book printed every year under the supervision of NCTB. Most textbooks are published and produced according to the demand of the institutions and are freely distributed from classes 1-5.

1.4. Teaching textbooks and its implications

Since English and globalization are two core issues in implicating textbooks; there is hardly any border line for teaching and learning English in the context of a developing country like Bangladesh. As it has been discussed, the pre-condition of English before and after the liberation of Bangladesh has been a remarkable issue in discussing textbooks, and its broad inter-relation to the globalization and its impact on practicing English. The concept of world English, according to Rajagopalan, (2004), “belongs to everybody who speaks it, but it is nobody’s mother tongue”

(p111). Although world English has been accepted by many people, the concept of this and its broader implications have been realized by not many of them. In case of teaching EFTs as textbooks in Bangladesh its implications are even much broader. Before introducing CLT, the EFTs produced by the NCTB were the random selection of prose and poetry and grammar-translation based activities afterwards.

As a bilingual policy of Bangladesh government, English has been given the priority to most of the educational institutions as a major compulsory subject to teach along with other subjects. As a teacher of English in my country, I have got the adequate opportunity to work with the English text books for classes 11-12. The primary concern for teaching the EFTs is to allow students to learn English in the most communicative and learning-by-doing ways which focuses the active participation of the students with the teachers. The activities and exercises are prepared in such a way as to affect the learners to learn in the most fun-loving and participatory way possible. At the beginning of the texts the book map is the clear indication of what to do at each and every unit. Activities are arranged from the easiest to the advanced comprehensive way and encourage the learners to adjust with the units gradually. To aid with the teaching, Teachers Guide (TG) was formulated and supplied free to all the educational institutions.

Textbooks are the only practice tools for the students and teachers and both of them are relying heavily on them. Let us now consider the overt and covert curriculums that have been introduced in the texts. Most of the topic choices, exercise, activities and vocabulary items are all designed by the administrators and English language specialists of the country as part of formal instructions and very much evident from the EFTs available here. TGs, lesson plans and other teaching aids are also supplied to teach the books effectively. The students are found to be too much enthusiastic and eager to learn in these ways. Moreover, the participation of students is also very satisfactory and learning oriented. The impact of overt curriculum can be more readily effective for Bangladeshi students had there been a considerable number of students in the classrooms. If the overt curriculum in the textbooks is sufficiently implemented, the students can be more and more benefitted.

In the previous curriculum of textbooks, much of the traditional concept of teaching and learning were included in the covert curriculum. The students were used to this covert curriculum of teaching at different concepts of following the instructions of English at the traditional textbooks. But it can be said that in case of shortages of trained and qualified teachers, language teaching is very closely fixed upon the textbooks (Williams, 1983). In the context of the public schools in the

rural areas of Bangladesh texts books, esp. the English text books are taught by the teachers of other subjects and they do not necessarily follow the guidelines of CLT. As a result of that covert curriculum which is mainly dealing with the framed and routine instructions and activities make no sense of teaching English from the textbooks either (Wilson, 2005).

2. Local and global textbooks

Textbooks are served as tools and tutors, guide and gauges at the present classroom situation. Since teachers use textbooks to guide the instructions they (textbooks) serve as a basis for how content is delivered (Kulm et al, 1999). Now-a-days textbooks are produced and printed with a view to conceptualizing both the local and global phenomenal perspectives. According to Gray, (2002) publishers produce tailor-made materials for the students bearing in mind how much learning hours they can devote to them and what methodologies suitable for them. Another approach is to popularize texts in accordance with the international viewpoints in mind.

Bangladeshi EFTs are an authentic example of including both the global and local (glocal) favors in them. Since the texts are not internationally recognized or exported to other countries, most of the chapters of the units are presented and illustrated to give a local flavor. As has been described earlier, the globally interesting and important issues are not also avoided to introduce with the students the most current and widely accepted topics of the world. I think to design a text book these sorts of issues will be taken into consideration. Both local and global idea should be supplemented to the material of the textbooks. In Bangladesh, textbooks are the only medium of improving the standard of English and with this concept in mind NCTB every year edit and publish international topics of interest esp. for the learners. In comparison to local and global textbooks, I must say that global textbooks are much more influential for the students to learn and to be informed of learning English. In addition to that, global texts can be applicable for the developing countries like Bangladesh where text books are the only medium of learning English and more importantly where other textbooks like geography, environment science and as such are replete with information involved with international topics.

3. Evaluation of the textbooks

As English has been designated one of three compulsory subjects, others are (science and math) from the grade 6-12 there are two major problems behind this. Firstly, teachers have hardly any major role in selecting textbooks and they are not included in the evaluation committee. And secondly, there are no systematic criteria on which textbook

evaluation will be based (source: NCTB). In spite of having the common belief that English is the international language the idea of teaching standard English is a far cry in this present scenario of Bangladesh.

