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**SOME PEOPLE & US**

**An Insightful View from Philosopher, Educationist and Entrepreneur  
Jimmy Teo**

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Some people are easily annoyed, quickly angered  
Fuelled by sadness, ill health, envy, hatred  
And dislikes of others' success & plenty.

Some people speak rudely  
Without caring for others' feelings  
Drowning in their own demeanours.

Some people boast about themselves  
When others could easily see  
That they are nothing.

Some people are arrogant & talk loudly  
Thinking that their wealth & standing warrant them so  
Forgetting that they are mortals.

The good news is that there are some people  
Who are truly kind, considerate & graceful  
Despite their wealth & excellence.

To have wealth  
And yet lives simply & kindly without arrogance  
Is the epitome of success & tranquillity.

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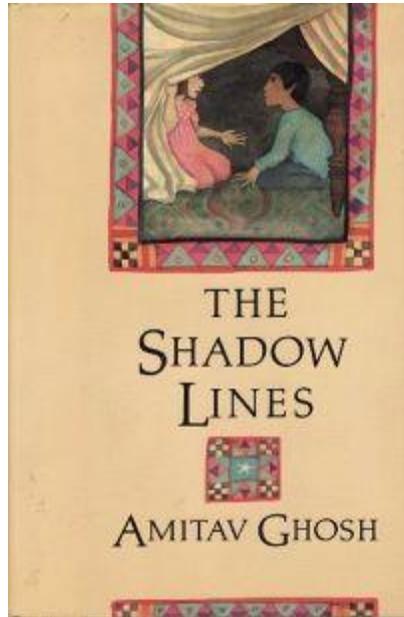
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**Theme, Technique and Historicism in Amitav Ghosh's  
*The Shadow Lines: A Critical Study***

**Alok Kumar Singh, Research Scholar (English)**

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**Abstract**

Amitav Ghosh has won many accolades for his fiction that is keenly intertwined with history. His fiction is characterized by strong themes that may be sometimes identified as historical novels. His themes involve emigration, exile, cultural displacement and uprooting. He illuminates the basic ironies, deep seated ambiguities and existential dilemmas of human condition. He, in one of the interviews, has observed, "Nobody has the choice of stepping away from history" and "For me, the value of the novel, as a form, is that it is able to incorporate elements of every aspect of life-history, natural history, rhetoric, politics, beliefs, religion, family, love, sexuality".

Amitav Ghosh's success as historical novelist owes much to the distinctiveness of his well-researched narratives. He remarkably manifests a bygone era and vanished experiences to life through vividly realized detail. The better reference in this context is his celebrated second

novel, “The Shadow Lines” (1988) which was published four years after the sectarian violence that shook New Delhi in the aftermath of the Prime Minister, Mrs. Indira Gandhi. This constitutes a logical background in the novel, and it makes readers probe various hammering facets of violence. Also, his treatment of violence in Calcutta and Dhaka in this novel is valid even today.

The novel deals with the concerns of our period, the search for identity, the need for independence, the difficult relationship with colonial culture. It magnificently interweaves fact, fiction and reminiscence. It is a continuous narrative which replicates the pattern of violence not only of 1964 but also of 21st century. The fragmentary narratives unfold the narrator’s experiences in the form of memories which move backwards and forwards.

While focusing upon the text of “The Shadow Lines” I aim to examine and elaborate elements of historicity in the novel and their implications. I also aim to investigate the theme as well as technique employed in the novel.

**Key words:** Post Colonial, Communalism, Historicism, Cosmopolitanism, Nostalgia, Self identity, multi culture and post modern.

### **Introduction: Amitav Ghosh**

Amitav Ghosh, one of the most celebrated authors in Indian English, has won many national and international awards for his fiction that is keenly intertwined with history. He is one of most significant literary voices to emerge from India in recent decades, and has contributed to the development of ideas on the postcolonial in particular, in particular its relation to post modernism. His fiction is characterized by strong themes of humanism, cosmopolitanism, communalism, colonial power and history. His themes involve emigration, exile, cultural displacement and uprooting. He illuminates the human ironies, deep-seated ambiguities and existential dilemmas of human condition. He, in one of the interviews, has observed, "Nobody has the choice of stepping away from history" and "For me, the value of the novel, as a form, is that it is able to incorporate elements of every aspect of life-history, natural history, rhetoric, politics, beliefs, religion, family, love, sexuality".

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Alok Kumar Singh, Research Scholar (English)

Theme, Technique And Historicism In Amitav Ghosh’s *The Shadow Lines*: A Critical Study

Amitav Ghosh skillfully places facts in his narratives, historical events written in the fictional language and fictional matter treated as history, thus giving the effect of presence and absence of history at the same time. The public chronicles of nations are interrogated through the means of graphic details of individual memories that do not necessarily tally with the official version of history. For instance, the narrator himself is a witness to the riots in Calcutta in 1964, but when he tries to prove it to his colleagues using the traditional medium of recording history – i.e. the newspaper – he initially meets disappointment. He has woven fact and fiction in a complex and absorbing narratives.

## **Introduction**

Amitav Ghosh's success as historical novelist owes much to his power of documentation and his distinctiveness of well-researched socio-political narratives. He goes beyond historical representation. The better reference in this context is his celebrated second novel, "The Shadow Lines" (1988) which was published four years after 84 anti-sikh communal riot that shook New Delhi in the aftermath of the assassination of Prime Minister, Mrs. Indira Gandhi. This constitutes a logical background in the novel, and it compels readers probe various hammering facets of violence. Also, his pathological treatment of violence in Calcutta and Dhaka in this novel is valid even today.

The novel reconstructs and recapitulates major historical and far-reaching events such as the Swadeshi movement, the Second World War, the partition of India, the communal riots of 1963-64 in Dhaka and Calcutta, the Maoist Movement, the India-China War, the India-Pakistan War and the fall of Dhaka from East Pakistan and the creation of Bangladesh. The events revolve around Mayadeby's family, their friendship and sojourn with their English friends the Prices and Thamma, the narrator's grandmother's links with her ancestral city, Dhaka. It is the story of the family and friends of the nameless narrator which has its roots in broader national and international experience. In the novel the past, present and future coalesce and melt together erasing any kind of line of demarcations. . The text deals with the concerns of contemporary period such as the search for identity, political freedom, communal frenzy, nationalism, the need for independence, the difficult relationship with colonial culture. It magnificently interweaves

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fact, fiction and reminiscence. The text intersects personal memory, family lore and public history. It is a continuous narrative which replicates the pattern of violence not only of 1964 but also of 21st century. The fragmentary narratives unfurl the narrator's experiences in the form of memories which move backwards and forwards.

### ***The Shadow Lines***

*The Shadow Lines* is Ghosh's second novel, who has overtime secured his place as one of the India's most celebrated and finest of post-Rushdie generation of authors in Indian writing in English. Ghosh's work is known to be imbued with minute details of the given time, space and situation, which he writes about and his words are impregnated with a wealth of meaning. Having penned novels of different genres, Ghosh seems to reinvent himself with his every work but *The Shadow Lines* undoubtedly remains one his best. His text straddles the border between history and fiction.

Amitav Ghosh's historical world is one of restless narrative motions. His central figures are travellers and diasporic exiles. He treats national borders and conceptual boundaries as shadow lines and mere illusions. The shadow lines of the novel are experiential and political, and challenges political, social and cultural borders. Reason becomes passion; going away is also coming home and the differences between us and them, now and then, here and there are disrupted by the itinerant maps of a roaming imagination.

### **Historical Touches and Their Narratives**

While tracing historical aspects and their narratives interlinked with social perspectives in the novel it is herewith worth-noting that each of his major works direct their narrative force towards historical facts. In this particular context, it will be proper to discuss the following points.

#### **1. The New Historicist Approach**

New historicist approach concerns itself not only with the big and paramount national problems like partition and communal frenzy but also with political matters and international events of the past. The inscrutable and transcendental issues like the indivisible sanity, religion and alienation, themes of detachment and isolation become very much part of it. The search for

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syncretic culture and communal harmony, and deep concern for the individual liberty in an increasingly collectivized and militancy-ridden society are very well represented in such works. *The Shadow Lines* is a story told by a nameless child narrator using mnemonic process. It's a non linear narrative, fragmentary, episodic and incomplete. This style of writing is both unique and captivating; unfolding ideas together as time and space combine and help the narrator understand his past better and look for a new meaning. Revolving around the theme of nationalism in an increasingly globalized world, Ghosh questions the real meaning of political freedom and the borders. In fact, it reflects the fictional analysis of nation state as obstructive and divisive. The novel traverses through almost seventy years through the memories of people, which the narrator recollects and narrates with a dual point of view as an adult and as a child. Though the novel primarily focuses on Calcutta, Dhaka and London, it seems to echo the sentiments of whole South-east Asia, with lucid overtones of Independence and the pangs of Partition.