In order to evaluate the curriculum guidelines and how it is implemented into the textbooks let me consider the EFT of class seven which is prepared by the NCTB. A panel of writers was selected from both home and abroad as foreign consultants and the local professors of English and it is also one of the policies of national curriculum and syllabus committee. In the four units there are total eighty lessons each divided with exercises and activities to follow at the end. The aim of this revised *English for Today*, book seven, is to introduce effective communicative techniques with existing well-tried traditional methods to provide adequate techniques in language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The text focuses on a clear teaching methodology with the framework of actual lessons (Source: EFT, Book 7, NCTB, Dhaka).

Every unit has been prepared to create more opportunities for interaction between teachers and students, and students and students. The existing topics are chronologically adjusted to adapt the students so as to make them interesting and acceptable towards the lessons. The main purpose of the writing skills is to introduce an integrated workbook element in order to develop writing skills at an appropriate pace. Identifying the particular standardized features in NNSs, varieties of English is still very much limited. As the global spread of English continues to spread the number of non-native speakers also diversifies in the use of forms and functions of English. This diversification is seen as an important factor and can no longer be avoided anymore (Lowenberg, 2000). As in the case of Bangladesh, regarding testing and evaluation the test questions should be encouraged the students not to memorize the pre-fabricated answers rather they will have to be encouraged to think about the problem individually and independently. Learners should be allowed to take part at the oral examinations and group work activities with the representations of the material. Moreover, teaching techniques should be more closely related to *what* actually will be tested and *how* it will be tested (Salma, 2001). Treating English as an International Language (EIS), English is learnt more importantly for international communication rather than with NS, and more importantly speakers of EIL are treated as 'international' speakers rather than 'foreign' speakers of English (Jenkins, 2002).

4. Language tests and accessing English in the global context

According to Graddol and other academics in a study of Khan (2009), refers to “studying the spread of English, world English, global English, and English as an international language would agree that ownership of English cannot be restricted to a geographically bound location” (pp. 191). As days go by the number of English speakers who speak English as a second language will outnumber the native speakers of the world whose first language is English. (Source: EFT Book 11-12, NCTB, Dhaka). It is very easy to discern that in order to maintain a standard of English either as a test or to assess the non-English speakers, certain standardized test or assessment have already been introduced and in effect to be actualized.

Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL) and International English Language Testing System (IELTS) are some of the standard tests that are conducted to testify the standard of English among the non-native speakers. There are some differences in manipulating the tests as the gateway to access to the English speaking countries. TOEFL exams are especially conducted to measure the certain criteria not similar to IELTS. It is esp. designed for the American universities and most importantly for the teachers who would like to teach in those universities rather than the students. Since there is no scope for the speaking tests it is not fully an ideal way of measuring the students’ speaking capability by TOEFL. According to Khan, some words in the TOEFL tests have different referential meanings in British, American and Australian English. And the words and vocabularies are more culturally specific to North American contexts rather than the global perspectives (Khan, 2009).

IELTs tests are also conducted to figure out the in-depth study of English to get oneself admitted at the universities and colleges of the English speaking countries. It is undoubtedly the most standard way of measuring the students’ English acquiring and learning capacity. Most of the students including Bangladesh sit for the IELTS exams and have some difficulties in the reading and writing tasks. This is not simply easy for the students to write an essay of an unknown or completely unfamiliar topic. In the reading rubrics there is a compulsory part of science based topic which is always a matter of concern for the students of humanities and commerce background.

There are other tests like GMAT, SAT, GRE which are also similar to TOEFL and IELTS. Judging the financial matter of the tests it can easily be said that the entries for the tests require huge amount of money which is not easy to manage for the students. It is mentionable that for an IELTS test a total sum of 10000 taka (Bangladesh currency) is required. Putting aside the financial matters the tests are not always carry

the weight of the standard of measuring the status of English in the non-English speaking countries. One reason might be in most cases the non-native speakers are unaware of the socio-cultural context of the western world and the advanced technologies that have been applied.

Discussing the negative sides of the international tests it can be arguably said that for the real assessment of the English background, and for the competency and proficiency of English, certain standard tests are actually required. To maintain the standard of the educational institutions in the English speaking countries there is no alternative of tests. Before coming to Australia, as for example, I had to sit for IELTS exam and I had to maintain 6.5 at each band, not on an average. Had there been no tests there will be an unequal competition of money and corruption and most of the brilliant but financially backward students would simply lag behind.

For globally advanced world of English, tests should be more authentic and must meet the actual requirements of the English. For this reason, textbooks should include all the elements of global English in terms of international recognition of world English. Since textbooks are also the reflection of the globally enriched culture, heritage and tradition of the world English and they (Texts) should be endowed with all the elements of Standard English. There is a need for holistic approach of implementing the language learning techniques so that students after completing their higher secondary exam can face and tackle the challenges of global and international perspective of English.