## **2. Impact of Nostalgia and the Question of Self-Identity**

The novel also highlights nostalgia and chronicle communal chaos which are an intrinsic part of history. The characters suffer a sense of loss and belonging. They are always longing for the past, for those days and for those places that are no longer traceable. For example, reminiscences of her childhood in Dhaka keep haunting Tha'mma, who has been living in Calcutta for about two decades. For her, Calcutta can never be Dhaka which used to be her home, 'no home but in memory'. It is a story of a middle class Indian family based in Calcutta. The boy narrator presents the views of the members of his immediate and extended family, thus, giving each a well-defined character. However, Tha'mma, narrator's grandmother is the memorable character in the novel, giving a distinct idea of militant nationalism and the enthusiasm with which the people worked towards nation building just after independence. It is chiefly through her character that Ghosh delivers the most significant message of the novel; the vainness of creating nation states, the absurdity of drawing lines which arbitrarily divide people when their memories remain undivided. All the characters are meticulously sketched. In Tridib, the narrator's uncle, Ghosh draws one of the most fascinating characters of our times. Narrator's fascination with him is understandable. It is Tridib who gives him "worlds to travel in and eyes to see them with" (S.L. 20). Ghosh subtly tries to undo the myth that boundaries demarcate as there are no barriers in imagination. Ila is central to the narrator's coming of age. Her portrayal is

crucial to showcase the pragmatic cosmopolitanism of the people who live aloof from their native place.

### **3. Omniscient Narrator as Historian**

In *The Shadow Lines*, the narrator's personality merges with that of the historian. For him the past exists only in memory and has no visible traces left in the present to go by. Here memory is more adequate than history, and works as a channel into past. The only resources, which the narrator-historian possesses to graft history, are memories, photographs, and Tridib's stories which are difficult to dismiss because they are factually correct yet set in other time and space. The events are reconstructed, often as accurately and as carefully by any historian, putting real people in imaginary situations, and fancy conditions in documentary archives, augmenting the significance of historical events by plausible and internally consistent depictions of events. Ghosh invokes the archives as a key organizing principle in his novels making it coherent historical narratives.

### **4. Retrospection of Past Events**

The Changeability of time and place blur as the process of recollection transforms the past events into a throbbing sense of what has been lost. The historical events documented by the novel includes the freedom movement in Bengal, the Second World War, the Partition of India in 1947, and the spontaneous communal combustion in the form of riots in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) and India following the '64 Hazratbal incident in Srinagar.<sup>3</sup> The novel is not a bare and bland recapitulation of those tense historical moments; it captures the trauma of emotional rupture and estrangement as also the damaging potential of the psychological siege within people sundered by bigoted politics. Ghosh's novel as re-appropriated history moves through the narratives and melds the historical moments into a compelling tale. The reconstruction of the past through houses, photographs, maps, road names, newspapers, advertisements and other concretisations allows us to collate the text with concurrent co-texts and validate the author's perception of the time and milieu covered by the novel. The principal episodes viewed in a simultaneous focus seem to be part of a historical continuum and the narrator's insight into the characters falling into insane frenzy or wallowing in stolid indifference to transcultural currents can be palpably located.

## 5. Concerns about Cross Border Humanity and Cosmopolitanism

While *The Shadow Lines* explores the author's major concern about wider, cross-border humanity with striking insights into the issues of ethnic nationalism, multiculturalism and communalism, it also reveals new levels of his technical prowess. Ghosh has departed from Rushdie's mode of "imaginative serio-comic storytelling" (Hawley 3) or "the disjointed magic realism" (Mukherjee) evident in his apprentice novel (*The Circle of Reason*). What he now offers is a supple and sophisticated mnemonic narrative. He weaves together different strands of history by mnemonic process or "wistful evocations of memory" (Mukherjee, "Dancing in Cambodia, At Large in Burma") to reflect on communal carnage and sectarian tension in the Indian subcontinent. The novel derives its material from Ghosh's experience of the fracture following the Partition and the resultant rupture in the affiliative bonds of the communities across the border. What makes his experience worthy of investigation is the technique by which his experience is moulded into a fascinating and coherent narrative.

## 6. Geographical Fluidity and Cultural Dislocations

Ghosh engages with the limits of essentialist nationalism and barriers to empathy across geographical borders. The novel eventuates into a search for the strategies for survival in a violent, hate-filled world of narrow divisions and finds in cross border interaction an effective antidote to the miasma of ethnic tension. Thus the novel also addresses the challenge of geographical fluidity and cultural dislocations with a salutary insight into history. For this purpose he uses the metaphor of 'family'. The cross-border movement of aliens and immigrants under the increasingly globalised scenario endorses, or rather validates, the novel's larger project of cultural accommodation, of making sense of ontological confusion in intricate spatiality and seeking adjustment to the emerging demands of multicultural world. As Brinda Bose rightly notes, it is no doubt fitting that in the age of an extravagantly embracing of globalization, we may claim to have closed the gap between the other and straddling it; certainly, the legacy of postcolonial angst today appears to have settled into a potentially numbing acceptance of bi- or multi-cultural euphoria. In such a circumstance, the diasporic imagination of Amitav Ghosh – that wrestles with an understanding of bi-culturalism as it 'yokes by violence together' discrete

and distant identities – is essential to our understanding of our history even as it is being created. (Bose 15-16)

In my view, Ghosh appeals to creative multicultural impulses and communal harmony. He perceptively shows how different cultures and communities are becoming antagonistic to the point of no return. He makes a plea for cross-border ties and intercivilisational alliance which amounts to making a new world order. To quote Edward Said, “the new economic and socio-political dislocations and configurations of our time [begin] with the startling realities of human interdependence on a world scale” (Said, *Culture and Materialism* 401). Such re-appropriations of history or “desirable constructions of the past” also do away with the partitioning of the past to open out common doors from the corridors between cultures through “creative improvisations” (Prasad 58).

## **7. Demarcations as Arbitrary and Invented Divisions**

Ghosh does not totally accede to the claims of historicism. His preoccupation with shadow lines or demarcations as “arbitrary and invented divisions between people and nations” has also been closely questioned by A.N. Kaul. In his opinion, *The Shadow Lines* “ends up attributing value and a higher reality to a sort of amorphous romantic subjectivity” (Kaul 299). Kaul argues that unlike Henry James and E.M. Forster, who recognise the barriers to cultural crossings due to a variety of political and cultural complexities, Ghosh privileges the world of private refuge over historical and political realities and thus regards these harsh realities or historical formations as immaterial; at any rate, he blithely disregards them. As Kaul notes, the novel insists on a sentimental resolution and as such it lacks an authentic resonance. He also underlines some signifying and profound statements about life in the novel as “postmodern banalities” or mere “conundrums.” Kaul perhaps sidesteps the implications of Tridib’s advice to the narrator that he uses his “imagination with precision” (S.L. 24). Kaul further quotes Ernest Gellener’s unequivocal statement that nationalism “invents nations where they do not exist”. Tridib’s insistence on the material moorings of imagination – its temporal and spatial co-ordinates – is plainly missing from Kaul’s explication of “imagination” as romantic retreat from historical realities in *The Shadow Lines*.

## 8. A World Torn Asunder by History and Religion

*The Shadow Lines* embarks upon a journey of discovery of roots and reasons. It also portrays a world torn asunder by history, and depicts forms of violence that extreme of nationalism sometimes manifests. Through an intricate web of memories, relationships and images Amitav Ghosh builds a vivid and moving narrative. It is unlike the novel of previous era, firstly because it is not linear in narration. The interaction of Indians with English people, their journey to other continents, their issues of political freedom, self-identity and the forces of nationalism have all been very vividly described. The first impression one gets in reading this novel is that the people delineated belong to many different nationalities, cultures and backgrounds that make the scope of novel formidable. The very opening of the novel describes the writer's aunt Maya Debi going to England with her husband and son. This was in 1939 and since then the interaction with them and separation from them has been projected through memories. Through the cinematic technique of flashback, the action moves to and fro from London to Calcutta and to Khulna and Dhaka. Here narrative time coincides with the consciousness of narrator. In a globalized world, it is no longer possible for any writer to write the novel in Jane Austen fashion from the centre of her place.

## 9. Reevaluation of Historical Reality

Although, chronologically, the story begins with a passage of time in colonial India when the narrator was not even born, it embraces a good deal of postcolonial moments, and all the episodes are held in simultaneous focus to illuminate the narrative resolution. The novel begins thus: "In 1939, thirteen years before I was born, my father's aunt Maya Debi went to England with her husband and her son Tridib" (*The Shadow Lines*, p.3). The year 1939 is historically significant for the outbreak of the Second World War and the phenomenal upheavals on the Indian subcontinent coming in its wake. Mayadebi's visit to London around this time, her intimate contact with the Price family and the Tridib-May component of the story are recounted by Tridib twenty-one years later to the narrator, an eight-year-old inquisitive child. May was a little baby when Tridib saw her in London. A romantic relationship between them has developed through correspondence, transcending the shadow lines of nationality and cultural boundaries. Amitav Ghosh explores the mysterious pull between Tridib and May and the abiding bond

between the two families defying distance and physical frontiers even as the countries they belong to are pitted against each other, and this superbly provides thematic framework of novel.