At certain contexts the matter of native and non-native speakers (NS/NNS) are also taken into consideration. I personally think that there is a fairly big gap between the way of teaching and evaluating the English language in terms of the approach of teaching and testing of the NS and NNS. As Lowenberg puts it, in order to evaluate nonnative speakers' proficiency fairly, "...examiners must be able to distinguish deficiencies in the second language acquisition of English by these speakers (errors) from varietal differences in the speaker' usage resulting from their having learned such nonnative norms." (2000, pp. 217-218). This is a very clear indication to see that NNS teachers must acknowledge the fact that deficiencies should be removed if the test items are deliberately designed to have alternative answers for both the NS and NNS of English. And these sorts of problems are esp. found in TOEFL tests.

5. Marketing and market places of textbooks

Textbooks market is a completely different phenomenon than the other consumer market policies. Here the main consumers are the students and the teachers are not fully aware of the fluctuation of the prices nor are they the main consumers of the textbooks. The size of the market is

identified when publishers can afford to produce the materials tailored and the numbers of hours students are supposed to engage in the total course of the texts (Gray, 2002). In the globally published textbooks, the policy of publishing textbooks is to maintain an international standard to sell and export textbooks to the other countries of the world. From this point of view, global textbooks like Headway, Interchange, Touchstone, Voyager (source: Wikipedia) etc. can make a broader impact on the mind of the readers because of its content, high class printing and best type of illustration, high quality formatting and for the attractive attachments like CDs DVDs. As a result of that, textbook publishers are earning a huge sum of money every year.

Comparing the global textbooks with Bangladesh textbooks, there are still some differences to be noted. NCTB revises the editions, and produce and publish compulsory textbooks every year as a policy of the Ministry of education. Since the texts are for the public schools and colleges the editions are low-priced and black and white. Content of the texts are not very different from the global text books. As I mentioned earlier, the texts include both the national and international topics prepared by the national and foreign consultants giving special emphasis on the development of the four language skills. One very significant problem in dealing with the textbooks is that different other non-govt. and private publishers make notebooks or reference books as guide books for the solution of the textbooks which is not recommended by the NCTB or the education board. As a result, students are more often misguided and lose the interest of learning texts. This has become an acute problem for the students to learn English properly and develop English in the communicative way.

As a teacher of English, I must say that there should not be any alternative to textbooks whether they are globally or locally made. Government should strictly control the unauthorized publications of the notebooks and guidebooks and should recommend using the textbooks either nationally or internationally. According to Jenkins (2009), “during the past four centuries English language has spread around the world and that as a result, it is used for a wide range of purposes by many millions of people for whom it is not a mother tongue in the traditional sense of the term” (p. 40). And the continuous rapid increase of the English speakers in the ‘outer circle’ than ‘the inner circle’ esp. in the Asian countries might make a change of English language policy in the developing countries like Bangladesh. For example, in case of Bangladesh, government should introduce the internationally recognized global English textbooks to keep pace with the native speakers of the world or at least to compete with the developed south East Asian countries.

Conclusion

The paper tries to explore the issue of textbooks and evaluation of English in terms of the treatment of global and local English with special focus on the context of Bangladesh. Dealing and interpreting with these issues can never be limited to a certain boundary of discussion and references. I tried to focus mainly on the textbooks issue of Bangladesh and also on how the textbooks can be evaluated and tested to a broader context of global issues. The role of the NS and the NNS in teaching and testing English is also significant in examining the standard of English in a non-native speaking country like Bangladesh. To me, NS and NNS is really a comprehensive issue to deal with. I personally think that NSs of English certainly get an added advantage of being the citizen of the English speaking country. And NNSs unless and until they are born and brought up in the English speaking country they can hardly become that competent enough to teach English at the most appropriate and standard level. The NCTB should also take effective steps to design the textbooks in such a way so that students can be able to do better in the international tests for higher studies and other purposes. The editions and publications of the textbooks, color, illustrations and formatting should also be standardized so that it can make a lasting impression upon the mind of students. English as language should be taught as global context and not be taught as local perspective only. Last but not least, NCTB should extract ideas from the international global textbooks reflecting and combining the national and international topics of interests.

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Shakespeare in EFL Class at Tertiary Level: Difficulties and Possible Solutions

*Khandoker Montasir Hassan**

Abstract

There are perceptions that literature may not be suitable for language teaching and learning in EFL classes, let alone Shakespeare. But, in the shifting paradigms of ELT, the aim of reading literature has been changed. Now-a-days increasing attention has been given to the possibility of incorporating literature in EFL/ESL classes. So, the present paper at first, briefly discusses the importance of incorporating literature as well as the literary texts of Shakespeare for teaching English as a foreign language at tertiary level. Shakespeare is often avoided by EFL teachers considering it too complex for their students. Therefore, the next sections of the paper aim at identifying some difficulties in understanding Shakespeare's language; proposes some suggestions to minimise those superfluous difficulties skillfully and thus, exploit the literary texts of Shakespeare especially for the first year undergraduate students of English departments in Bangladesh at the very beginning of their undergraduate studies. Finally, it highlights some strategies with examples to be used in EFL classrooms that can benefit the learners of English departments in many ways.