The narrator's voice appears to be the author's voice and suggests that the issues of boundaries and national culture are illusory and non-existent. There cannot be any divisions of universal humanity. The concept of time in the story can be taken as a metaphor for the national borders. It seems to suggest that divisions between nations are illusion and that frontiers between nations should not exist, and it tends to justify the title of the novel itself. In this way, Ghosh reveals a firm grasp of socio- cultural and historical material that underlies his narrative.

### **Conclusion**

Thus a historicist approach to text is nothing but an evaluation of a segment of historical reality as projected by the novelist whose techniques of writing fiction enable him or her to describe his or her world-vision. In all his writing, Amitav Ghosh's engagement with history is not the same kind as that of a regular historian, but this does not, in any way, lessen its significance as historical fiction. The fictional framework renders history more readable and lively and he is able to involve the reader more than what actual history does. Ghosh's fiction reveals that the novelist's involvement with history is his prime obsession. Indeed, he interjects a new dimension into his encounter with history. His fiction is imbued with both political and historical consciousness. While offering memory as a better or more valid means of assessing past, Ghosh is thus a novelist who virtually bends his novels to the needs of history; they largely derive their purpose and shape from it. the novel narrates the events taking place in 1939-40, 1960-63 and 1978-79 in a jumbled way but the adult narrator focalises on these recollections in the 1980s and manipulates these blurred temporal and spatial fragments into a coherent stretch to stage postcolonial situations as well as cultural dislocations and anxieties, and presents the issue of fractured nationalities in close and telling encounters for good measure. All the narration comes to us filtered through authorial voice.

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## **A Comparative Study of the Production of Spatial Terms by Meiteilon-Speaking Children with Intellectual Disability and Typically Growing Children**

**Benubala Nameirakpam, Ph.D. Research Scholar**

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### **Abstract**

This paper presents the result of an investigation on the elicited production of the spatial terms by a group of Meiteilon-speaking children with severe intellectual disability (ID) and a group of children without any disability in the same age range of 5-8 years. The finding shows that there is a difference in the production rate of the spatial terms by the two groups. The finding also shows that the children with intellectual disability manifest a significant difference when compared to the typically growing children. The ID group not only has lower production rate but they also lack in several concepts. This group use generic terms as a substitute to specific terms when compared with the other group.

### **Introduction**

Over the years, there has been a rise in the new attempt to examine the nature of the language and the linguistic impairment of the children with intellectual disability (ID) from a linguistic point of view. Language of the person with ID is recognized to be marked with features of deviation and retardation. A child with ID is the one who falls in the lower end of the range of intelligence, usually with an intelligence quotient (IQ) below 70 on some standardized IQ tests and limitation in some adaptive behaviour. The onset is before the age of 18 years. Persons with ID have been categorized into mild, moderate, severe and profound categories depending on the level of severity. The present study has tried to examine the nature and function of spatial terms in the Meiteilon-speaking children with ID and compare it with the language of the typically growing children. The subjects in the study include a group of children in the range of severe ID and a control group which are the typically growing children. The two groups have been compared according to the age. The main reason for choosing the severe group within the groups in ID is that severe subjects show striking linguistic patterns (Sharma, 1977).

## Spatial Expression

Spatial expressions are used to describe the relationship among the objects. It describes the relationship between referents rather than the referents themselves. Spatial expressions are usually expressed by spatial terms. In this study, only the spatial terms that refer to the notion of location such as on, in, below have been considered. The terms that refer to the notion of direction such as left, right have not been used in this study. In eliciting data for these terms, it has to keep in mind that there is a chance of creating ambiguity and confusion. To avoid ambiguity, observer's point of view may have to be considered. For example, the statement "Y is in front of X" is not absolute. Y may be in front of one observer but it may be not for another. It may be behind the other observer (Cox and Richardson, 1985).

In Meiteilon, locative relations are marked by a locative marker '-tə ~ -də' on the referent object.

(1) *yum-də*

house-LOC

'in/at the house'

In addition, the specific relation is expressed by combining a directional or place marker which are nominal with the locative marker '-tə ~ -də'.

(2) *yum-giməmaŋ-də*

house-Gen front-LOC

'in front of the house'

## Meiteilon-specific Spatial Terms Used in the Study

<i>nakən -də</i>	'beside'
<i>mənak-tə</i>	'nearby'
<i>məmaŋ -də</i>	'in front of, before'
<i>məniŋ -də</i>	'behind, in back of'
<i>mənuiŋ -də</i>	'in, inside'
<i>məpan -də</i>	'outside, out'

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<i>mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə</i>	‘on, above, top, up’
<i>mək<sup>h</sup>a-də</i>	‘below, down, under’
<i>məyay-də</i>	‘in the middle, in the center’

These spatial terms help in expressing the location of an object with a greater precision. The location will be left unspecified if only the locative marker *-də* is used.

Examples:

(3) *lairik tebəl-də*      *ləy-y*  
 book table-LOC      be-Nonfut  
 “The book is on the table.”

(4) *lairik tebəl-gi*      *məyay-də*      *ləy-y*  
 book table-Gen      middle-LOC      be-Nonfut  
 “The book is in the middle of the table.”

In example (3), the position of the book is not specified. It can be anywhere on the table. In example (4), the position of the book is specified. It is in the middle of the table.

The main issues investigated were:

There ought to be a definite difference in the production of the spatial terms by the two groups. The ability of the children with an ID to indicate location of an object is limited. They might not be able to convey the exact location and might employ deictic prolocative, e.g., “here” and “there” to convey the location. The ability of the severe ID group to produce a particular spatial term will depend on the kind of relation the term expresses. Therefore, different terms will have different production levels. Some of the spatial terms may turn out to be easier to produce than others.

## Method

### Subject

The data for this study have been collected from nine children with an ID within the IQ range of 21–34 and nine typically growing children.

Children with ID have been selected from a special co-educational school for persons with an ID, at Imphal, BB Paul Mental Development Home, Mongshangei, Manipur and also from a special co-educational residential centre, for persons with ID, Samarth Based Scheme Hostel, Mongshangei, Manipur. All subjects who have been chosen for the study, thus, are the native speakers of Meiteilon. The subjects who have been included in the study are already diagnosed with ID and after examining the case profiles of the students available in the school and the hostel, nine subjects were chosen for the study. While selecting the student, it has been ensured that none of them has either speech defects or other physical defects. All the subjects are right handed, and this has been again done consciously for the purpose of keeping the uniformity in place and thus left- handed subjects have not been included in the study.

Total no. of subjects	9
No. of boys	3
No. of girls	6
Day scholars	1
Hostellers	8
Chronological age	5–8
Mental age	1–4
IQ range	21–34

Table 1. Brief descriptive information about the subjects in severe ID group

The control group is selected from a locality in Imphal, Manipur. There are also nine subjects in this group. They are selected according to their age and all of them are native speaker of Meiteilon. The children are in the age range of 5–8 years.

## Tools

The data have been collected by using a set of pictures similar in nature to those that have been used in some earlier studies of person with ID (Sharma, 1974, 1987; Koopai, 1988 and Bansal, 1989). These studies have shown that subjects with an ID can respond to picture tests quite well. The test materials were prepared based on the materials used in the earlier

studies for the children with ID. The test materials consist of picture sheets concerning the spatial expression in Meiteilon. The pictures have been made keeping in mind the point that the construction of spatial relationships among objects minimally involves the following two elements:

- (a) Subject (the object being talked about; the figure).
- (b) Landmark or reference object (the object relative to which the subject is located, the ground). (Lindstromberg, 2010)

For example, in the picture for “*mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə*” ‘on, above, top, up’, there is a book on the table.

(5) *lairik tebəl-gi*      *mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə*      *ləy-y*  
 book table-Gen      on-LOC      be-NonFut  
 “The book is on the table.”

In the above example, the book is the subject and the table is the landmark. *mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə* is the specific locative term which is showing the relationship between the subject and the landmark.

Another point that has been considered while making the pictures is that it is easier to describe an aspect of events when they are contrasted with others (Eisenbeiss, 2009). As Meiteilon spatial terms form a dimension of ‘*mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə*’ ‘on’ and *mək<sup>h</sup>u-də*’ ‘under’, they have been compared. For example, in one picture there is a book **on** the table which is a test for ‘*mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə*’ ‘on’ and in another picture there is a book **under** the table which is a test for ‘*mək<sup>h</sup>u-də*’ ‘under’. In these two pictures, the subject (the book) and the landmark (the table) remain the same, the difference is in the location of the subject (the book).