Keywords: *Shakespeare, EFL, ELT, Tertiary Level, learner*

1. Introduction

The present paper is an attempt to highlight the importance of using Shakespeare's texts as effective materials in teaching English as a foreign language at tertiary level. In Bangladesh, the students of English Departments study literature and of course, Shakespeare traditionally i.e. just as literary masterpieces. But, the present paper proposes the concept of incorporating Shakespeare's writings in English Departments at the very beginning of their undergraduate studies and the purpose is to exploit his literary texts to teaching basic language skills and other language areas like vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. This will help the novice students to cope up with the canon of British and American literature. As Farida and Sinha (2012) state: "students in Bangladesh who entered the

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English Department faced great difficulty in tackling literature. These students lacked literary reading, foreign culture knowledge as well as appropriate linguistic competence” (p. 82). So, at the very beginning of undergraduate studies, before studying different literary texts of foreign writers critically and creatively, this practice will: help the students overcome hesitations; help them appreciate literature; make them familiar with foreign culture and become aware of ESP vocabulary.

Moreover, learning literature through familiar practices like re-writing, prediction activities, role-playing, group activities (as they did all these activities at SSC & HSC level) will make them confident and prepare them for studying literature critically, creatively and independently. Finally, once they are habituated to unlocking Shakespeare’s language, will be able to appreciate and enjoy any other literary masterpieces of any writer in their future courses of studies.

1.1. Background of the Study

A literary work cannot properly be understood without a thorough knowledge of language which is its medium of expression. As Leech (1996) states, “we generally suppose that the literature cannot be examined in any depth apart from the language, any more than the language cannot be studied apart from the literature” (p.1). In fact, literary studies deeply rely on linguistic study and from this viewpoint literature was initially the main source of input for teaching English in language classes in the era of GTM (Grammar-Translation Method), but since then it has been dropped down the pedestal. In the era of CLTA (Communicative Language Teaching Approach), literature was neglected and more attention was given to dialogues and conversations which were more practical and visible in the real world situation (Khatib et al. , 2011). But, “since the middle of the 1980s increasing attention has been given to the possibility of teaching literature in ESL/EFL classes after a long period of neglect” (Duff & Maley, 1991; cited in Mate, 2005, p. 52). Now-a-days researchers in the field of ELT have emphasized the benefits of using literature for language teaching and learning purposes as Sage (1987) claims that “many teachers consider the use of literature in language teaching as an interesting and worthy concern” (cited in Rahman, 2013). Thus, the present researcher also believes that there are a number of ways in which studying literature in EFL classes can promote critical thinking, analytical ability and intercultural awareness of the students as well as benefit them in terms of language acquisition.

1.2. Rationale

1.2.1. Reasons for Using Literary Texts in Language Teaching

Many scholars emphasized the benefits of exploiting literature for language teaching and learning purposes. As Khatib et al. (2011) states “Publications which laid a red carpet for the return of literature were prolific at this time including:

- Carter & Burton, 1982
- Maley & Moulding, 1985
- Brumfit and Carter, 1986
- Collie & Slater, 1987

As the main focus of the present paper is to discuss how to incorporate Shakespeare’s texts as effective materials in EFL classes, here I would like to mention only the main points that different researchers and scholars stated as benefits and justification for incorporating literary texts in language classroom. Here are a few points: Authenticity; Motivation; Cultural/Intercultural Awareness and Globalization; Intensive/Extensive Reading Practice; Sociolinguistic/Pragmatic Knowledge; Grammar and Vocabulary Knowledge; Language Skills; Emotional Intelligence (EQ); Critical Thinking. These are the main benefits that the above mentioned researchers highlight in favour of using literature for language teaching and learning purposes.

Today teaching language through literature is essentially viewed as teaching language through any other written material. Therefore, any standard activity that is used with non-literary texts can be used with literature as well, such as re-writing, prediction activities, role-playing and so on” (Carter & Walker, 1989; quoted in Mate, 2005; p. 52).

Again, the most important benefits of using literature in a language class as identified by Carter and Waker (1989; cited in Mate, 2005) are its ambiguities and indeterminacies that provide natural opportunity for discussions and different interpretations to be expressed, which is among the central goals of CLTA. So, in the era of CLTA, if it is possible to incorporate literature as an effective language teaching material, why should we deny it? One may think that studying literature in language classes means it will be a teacher-centered class as it was in the GTM. But, “opposed to earlier method this attitude entails manipulated literary texts (e.g. cut into lines, acted out), language-based student centeredness to involve students with the text, or pair/group work instead of one-way communication dominated by the teacher” (Carter & Walker, 1989; quoted in Mate, 2005; p. 52). “Teaching literature also means that [t]exts may also be presented in fresh contexts by juxtaposition with other texts or media, or made to serve purposes for which they were not originally intended” (Duff & Maley, 1991; quoted in Mate, 2005; p. 52).

1.2.2. Why Shakespeare as a Reading Material in EFL Classrooms

Now, the question is why Shakespeare's texts for this purpose especially, at the very beginning of undergraduate studies. This section of the paper is a summary of what can be considered as the merits of using Shakespeare's work in EFL classrooms. While using literature in a language class most of the researchers usually suggest using simplified texts, i.e. texts which are simplified for language learning purposes; using easy texts, i.e. texts which are by nature more readable than others and are appropriate to the level of the learners; using young adult texts because they are stylistically less complex. So, one may find it an ambitious idea to read Shakespeare in EFL classroom. But, the present paper differs in this regard because of the following reasons:

(i) First of all, the present paper proposes to use Shakespeare at the tertiary level, especially for the first year undergraduate university students of English Departments of Bangladesh. These students have had the experience of studying English as a compulsory subject for long twelve years. Moreover, recently the NCTB of Bangladesh has included some literary texts (e.g. poems, legends, short stories, memoirs etc.) in the new "Higher Secondary English textbook" from the academic session 2015-2016 and suggest to exploit the texts to trigger a variety of language activities. So, as a continuation of this attempt if we really want to incorporate some literary texts with the specific purpose of teaching the basic language skills at the very beginning of the undergraduate studies, why not those texts should be Shakespeare's. Crystal (2003; cited in Yen, 2010) claims that by studying the texts of Shakespeare, students learn "how it is possible to explore and exploit the resource of language in original ways, displaying its range and variety in the service of the poetic imagination" (p. 34).

(ii) In the present education system of Bangladesh at the university level, after completing four years honours, the students of English departments are offered two different options: either Linguistics and ELT or Literature for their MA courses. So, the students who are graduates in English literature and choose teaching profession at the secondary and higher secondary levels in future, face difficulties in handling CLTA classes. As Barman and Basu (2013) state:

There is often a lack of focus on pedagogy in B.A. (Hons.) and M.A. in English programmes in Bangladesh and students coming out of these programmes often have good knowledge of English literature but very little ability to design pedagogic tasks for language skill development (p. 252).

So, I feel that this proposed course will be able, even if partially, to help those students and give them an idea about language teaching and learning.

(iii) We must remember the fact that Shakespeare is the greatest asset of English literature. He is, without a doubt, one of the most or perhaps the most famous English poet and playwright that have ever lived. In the words of Samuel Johnson, “Shakespeare is above all writers, at least above all modern writers, the poet of nature; the poet that holds up to his readers a faithful mirror of manners and of life.” Again, “Shakespeare was not of an age, but of all time,” “he was not of a land, but of all lands.” He is universal. His supremacy lies in his universality- his brilliant dialogues, his style, dramatic speeches of characters, the brilliant play of words, metaphors and lyrical passion in his blank verse - all have achieved a universal appeal.

(iv) Shakespeare played a major role in the transformation of the English language. At the time he was writing, the early modern English language was less than 100 years old. No dictionaries had yet been written and most documents were still written in Latin. Shakespeare contributed over 3,000 words to the English language because he was the first author to write them down. Of this number more than one tenth or 1,700 were used for the first time (Royal Shakespeare Company, n.d.).

(v) William Shakespeare used language to : create a sense of place; seize the audience’s interest; explore the widest range of human experience. In fact, he was a genius for dramatic language (Cina, 2013).

(vi) Shakespeare is a master of language. An estimated 3000 words and expressions that we use today originated in Shakespeare’s plays and sonnets. (Paris, 2007).

(vii) The *Oxford English Dictionary* credits Shakespeare with introducing nearly 3000 words into the language (Garret, n.d.). Scholars estimate Shakespeare’s vocabulary at between 25,000 and 29,000 words, nearly twice that of the average college student according to Russ McDonald in *The Bedford Companion to Shakespeare* (cited in Belschner, 2007). The normal working vocabulary of a speaker of English is around 5,000 words.

(viii) In the words of Louis Marder, “Shakespeare was so facile in employing words that he was able to use over 7,000 of them- more than occur in the whole *King James Version of the Bible*- only once and never again” (Garret, n.d.). It’s only about his *Vocabulary*. Besides this, there are many other things like his *Wordplay* and *Rhetorical Devices* which can inspire, excite, motivate and enrich our EFL learners.