In this way, there are three pictures for each of the nine spatial terms. In total, 27 picture sheets have been used for the study to ascertain the production of spatial terms by the Meiteilon-speaking children with an ID.

## Procedure

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Based on the spatial terms, a picture test has been set up. Considering the requirement of the test, the subjects for the group with severe ID are selected from a special school. All the subjects have been tested in a familiar environment, under controlled conditions. The data have been collected individually from each subject. Day scholars have been tested in their class room and the hostellers in their common room. Before the test is conducted, the researcher has tried to build up rapport with the children by having conversation with them, seeking necessary information by asking, “What is your name? What did you eat for lunch? Do you like drawing pictures?” etc. The researcher, having been introduced to the subjects, told them that they are going to look at some pictures and each of them will look at all the pictures one by one.

The researcher sat opposite to the subject on a table and showed them the pictures. After the pictures are shown to the subjects, they are required to answer questions about the position of an object in relation to the referent object. As we have already said earlier that in all the pictures, the spatial relations are shown by using two objects. One is the object being talked about and another is the one where the object is located. In the picture for  $m\acute{a}k^h a - d\acute{a}$ , there is a book under the table, where the book is the object being talked about and the table is the locus where the book is located. They have been asked to respond to the questions such as “Where is the book?” “Where is the ball?” The questions have been formulated in accordance with the pictures.

In cases, when the researcher has not been able to get the answer, i.e., when the subjects have provided non-verbal answers or used only the deictic pro-locatives, “here” or “there”, additional probes have been used to encourage them to give specific responses on the test. The researcher has given other spatial term instead of the correct answer and has asked whether it is the correct answer or not. Accordingly, the responses of the subjects can be categorized into different groups. Some subjects gave the correct expected spatial terms such as on, below. Some answer has been “here” and “there”. Some of them described the object instead of giving the specific spatial terms. In some cases, the answer has been opposite of the expected terms, example “on” instead of “down” or other incorrect answer such as “beside” instead of “in”.

The responses of the subjects have been evaluated and marked by using a notation (√) or (X) according to the answer. The answers have been documented in the notebook. The correct answers have been marked as (√) and the incorrect ones as (X). Responses without mention of the reference object were accepted as correct, i.e., if the subject answer on the specific spatial term, then it is considered as correct. In order to find out the score, the data have been analyzed and each correct answer has been assigned (1) and each incorrect answer has been assigned (0). The mean value of all the spatial term in each group has been calculated. The mean value has been computed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). The *t*-Test has been conducted online using easycalculation.com. (www.Graphpad.com/quickcals/ttest2.cfm. Quickscales.Online calculation for scientists.)

## **Observation**

### **Production Rate of Spatial Terms by the Two Groups**

#### **The Severe ID group**

As shown in Figure 1, the production of all the spatial terms is less than 10% in the severe ID group. There is no manifestation of *nakən-də* “beside”, *mənak-tə* “near”, *məmaŋ-də* “in front of”, *mək<sup>h</sup>a-də* “below, under” and *məyay-də* “in the middle” in this group. The rate of production of the rest of the specific spatial terms is very low if at all they have been produced. *məpan-də* “outside, out” has the highest rate of production in this group. *məniŋ-də* “behind, in the back”, *mənuŋ-də* “in, inside” and *mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə* “on, above” have the same rate of production.

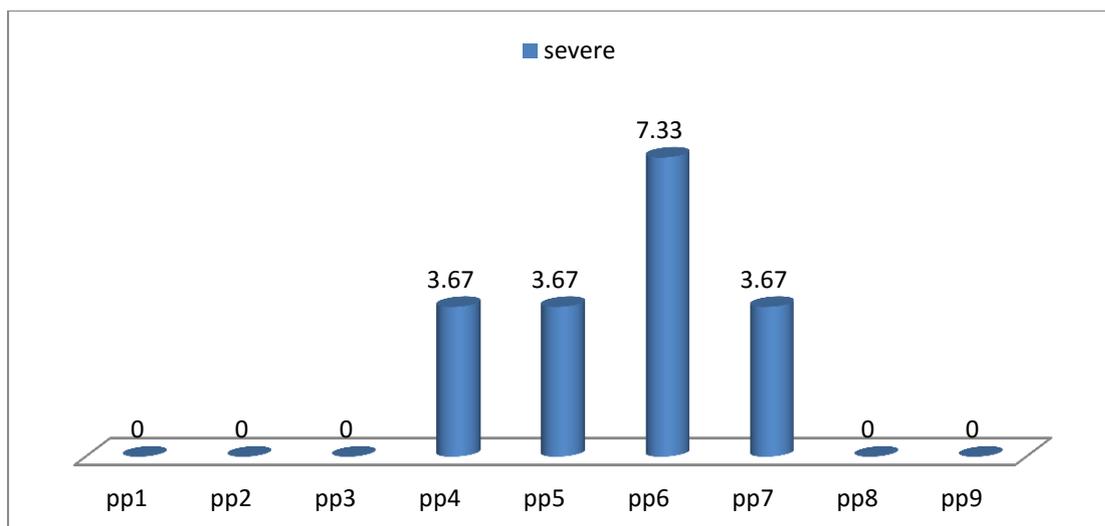


Fig. 1 Production of spatial terms by the severe group

pp1: *nakən-də*; pp2: *mənak-tə*; pp3: *məmaŋ-də*; pp4: *məniŋ-də*; pp5: *mənuŋ-də* ; pp6: *məpan-də*; pp7: *mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə* ; pp8: *mək<sup>h</sup>a-də* ; pp9: *məyay-də*

### The Control Group

Figure 2 provides the rate of production of locative terms in Meiteilon by the second group, i.e., control group. The highest production rate is 100% and the lowest production rate is around 45%. In this group, *mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə* ‘on, above’ and *mək<sup>h</sup>a-də* ‘below, under’ have 100% production rate. For this group, the manifestation of these terms is clearly visible as the rate of production is high. It is all above 50% except for the *nakən-də* ‘beside’ which is below 50%.

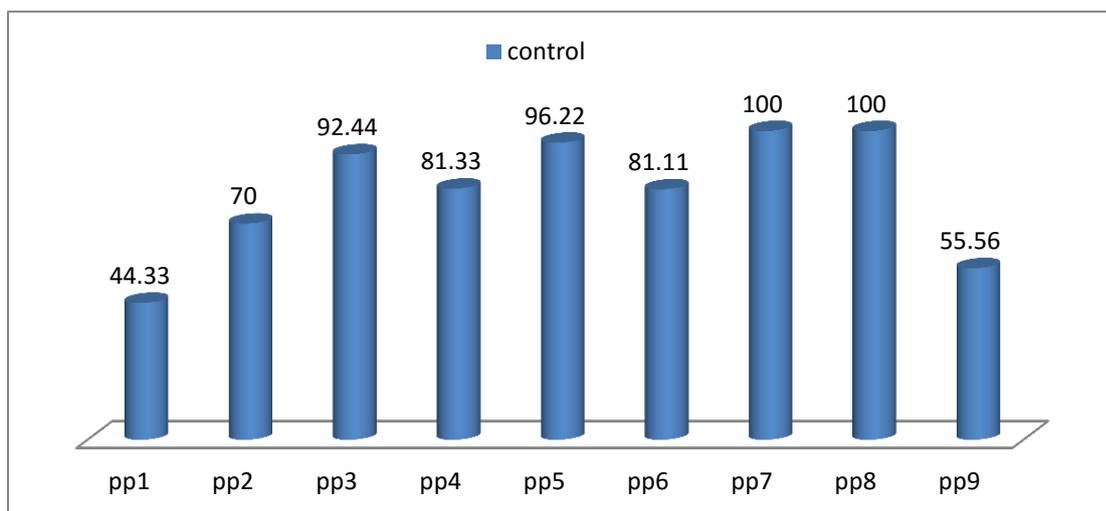


Fig. 2 Production of spatial terms by the control group

### Comparison of the Two Groups

When all the spatial terms are compared between the two groups, we have observed that almost in all instances, the control group has higher production rate than the severe ID group. As shown in Fig.3, Severe ID group has very low production for all the spatial terms that have been tasted in the present work when compared with the control group.