1.3. Understanding Shakespeare’s Language

To the playgoers of Shakespeare’s time, a successful drama was one that combined variety of action with variety of language. The language

used in Shakespeare's plays is obviously quite different to our modern usage. Typical of Elizabethan times, the dialogues used would have accurately reflect everyday language, though used in a more poetic and lyrical style. As Rowse states, "In contrast to the vast majority of the modern plays, most Shakespearean drama is *poetry rather than prose*." We also have to remember another fact that his language was written to be *performed* and not judged as a literary contribution. When *spoken on stage*, much expression and action aids in determining the meaning of what is said. The language is a visual one where every word and phrase creates an image for the reader to understand the concept.

1.4. What to do about the Difficulties

1.4.1. Difficulties to be Considered before Teaching Shakespeare

Sullivan (1991) identifies two major difficulties of literature in language teaching:

"(i) Linguistic Difficulty: Literature texts often contain archaic, figurative and less frequently used words which make it difficult for non-native student learners, particularly those at lower levels of proficiency.

(ii) Demand on Background Knowledge: Learners may need a lot of background knowledge about English history and culture to be able to interpret some texts" (cited in Barman & Basu, 2013; p.251).

Again, what age group is suitable to teach Shakespeare for the successful and useful utilisation of his writings (especially for language teaching activities) is a matter of consideration. In answering this question Mate (2005) states:

The group has to be at least on the intermediate (or rather upper-intermediate level) level, preferably containing students with language proficiency exams. Taking into consideration that, and the general literary studies, the optimal group to teach Shakespeare to consists of students in the 11-12th grade (pp. 56-57).

However, while writing this paper, the above mentioned *facts and difficulties* have been taken into consideration and it is expected that in the context of Bangladesh, the students for whom my proposed course is suggested, will not face such difficulties as - they are the students of English departments; they get themselves admitted in English departments through a tough and competitive admission tests and last but not the least, they need to study several dramas and poems of Shakespeare compulsorily as the core literature courses in their honours syllabus.

1.4.2. Role of the Teacher Using Shakespeare as Reading Material

Before reading Shakespeare the teacher should be prepared to re-read and remembers that no one understands everything about Shakespeare on the first, second, or even tenth reading (Belschner, 2007). They next point that the teacher needs to remember that the purpose of reading Shakespeare for this course is to teach the basic language skills. Rahman(2013) says: when using literature in the language classroom, skills should never be taught in isolation but in an integrated way.

However, *how to teach* will not be a problem as the texts will be taught by university teachers who are skilled, trained and experienced enough and of course, aware of their roles. The problem is that teaching Shakespeare in an EFL class is *undoubtedly not a time-filling activity: it requires preparation and dedication*. As Barman and Basu (2013) mention that the problems that EFL teachers encounter may be compounded by the dearth of pedagogically-designed appropriate materials. So, *lack of effective language learning activities* is a major problem and the teacher needs to play the vital role in this regard. In this regard, I would like to mention the statement of Bracaj(2014) who says, “provision of materials does not only mean choosing materials and making a suitable number of copies for the class; the teacher’s task also includes adapting materials when published materials are unsuitable or writing his/her own materials” (p. 46). In fact, it is the teachers who lie at the heart of the successful implementation of this course. As Somak (2003; cited by Porcaro, 2013; p. 33) states: “We must acknowledge the fact that much of the language that our students need will not be found in any course books or pre-packaged materials; therefore, we must be willing and able to prepare our own”.

1.4.3. Some Activities for Classroom Practices

“Give a man a fish and you feed him for a day; teach him to use the Net and he won’t bother you for weeks” Anonymous (cited in Teeler & Gray, 2006; p. 36). I think this single statement is sufficient enough to make us understand the effectiveness of *Internet* now-a-days. Internet- the *road* of the *information superhighway*, has been typed as “the most significant development in communication tools since the invention of the printing press and then condemned as the end of civilisation as we know it” (Teeler & Gray, 2006; p. 1). And if so, how is it being used by language teachers? Teeler and Gray (2006) also answered the question in the following way:

According to teachers’ comments- at conferences, in papers and on the Internet mailing lists dedicated to ELT- they seem to use it for just about everything: developments, updating language skills, finding materials, learning about computer applications, keeping in touch with friends and

colleagues, teaching, working on class projects and activities, and just having fun (p.5).

There are endless journals, newsletters, articles, write-ups, research works, lesson plans, projects and activities about Shakespeare and his work available on the internet. There are different materials on Shakespeare available on internet for adapting and using in the classroom. The EFL teacher's task is- searching the Internet by using browsers, directories and different search engines for materials and adapting and using them according to the requirement of his class. However, teachers need to be aware of two important things: copyright laws and authenticity of the materials and I think, for the university teachers it won't be a problem at all. So, from the above discussion it is clear that *lack* of effective materials for language learning activities will not be a problem for exploiting Shakespeare in EFL class at tertiary level.