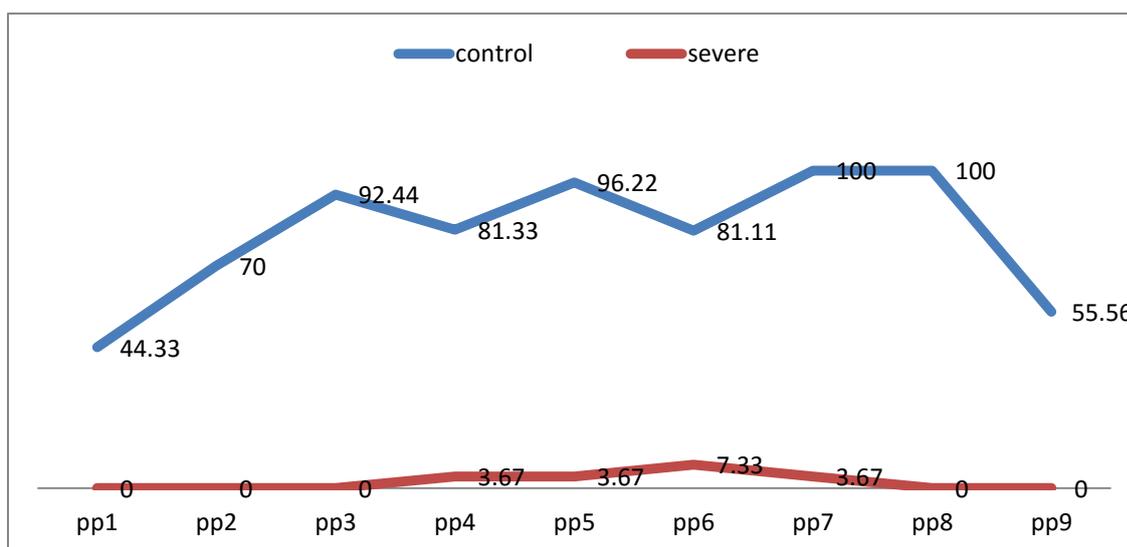


Fig. 3 Comparison of the production of the spatial terms by the two groups

## Result

### Result of *t*- test

We have made the comparison between the groups using *t*- test. *t*-test has been conducted to see the significance of the difference of ‘MEAN’ between two groups. *t*-test has been applied for comparing group 1 and group 2 (i.e., severe ID and control). *t*-test has also been conducted to compare each of the spatial terms for severe group with control group in order to find out the significance of the difference of MEAN for the nine Meiteilon specific spatial terms that have been chosen for the study. Table 2 provides the results of the *t*-test comparison between the groups and the results obtained by the *t*-test comparison between the spatial terms are given in Table 3.

Table 2 reveals the following observations:

The computed *t*-value for the comparison of the severe ID group and control group is 6.7596 which is greater than the tabulated *t*-value, i.e., 2.120 at df 16,  $p = 0.05$ . So, it shows that there is significant difference between the groups in terms of the production of the locative term.

Groups	<i>t</i> -value
severe ID and control	6.7596

Table 2. Calculated *t*-value comparing the two groups

Table 3 gives the results of the comparison for the significant difference of MEAN between the two groups with regard to each spatial term. The following observations have been revealed in this table.

The computed *t*-value, to check the significance of the difference of MEAN for all the terms in the severe ID group and the control group is more than the tabulated *t*-value as shown in Table 3. Thus, the difference of the MEAN is significant everywhere. The *t*-test is not only significant between the severe ID group and the control group with regard to *məmaŋ-də* ‘in front of’, *mənuŋ-də* ‘in, inside’ and *mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə* ‘on, above’ but the difference is also so enormous and high because severe ID group has almost negligible presence of such spatial

expressions as far as the spatial terms of these kinds are concerned. Because of this reason, it comes to 18.4966 for *məmaŋdə* ‘in front of’ and 17.5799 for *mənuŋ-də* ‘in, inside’ and 26.2718 for *mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə* ‘on, above’. The comparison for the significance of the difference of MEAN between the severe ID group and the control group with regard to *mək<sup>h</sup>a-də* ‘below, under’ becomes meaningless as the variable becomes constant and the gap is very huge and thus the difference between the two groups is also noticeable. Hence, there is no comparison for *mək<sup>h</sup>a-də* ‘below, under’ in the severe and the control groups.

	nakə n-də	mənak -tə	məmaŋ -də	məniŋ -də	mənuŋ- də	məpan -də	mət <sup>h</sup> ək -tə	mək <sup>h</sup> a -də	məyay -də
Severe and control	2.82 28	8.0076	18.496 6	6.542 8	17.579 9	7.8006	26.271 8	-----	3.1628

Table 3: Result of the *t*-test comparing each spatial terms in the two groups

## Discussion

Analysis of the observations of the data of the two groups in the present study brings out certain facts that need to be discussed. The first point is the difference in the language behaviour of the children with an ID and the typically growing children. As earlier studies have already shown that the language of the person with an ID shows deviation in comparison to the language of the normal person (Schiefelbusch, 1972; Schiefelbusch, Copeland and Smith, 1967; Sharma, 1974, 1976, 1987; Suri, 1977; Safari, 1988). The present study also shows remarkable difference between the children with an ID and typically growing children in terms of the production of spatial terms.

Examination of the data reveals that the group of the children with ID mostly use the general locative term *-də* instead of the specific spatial terms. Examination of the data collected from the children with ID provides the evidence that they lack in several concepts and use generic terms as a substitute to specific terms. They have the tendency of describing the object instead of giving the specific words. They compensate their lack of adequate specific word by the use of the functionally and perceptually based descriptions for the concept which are referred by the single lexical items by the children who are typically growing. For example, one of the subjects of group 1 gave a detailed description of where she kept the ball when a picture of a ball kept on a table was shown to her. This picture has been used to elicit data for the spatial term *mət<sup>h</sup>ək-tə<sup>o</sup>* 'on'. There are also other cases where the subject describes the objects in the picture instead of giving the relationship between the object.

Earlier research has shown that person with an ID can be grouped according to their IQ, as development of language depends on severity (Sharma 1976, 1977). They have proved that person with an ID do not form a homogeneous group in terms of their language development. Their language development or level of language impairment can vary depending on the severity. So, this present study cannot be generalised for all the group of ID. The findings and the observations is only in comparison with the group of severe ID.

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### Abbreviations

**Gen: Genitive marker; Loc: Locative marker; Nonfut: Nonfuture**

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## **Towards Standardisation of Ghanaian English – The Case of UEW Students**

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### **Abstract**

This paper takes a look at Ghanaian English with its focus being towards the establishment of our own variety of the English language.

One of the most important things the British left us after more than a hundred years of colonisation is, perhaps, their language which has, today, become the world's foremost. English is, arguably, the most unifying cultural element of our nation state given the fact Ghana is a multilingual country.

What kind of English should the Ghanaian, then, speak? In our experience in the teaching of phonetics and phonology of English and Spoken English in the University of Education, Winneba, it has been observed that students after going through such courses that should enhance their pronunciation or help them achieve native-like competence in pronunciation still do not speak with such competence.

This paper therefore looks at the pronunciation of educated Ghanaians; students of UEW and brings to fore some of the features of educated Ghanaian English as a march towards the establishment of Ghanaian English.

According to Yankson (1997) the English of the educated West African is generally not so different from British English. It is at the phonological level that there are marked differences.

The study therefore looked particularly at consonant and vowel sounds that are not normally pronounced in native English which are heard clearly in the English of these

university students. It also looked at stress in the English language of students and it confirmed earlier studies where Ghanaian English is found as syllable timed as against a stress timed language; English.

Psychologists have shown that after the critical ages of 13 to 15, a person will not be able to speak another language as fluently as a native speaker. This among many other factors such as communal pull serve as blocks that prevent the educated Ghanaian from attaining native-like competence or fluency. Kachru's concentric circle also shows that the English in the outer circle is continuously developing new norms.

The aim of this paper is therefore to contribute to the already existing features of Ghanaian English and draw more attention to these features and intensify the need for a standardised Ghanaian variety of English which will be used as an official language. Data will be analysed using ice Ghana.

**Keywords:** Ghanaian, received pronunciation, standard pronunciation, educated Ghanaian pronunciation.

## **Introduction**

It has been observed that English in Ghana is markedly different from English RP which is supposed to be the model especially in the area of pronunciation. This feature is seen among even university teachers, media practitioners, the clergy and among university students yet some scholars stress the need for Ghanaians speakers of English to speak like the native speaker of English. This paper therefore uses University of Education, Winneba students as a case study to find out whether this task is achievable.

This paper therefore looks at the pronunciation of Ghanaian students studying English language at the tertiary level of education; students of University of Education, Winneba hence forth UEW and brings to fore some of the features of educated Ghanaian English as a march towards standardisation of Ghanaian English.

One of the most important things the British left us after more than a hundred years of colonisation is, perhaps, their language which has, today, become the world's foremost.

English is, arguably, the most unifying cultural element of our nation, given the fact Ghana is a multilingual country. Dako (1990) asserts that the neutrality of English ensures its ready acceptance by all ethnic groups in the country

Huber (2013) maintains that the Akan dialect (twi) serves as the lingua franca in southern Ghana whilst English Language remains the ‘de facto official language’ since colonial rule.