Here, I would like to share some strategies that I have adapted from the following Internet sources, considering the legality of downloading and reusing the materials: Belschner, (2006-07); Shakespeare's Language, RSC (Royal Shakespeare Company); Cetti Cina (2013); eNotes. com, Inc.(2013); Paris (2007); Mate (2005) [proper citation including e-mail adress, domain name, URL, title etc. have been included in the References]

- i) At first, we have to select a play that motivates and excites the teacher;
- ii) Then, the teacher should use a good edition of the play, with footnotes and read the summary of the action if necessary;
- iii) But, don't substitute the summary for Shakespeare, because it is *how* he writes it that makes his works exciting intellectually and aesthetically;
- iv) After that, the teacher will tell the story to the students briefly. Emphasize the story. The story should always be the focal point of lesson. The language is obviously the key to unlocking the story but it should not be used as the entry point;
- v) Then, teacher should try to attract the attention of the students, even he/she can exploit the storylines before they realize they are studying Shakespeare then see their amazement when they realize that they are studying Shakespeare;
- vi) **Split it up:** Instead of reading the full text just pick out the main scene or a dialogue or even a Soliloquy.
- vii) **Make it Fun and Interactive:** after that the following techniques may be shared and discussed by unlocking the Most Common Difficulties mentioned above slowly and skillfully simply by

Replacing / Rendering/ Rewriting:

Archaic Words

“*thou*”, “*thee*” and “*ye*”—these three words were all forms of the one word we use today: “*YOU*”.

Many other archaic forms of words, simple one-syllable words can be replaced without the slightest difference to the scansion:

“sith”-----since	“writ”-----wrote
“wrek”-----wreck	“brake”----broke
“holp”-----helped	“spake”---- spoke
“bare”----- bore	

Syntax

Unusual word order in a sentence is called *inversion*. Shakespeare used inversion to create specific dramatic and poetic effects.

Strategy-1

Let’s take a look at a great example from Robinson’s *Unlocking Shakespeare’s language*

I ate the sandwich.

I the sandwich ate.

Ate the sandwich I.

Ate I the sandwich.

The sandwich I ate.

The sandwich ate I.

Robinson shows us these four words can create six unique sentences which carry the same meaning. While reading Shakespeare we will find this type of unusual word arrangement.

Use it as a Fun in the class.

Activity

Divide the class into groups and assign two or three of this type of sentences to each group. Tell them to identify the (*Subject, Verb and Object*) and tell them to re-write or re-order the sentences as modern sentence pattern- *Subject (S) + Verb (V) + Object (O)*

e.g. “*Where is thy husband now?*” “*Where be thy brothers?*”

Nothing is lost by rendering this as we should today:

Where is your husband now? Where are your brothers?

Strategy-2

While reading longer speeches, keep track the Subject, Verb and Object-

“The king hath happily received, Macbeth,

The news of thy success: and when he reads

Thy personal venture in the rebel’s fight.....”(Macbeth I,iii)

1st clause: The king hath happily received Macbeth,/The news of thy success:

Subject: The king

Verb: has received

Object: the news [of Macbeth's success]

2nd clause: and when he reads/thy personal venture in the rebel's fight,

Subject: he [the king]

Verb: reads

Object: [about] your venture

Strategy-3

In tracking the line of action in a passage, it is useful to identify the main thoughts that are being expressed. Divide the class into groups, and assign a Soliloquy or an exciting Dialogue for each group, tell them to read it aloud and identify the thoughts that are expressed in those lines. After that help them understanding the thoughts by paraphrasing:

e.g. In the following lines in which Hamlet expresses his feelings about the death of his father and the remarriage of his mother:

*"O God! a beast that wants discourse o reason
Would have mourn'd longer-married with my uncle,
My father's brother, but no more like my father
Than I to Hercules" (Hamlet I,ii)*

However, the study of literature in a language class, though being mainly associated with reading and writing, can play an equally meaningful role in teaching both *speaking and listening*.

Strategy-4

Select a scene (a shorter one) from one of his tragedies or comedies, use it for watching in the classroom, and then practice some activities like *Gap-filling*. The purpose in one hand *is to* promote the appreciation of comic or tragic scenes and on the other hand, to develop listening skill.

Here is an example from Mate (2005; pp. 69-70):

"Where is Polonius? - Gap Filling

This exercise is built on watching a shorter scene from *Hamlet* by Laurence Olivier. Students are first asked to watch the scene and make notes to be able to summarise what they were talking about. After screening and a brief summary by students, the conversation is handed out to them with certain expressions and phrases deleted. The task is to fill the missing words:

King: Now, Hamlet, where's Polonius?

Ham: At supper.

King: At supper! where?

Ham: Not where he eats, but where he is eaten: a certain convocation of politic worms are e'en at him. Your worm is your only emperor for diet: we fat all creatures else to fat us and we fat ourselves for worms: your fat king and your lean beggar is but variable service,-- two dishes, but to one table: that's the end.