This observation about Twi assuming a predominant role in Ghana as a lingua franca is evident but it is doubtful if it will ever replace English as our principal official language because Ghanaians will still want to be fully integrated into the globalised village.

What kind of English should the Ghanaian, then, speak? This paper is about the spoken, rather than the written, language since for the latter, many Ghanaians can reach quite a high level of excellence.

Anyone who has gone to school in Ghana is confronted with English as the British speak it. We are supposed to use their spellings, constructions and when we speak, we should aim at the “Received Pronunciation” (RP).

Yet in our experience in the teaching of phonetics and phonology of English, and Spoken English in the University of Education, Winneba, we have observed that students after going through such practical courses designed to enhance their pronunciation or help them achieve a near native-like competence in pronunciation, still backslide and go back to their old ways of pronunciation.

This phenomenon is observed not only among students but also among teachers of English in Ghana as stated by (Owusu-Ansah, 1991, 1997) non-native teachers of English often masquerade as native speakers of English when they are consciously teaching pronunciation to their students, but make a quick switch to their „normal“ localised accent in their day to day use of English outside the classroom.

It is upon this premise that we advocate the acceptability and standardisation of our native variety of the English language especially in the area of pronunciation or spoken English. According to Kortmann & Lunkenheimer (2003) speech communities are diverse, socially and ethnically. It is also factual that the tango between language and culture, especially when they originate differently, leads to a kind of abrasive consequences on either side. The outcomes are always mutual though often lopsided. The product becomes part of the speaker's identity. This, coupled with Ngula (2011) assertion that as far as Ghanaian English is concerned much has not been done in the area of pronunciation so as to come up with enough features to establish this innovative feature of Ghanaian English.

At the secondary school level, attention is given to pronunciation where students take an oral examination paper as part of the core English paper and are expected to do well in it in order to get a good grade and qualify for the university. The question that comes to mind is how do students who stay in Ghana, receive tuition by teachers who also perhaps had all their formal education in Ghana be able to acquire natively like pronunciation and speak just like the native speaker.

This is not to suggest that we are in any way advocating a compromise in spoken English in Ghana. In the words of Bamgbose (1998), there are two criteria non-native varieties ought to meet; maintaining international intelligibility and retaining local identities. Ghanaian English meets these criteria.

The best example of Ghanaian English on the international scene is, perhaps, Kofi Annan's clear diction. The man maintains the Ghanaian features in his pronunciation and yet succeeds in being easily understood by the peoples of the world. Wole Soyinka is an even better example of an African speaking distinctly without aping Americans or the English. His efforts are laudable given the strong influence his native Yoruba has on the pronunciation of English words and the cadence of the language generally.

No matter how hard we try to pronounce English words correctly, there is no way a person born and bred in Ghana will be able to speak like an Englishman. Psychologists have shown that after the critical ages of 13 to 15, a person will not be able to speak another

language as fluently as a native speaker. Unfortunately, it is at this stage that most students see the importance of speaking English fluently.

It is in the light of this that the present paper seeks to add in support of the debate for the standardisation of Ghanaian English and against extremist views as those of Gyasi (1990) who considers the English in Ghana as very ill.

### **The Debate**

The spread of English around the world has led to a number of issues, one of which is the question of ownership: Who owns English? (Kachru, 1992; Widdowson, 1994; Pakir, 1997). This theme has attracted considerable attention in current literature, with some scholars arguing for the ownership to be open to all who use English, either as natives or as non-natives (e.g., Kachru, 1986, 1996, 1997; Owusu-Ansah, 1991, 1992; Bamgbose, 1997, 1998; Chisanga and Kamwangamalu, 1997; Anchimbe, 2007). Others argue that non-native Englishes are essentially manifestations of deficient and inadequate acquisition of the native form, and are therefore illegitimate varieties that cannot claim a standard of their own. Thus they pursue, in various dimensions, the argument that only native speakers can claim ownership of English (Prator, 1968; Hocking, 1974; Quirk, 1985, 1990; Honey, 1997). These scholars think that a common standard in the use of English must be upheld in both Inner Circle countries and those outside the Inner Circle. Prator (1968) considers the non-native varieties as the white man's linguistic burden. Quirk (1985: 6) maintains that tolerance for variation in language use was educationally damaging in Inner Circle countries.

In recent times, there has been a debate among scholars of English language in Ghana about nativisation of the English language. This debate was started by Sey (1973) in his paper titled Ghanaian English: An Exploratory Survey. Sey's work has an error analysis orientation which shows that Sey does not recognise difference and innovativeness in educated Ghanaian English, henceforth GhE as far his work is concerned. He constantly refers to the features of GhE pronunciation as errors and deviant usage. The debate sparked up two groups; the pronativised and the anti-nativised. Among the pronativised are Owusu-Ansah, D'Souza Nngula among others and the anti-nativised group is Sey, Gyasi, Ahulu among others who concern themselves with usage and errors and doubt whether there can be anything as Ghanaian English as reflected in the titles of their papers.

I will attempt to critically examine the works of some these scholars especially in the light of arguments by linguists like Sey (1973), Ahulu (1994), Gyasi(1991), Nimako (2008) and a few others on the one hand, and Owusu-Ansah, Huber and Dako on the other about the existence or otherwise of Ghanaian English (GhE).

In the conclusion to her introductory notes, Dako (2003) makes explicit her intention to provoke a debate on Ghanaian English as already stated such a debate was started with Sey (1973), the joined by Ahulu Gyasi (1991), (1994) Kirby (1998) Owusu-Ansah (1997) and a few others, she stokes the fires with choices of diction which are obvious markers of the Ghanaian variety of English.

Dako's compilation of 'Ghanaianisms' represent a broader volume of what many scholars have pointed out as deviations from British English (BrE). There are about 3000 entries of words and phrases commonly used by educated Ghanaian speakers and writers. Many of the Ghanaianisms are native to Ghana but the larger percentage of about 60 of English origin. As discussed in the introduction, new Englishes are the results of language contact (Owusu-Ansah, 2013).

The biggest controversy with the new Englishes is with the acceptability or otherwise of clear and flagrant aberrations which instead of being corrected become a part of the "new" language (Ahulu, 1995, 1996; Gyasi, 1991). D'Souza (1986) points out that English everywhere gets "marked by the ecology of the contexts in which it is being used". The nagging question is whether errors in usage should be counted as part of the ecological and contextual marks on the language?

Among the entries in Dako's glossary of '*Ghanaianisms*' are words that are obvious aberrations and need to be corrected. Some of them are:

*Attending to treatment* (instead of receiving treatment)

*Bias* (as an adjective or verb, instead of as a noun)

*Borrow me* (instead of lend me)

If Owusu-Ansah's (1996) definition that "Nativisation' in the context of new Englishes is a process of linguistic and sociolinguistic change through which an external language becomes part of the culture of a community that uses it as an additional language..." is anything to go by, then those words and phrases should not be considered as errors to be eradicated.

D'Souza (1986) highlights a claim that English now belongs to the world, hence the native speaker has lost "the sole prerogative to initiate changes and innovations in the language". Therefore, Dako's (2003) compilation reveals the extent to which Ghanaians are using that linguistic prerogative. D'souza (1986) further discusses how the language is made to function in non- native contexts under which it undergoes changes.

Owusu-Ansah(1996) suggests that "the new varieties of English will continue to evolve in the direction of nativisation as more and more speakers in multilingual communities come to use them..." Ghanaianisms, as presented by Dako, attest, to a large extent, to what these linguists have opined.

The Ghanaian community which is multilingual like others in the outer circle takes the language and morphosyntactically and phonologically adapts it to suit its local and cultural contexts

Owusu-Ansah (1996), theorizes that "in order for the non-native culture to make the new language a part of the culture, it must nativise it..." After all what is a language for if not to satisfy one's needs regardless of place and time?

Gyasi cited in Dako (2003) asserts " English in Ghana is very ill. The cancerous tumours are countless: wrong collocation; false concord; poor spelling due to unfamiliarity with the word or to mispronunciation; inability to handle the third person singular in particular in tenses generally; wrong omission or insertion of the articles; misuse of prepositions; errors arising from mother tongue interference, paucity of vocabulary etc."

According to Gyasi, the cancer has spread and is found everywhere: in the English of teachers, journalist, other professionals and also students from secondary school to the university.

Gyasi (1991) in his paper titled, Do Ghanaians have, or even want, a distinctive ‘Ghanaian English’? questions whether there is a variety of English that can be legitimately described as distinctly Ghanaian.

He goes on to say there is nothing like ‘Ghanaian English ‘ if we base our judgement on the occurrence of such errors as equipments; we must voice out our views; I am going and come. Gyasi (ibid) is of the view that when a Ghanaian’s attention is drawn to the above examples as errors, he will not intentionally use them again. He adds strongly that “we should not, therefore, elevate bastardization into the status of legitimacy and call it ‘Ghanaian English.’

Making a case for codification of the new Englishes, D’souza (1986) argues that BrE should not be the “norm-setter” for those in the outer circle, virtually rubbishing the influence of exonormative standards. He therefore suggests that through poetic license, non-native English writers be allowed to expand their Englishes like Shakespeare, Cummings, Hopkins, Joyce and other native speakers dared to. D’souza (1986) states his case rather forcefully:

One cannot lay down boundaries for the creative artist. He may wander where he will and the merits or demerits of his writing must be judged by the standards of literature, not the rules of grammar (p.5)

The words above suggest where our sources of non-native English expressions need be.

Professor Banjo (1996) implores Anglophone West Africa to study “the national varieties of English” to boost networking. This can only be done after codifying these different Englishes. Professor Dako’s glossary of ‘Ghanaianisms’ is a giant leap forward but I suggest it be subjected to more scrutiny even as more attempts are made to enrich it.

Ngula (2011) in his paper spelling pronunciation maintains that spelling pronunciation has become an innovative feature in Ghanaian English not only because of its widespread nature but also because it satisfies two criteria any New English variety ought to meet – maintains international intelligibility and retains local identities. In the paper, he argues for

the establishment of Ghanaian English as a non-native variety but he buttresses this point in his paper *Language Corpora, The Case for Ghanaian English* and suggests that a vital first step towards the development of Ghanaian English (GhE) lies in the initiation of large-scale electronic corpus projects. The paper argues that corpora can go a long way to enhance the linguistic descriptions of GhE, making the features of the variety more visible and providing a good opportunity for its codification.

Kachru (1986, 1992) has already argued strongly about the need for non-native speakers of English to avoid aiming at a close approximation of these native varieties, especially RP. He draws our attention to the fact that these documented native models of English “have no authority of codification from a government or a body of scholars as is the case, for example, with Spanish or French” (Kachru, 1992: 49).

Thus since English does not have “an organized agency which undertakes the job of providing direction toward a *standardized* model, and toward controlling *language change*” (Ibid: 49), linguistic etiquette in English should be discussed in culturally specific contexts; thus English in institutionalised contexts, and the changes that occur in such contexts, for example, need to be looked at in terms of their own socio-cultural and linguistic environment. This paper argues in favour of establishing a Ghanaian variety of the English Language and provides further evidence from Ghanaian English to demonstrate that the non-native varieties, especially Outer Circle countries, can as well claim ownership of English especially in the area of pronunciation where the Ghanaian accent in English is inevitable.

## **Methodology**

### **Corpus Method**

The present study employs a corpus method to derive the data. The corpus method is an empirical approach to linguistic description which relies on actual usage. In the words of Baker (2010: 94), “corpus linguistics is firmly rooted in empirical, inductive forms of analysis, relying on real-world instances of language use...”. Many linguists have defined the term corpus, among whom are (Francis, 1982; Sinclair, 1991; Leech, 1992, McEnery and Wilson, 1996; Baker, 2010, etc), but the different perspectives essentially revolve around the same thing. A corpus is a systematic collection of naturally-occurring language text, chosen to characterise a state or a variety of a language to be used for linguistic analysis (Sinclair,

1991; McEnery and Wilson, 1996). Furthermore, McEnery and Wilson (1996) point out that the corpus method begins with compiling and designing a corpus with which to investigate a topic, and finish with the retrieval, extraction and interpretation of information from the corpus to help the investigator to address his research concerns.

### **The Corpus (Data)**

This study makes use of a spoken corpus. The source of data for the present study was a collection of recorded spoken texts compiled from 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 academic years of UEW students

Specifically, the total size of the corpus was 80 words.

The corpus comprised spoken exercises from three courses; phonetics and phonology of English, Spoken English, and Extensive reading. While a much larger corpus preferably electronic would be more valuable and revealing, the collected corpus was thought to be a good starting point to determine features of spoken English in Ghana as we wait for the larger and electronic one as proposed by Ngula (2011).

### ***Data***

The aim of the present paper was to show that the pronunciation of some English words in Ghana have become unmarked features of the English of educated Ghanaians. To strengthen and confirm this claim, we selected 80 words of English based on observation of their use by students of UEW and also among educated Ghanaians not leaving out university lecturers media practitioners, politicians and members of the clergy. We chose particularly students of UEW first because we feel we, teachers of English are just making a fun of ourselves when we try to teach students such causes as phonetics and phonology of English and spoken English, to achieve natively like or near native-like competence.

Similar causes are taught all over the universities of Ghana. Although some of our data has been collected from usage on the media as all the others who contribute to the data are seen every day on the media, the majority of the data is collected from the classroom because they represent all the others we see on the media; educated Ghanaians. The more reason for the students is to establish the fact that these students have been taught those

causes that are designed to enhance their pronunciation skills not long ago but still right under our noses they backslide. One then wonders what happens to our effort in the lives of these students in the near future. Owusu-Ansah (1991, 1997), for instance, has suggested that non-native teachers of English often masquerade as native speakers of English when they are consciously teaching pronunciation to their students, but make a quick switch to their „normal“ localised accent in their day to day use of English outside the classroom.

In the course of teaching, students were taken through word and sentence drills and it was found that students after being taught these causes still found the pronunciation of some words problematic. They also failed to pronounce some words with the appropriate stress pattern.

Their pronunciation of words and readings were recorded and later transcribed. This has been part of our lesson delivery as we always informed students that whatever we do in class will be recorded and played back so that they get to know of their performance so they can improve and it became normal since it was the practice every day and so students participated naturally without feigning any false attitudes. This enhanced the naturalness of the data.

The corpus was collected within of period of two years from three classes with a total of 55 students each; phonetics and phonology class, spoken English and Extensive Reading class.

Students were given word and sentence drills before and after the courses were taught to find out whether there was an improvement at the end of the cause and so two sets of data were collected and compared to find out the level of improvement in the area of pronunciation.

A vast majority of words were found to be problematic but our attention was drawn more on words in which some speech sounds that are supposed to be silent in English RP are given prominence.

Our attention was also drawn to word stress. A Total of 20 recordings were selected from students with different ethnic backgrounds from each class.

The words that constituted our corpus were the same words heard on the radio and television with the same pronunciation by Ghanaian speakers of English.

The recordings were transferred into the computer through a USB cord to enhance clarity for a better analysis. The entire recording procedure was in line with Crystals (1987) observation that a researcher investigating language needs to record each and every sound. This recording practice is essential as more insights can be gleaned from naturalistic data rather than data collected from controlled settings.

### ***Procedure of Analysis***

The data were analysed by replaying each recordings and transcribing phonetically the words of focus the way they were pronounced. Thus the pronunciations of informants were tested and measured by means of the traditional method of auditory perception. While we are aware of the value and worth of instrumental analysis, which is often thought to be more objective and scientific in the analysis of speech (Roach, 2001), this traditional method proved adequate in determining whether or not the words of focus were similar to English RP or not. The transcriptions were then compared with the RP versions of the words obtained from Daniel Jones“ (1997) English Pronunciation Dictionary. The table below displays the selected words that served as basis for the study and their standard pronunciations (RP).

<b>Table 1: Words of focus and their standard pronunciation (RP) Word</b>	<b>Standard Pronunciation</b>	<b>Word</b>	<b>Standard Pronunciation</b>
plumber	[plʌmə]	tough	[tʌf]
corps	[kɔːz or k kɔːrz]	thumb	[θʌm]
sachet	[sæʃei]	Christmas	krisməs]
hustle	[hʌsl]	Whistle	[wisl]
hasten	[hæsn]	King	[kiŋ]

bustle	[bʌsl]	Combing	[kəmɪŋ]
castle	[kɑ:sl]	Bombing	[bɒmɪŋ]
apostle	[əpɒsl]	Subtle	[sʌtl]
rapport	[ræpɔ:]	Tongue	[tʌŋ]
hounour	[ɔnə]	Example	[ɪgzɑ:mpl]
honesty	[ɔnəsti]	Police	[pəli:s]
honourable	[ɔnərəbl]	Thorough	[θʌrə]
often	[ɔfn]	Women	[wɪmɪn]
listen	[lɪsn]	Oranges	[ɔrɪndʒ]
south	[sauθ]	Culture	[kʌltʃə]
debris	[debrɪz]	Village	[vɪlɪdʒ]
noisy	[nɔɪzi]	Ticket	[tɪkɪt]
vision	[vɪʒn]	Tomb	[tu:m]
double	[dʌbl]	Trouble	[trʌbl]
song	[sɔŋ]	singing	[sɪŋɪŋ]

**Table 2: Words of**

<b>focus and their Educated Ghanaian pronunciation</b>	<b>Educated Ghanaian pronunciation</b>	<b>Word</b>	<b>Educated Ghanaian pronunciation</b>
<b>Word</b>			
plumber	[plʌmbə]	tough	[tʌf]
corps	[kɔps]	thumb	[tʌmb]
sachet	[sæʃet]	Christmas	kristmas]
hustle	[hʌstɪl]	Whistle	[wɪstɪl]
hasten	[hæstɪn]	King	[kɪŋ]
bustle	[bʌstɪl]	Combing	[kəmbɪn]
castle	[kæstɪl]	Bombing	[bɒmbɪn]

apostle	[apɔstɪl]	Subtle	[sʌbtɪl]
rapport	[ræpɔ:]	Tongue	[tɒŋg]
honour	[hɔnə]	Example	[egzæmpl]
honesty	[hɔnəsti]	Police	[pɔli:s]
honourable	[hɔnərəbl]	Thorough	[tɔrɔf]
often	[ɔftɪn]	Women	[wumən]
listen	[listɪn]	Oranges	[ɔrændʒɪs]
south	[sa:f]	Culture	[kɔltʃə]
debris	[debrɪs]	Village	[vɪlɪdʒ]
noisy	[nɔɪsi]	Ticket	[tɪket]
vision	[vɪʃn]	Tomb	[tʌmb]
double	[dɔbl]	Trouble	[trɔbl]
debt	[det]	singing	[sɪŋɪn]

Table 2 displays the Ghanaian pronunciation of the selected words for the study.