King: Alas, alas!

Ham: A man may fish with the worm that hath eat of a king, and eat of the fish that hath fed of that worm.

King: What dost thou mean by this?

Ham: Nothing but to show you how a king may go a progress through the guts of a beggar.

King: Where's Polonius?

Ham: In heaven: send thither to see: if your messenger find him not there, seek him i' the other place yourself. But, indeed, if you find him not within this month, you shall nose him as you go up the stairs into the lobby.

King: Go seek him there. [To some Attendants.]

Ham: He will stay till you come."

The scene is somewhat longer than one minute. After the task sheet has completed, checked and understood on this comic scene in a tragedy. In this way, oral reading, dramatization, pantomiming, reenactment, discussion, and group activities can be conducted for teaching speaking and listening skills".

Conclusion

However, as Yen claims: "a Shakespeare teacher may ask, what is the purpose of studying Shakespeare at university in an EFL country? He answers, it is for language's sake first, then for the literary knowledge's sake" (p. 33). My answer is also the same like Yen. Still, one may find it as an ambitious idea to read Shakespeare in EFL classroom. But, only a careful preparation, selection as well as dedication of the teacher is the only requirement to exploit Shakespeare's work in an EFL class. The teacher's role is also to organize the class, to be aware of the class objectives, to have a good understanding of the course content, as well as to be flexible and willing to cooperate with learners and have at least, some interest in the texts of Shakespeare. On the other hand, the result is rewarding both for the teachers and students. The sense of achievement of introducing Shakespeare to an EFL classroom will be huge.

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Dear Colleagues/Researchers,

Education and Development Research Council (EDRC) is a government affiliated research organization established in 2004. EDRC currently publishes a **double-blind peer-reviewed Quarterly Journal** titled *The EDRC Journal of Learning and Teaching (EJLT)* especially for college and university teachers, trainers, students, researchers, instructional designers, e-learning developers, and practitioners. It provides widespread and comprehensive information viewed from theoretical and practical perspectives to develop different educational approaches, issues, means and techniques. The Journal emphasizes academic excellence, research rigidity, knowledge dissemination, and reciprocated scholarly efforts in order to endorse theoretical, empirical, experimental and practical research at the national and international levels.

The EJLT invites original and unpublished research papers from the scholars and researchers around the globe. The journal seeks to embrace the entire areas of linguistics and language education, especially on teaching and learning to meet the criteria of research excellence for publishing in forthcoming issues of the EJLT.

The EDRC also aims at undertaking, coordinating, and promoting educational and development research. It provides professional and academic guidance in the fields of basic inculcation and higher inculcation. The EJLT's mission is to promote and support high quality basic research into the fields of teaching and learning, generate public awareness, provide advice to scholars, researchers, and teachers; and communicate research outcomes. Authors are encouraged to submit papers as per the following criteria:

- Submission deadline: Open
- Submission Method: Electronic submission to:
<edrc.bdesb@gmail.com>
- Research Article: not exceeding 5000 words including appendices and references
- Teaching Article: not exceeding 4000 words including appendices and references
- Articles/Papers formatting, citation, and referencing: The APA Style, 6th Edition

Kind regards,
Executive Editor

Education and Development Research Council (EDRC)

Education and Development Research Council (EDRC) is an organization administered by a group of professionals including teachers, researchers, and educationists working at the national and international levels. It is a government registered non-profit research and development organization working for the expansion of education, conducting multi-disciplinary academic and development research for individuals and groups, and operating relief and rehabilitation services for the disadvantaged and vulnerable people in Bangladesh.

EDRC mainly pursues projects, initiatives, and activities to advance the field of education research, promote cutting-edge lines of study, and deepen knowledge about education research as a discipline, profession, and field. Education research is a domain of inquiry aiming at advancing knowledge of education and learning processes, and development of the tools and methods necessary to support this endeavor.

EDRC's Education Research Service Projects is designed to encourage education researchers to offer their pro bono expertise to educational organizations, institutions, or other communities that have identified and expressed a need for such assistance.

EDRC is equipped to offer Editing Services for original research papers and research grant proposals, and for other professional documents, such as reviews, case reports, monographs, and theses. It professionally provides pertinent support for producing high quality research. The fee is according to time, and type and amount of work required.

EDRC has a number of projects, including building school structures and learning centers for children who have to travel long distances to attend school. It has programs in the areas of education expansion, health and economic development that provide underequipped schools with teachers' salaries, health care kits, stationeries, staffing, and water purification as well as financial assistance for the poor but meritorious students.

EDRC also conducts as well as coordinates training and workshops based on demand by academic professionals, researchers, and practitioners to build the capacity of various stakeholders. It extends cooperation to the disaster-stricken school children in favour of the commencement of schooling aftermath of disaster.