The innovative features that characterise the pronunciation of Ghanaian English are vast; including substitution of /a/ for /æ/, /ɑ:/, /ʌ/; absence of the schwa /ə/; replacement of dental fricatives with stops among others. We are concerned however with speech sounds that are not heard in English RP which are heard loud and clear in Ghanaian English and also word stress. We must add quickly that our compilation of these words which constitute the way educated Ghanaians pronounce those words is not to stigmatise Ghanaian English as this paper is not concerned with error analysis. Our attempt is not to determine how deviant Ghanaian constructions depart from standard British English but to add to innovative features of Ghanaian English as in the words of Bamgbose (1998), there are two criteria non-native varieties ought to meet; maintaining international intelligibility and retaining local identities.

As we can see from table 2 the consonant sounds /b/ as in bomb, subtle, plumber /t/ as in hasten, castle, /g/ as in king, tongue, singing /p/ as in corps, prompt are not pronounced in English RP whereas in Ghanaian English they are made prominent.

From the data, some vowels in some words are also pronounced just as they are spelt. Ngula (2011) calls this feature spelling pronunciation /ʌ/ in trouble, won, double become /ɔ/, /I/ in example, exam, ticket has become /e/, the schwa is most often replaced by /ɔ/, and /a/ in most words as police, money about and again respectively. Sey (1973) identifies features of GhE pronunciation such as RP /ə/ becoming /a/.

In the two sets of data that we collected before and after teaching the courses; phonetics and phonology and spoken English, there was no significant improvement upon students' pronunciation on the words selected for the study.

At the verification stage a total number of 20 students were selected and asked to pronounce 10 words which we presented in table 2 and the results are as follows:

words	Number of students that pronounced word correctly	Number of students that pronounced word wrongly
Press corps	12	8
plumbing	14	6
honour	12	8
hasten	8	12
listen	10	10
tough	10	10
won	8	12
culture	14	6
bombing	12	8
combing	14	6

We present the above as markers of our sociolinguistic and cultural identities but not to condemn them simply because they diverge from a foreign standard, RP. While many prescriptive-minded critics would prefer to see the above pronunciation in GhE as errors to be eradicated we see them as innovative feature emerging from non-native speakers in our context; Ghanaian English.

Although from the table, the number of students that got the pronunciation right outnumber the number that got it wrong, Kachru (1986, 1992) has already argued strongly about the need for non-native speakers of English to avoid aiming at a close approximation of these native varieties, especially RP. He draws our attention to the fact that these documented native models of English “have no authority of codification from a government or a body of scholars as is the case, for example, with Spanish or French” (Kachru, 1992: 49).

We now present a table of our word stress of the selected words used for the study

**Table 3: Words of focus and their stress pattern in standard pronunciation**

(RP)	2 <sup>nd</sup> syllable	3 <sup>rd</sup> syllable
1 <sup>st</sup> syllable stressed	stressed	stressed
Photograph	Photography	Photographic
Internet	Comedian	Reproduce
Agriculture	Performance	Demonstration
Matrimony	Facilitate	Afternoon
Educated	Dramatic	Electrician
Capital	Executive	Entertain
fertilizer	impossible	controversial

From our perception of the selected recorded words above produced by students, we realised that every syllable is capable of being stressed in Ghanaian English and in fact all the syllables were produced at equal intervals. This speech pattern is a transfer from Ghanaian speakers into their English speech. Yankson (19) refers to this feature as syllable isochronicity.

According to him most West African languages are syllable-timed; in an utterance the syllables occur at almost equal intervals of time; English is on the other hand, stressed timed. our pronunciation has become fossilised and has become resistant to change. (Selinker, 1972). This feature of stressing every syllable is becoming typical of educated Ghanaian English. This situation occurs because we have already acquired our first language before learning the new one; English and so there is bound to be an influence. Nobody born and brought up in Ghana can speak English with a native accent unless the person makes a conscious effort to go FELA – Foreign Experience Locally Acquired.

This situation leads Owusu-Ansah (1991, 1997) into saying that non-native teachers of English often masquerade as native speakers of English when they are consciously teaching pronunciation to their students, but make a quick switch to their „normal“ localised accent in their day to day use of English outside the classroom.

It has been noted that even graduates of English who have been taught RP by native English lecturers over a period of 3 to 4 years or even more fail to speak English with native-like accent.

The reason is that learning a new language involves some kind of identification on the part of the learner with the members of the new culture; language , it must be known is culture tied.

To speak exactly like native speakers demands a surrender of part of one's identity which most West Africans are not ready to do because of loyalty to their mother-tongue.

The best example of Ghanaian English on the international scene is, perhaps, Kofi Annan, former UN Secretary General's, clear diction. The man maintains the Ghanaian features in his pronunciation and yet is understood by the peoples of the world.

Wolé Soyinka is an even better example of an African speaking distinctly without aping Americans or the English. His efforts are laudable given the strong influence his native Yoruba has on the pronunciation of English words and the cadence of the language generally.

New Englishes are heavily influenced by the first language of the speakers through direct translation and imitation of linguistic norms and speech (Crystal, 2003; Owusu Ansah, 2013)

Achebe, cited in Huber (2013), says 'New English must be able to carry my African experience'

## **Conclusion**

It is argued in this paper that several factors account for this innovative feature of pronunciation in GhE among others have been the gap between spelling and pronunciation in standard British English where there is no one to one correspondence between letter and sound. Unlike the Ghanaian languages in which there is a somewhat one to one correspondence between a sound and its orthography. Language loyalty also accounts for the innovative features.

The fact that language and culture are intertwined has been known and discussed long ago (Drohan and Freeman, 1998). According to Kortmann & Lunkenheimer (2003) speech communities are diverse, socially and ethnically. It is also factual that the tango between language and culture, especially when they originate differently, leads to a kind of abrasive consequences on either side. The outcomes are always mutual though often lopsided. The product becomes part of the speaker's identity.

This paper therefore argues in favour of establishing a Ghanaian variety of the English Language and provides further evidence from Ghanaian English to demonstrate that

the non-native varieties, especially Outer Circle countries, can as well claim ownership of English especially in the area of pronunciation where the Ghanaian accent in English is inevitable.

Certain systematic divergences in this area by educated Ghanaians in their day-to-day use of English as seen in other studies such as Sey (1973), Dako (2003), Owusu-Ansah (1991, 1997) Ngula (2011) attest to the fact that English pronunciation in Ghana has taken a new shape, and needs to assert itself by vigorously pursuing the agenda of developing its own models to guide usage. This paper suggests that since non-native Englishes such as Singaporean English, Indian English, Nigerian English serve the communicative purposes and needs of the people irrespective of even the regional accents in the English of those countries, there is no problem if they own the English language. This way, the non-native varieties can be more realistically described in their own right in terms of localised linguistic, cultural and literary norms (Kachru, 1997).

Making a case for codification of the new Englishes, D'souza (1986) suggests that through poetic license, non-native English writers be allowed to expand their Englishes like Shakespeare, Cummings, Hopkins, Joyce and other native speakers dared to. D'souza (1986) states his case rather forcefully:

One cannot lay down boundaries for the creative artist. He may wander where he will and the merits or demerits of his writing must be judged by the standards of literature, not the rules of grammar (p.5)  
The words above suggest where our sources of non-native English expressions need be.

Kachru, 1992: 49 argues that since English does not have “an organized agency which undertakes the job of providing direction toward a *standardized* model, and toward controlling *language change* linguistic etiquette in English should be discussed in culturally specific contexts; thus English in institutionalised contexts, and the changes that occur in such contexts, for example, need to be looked at in terms of their own socio-cultural and linguistic environment.

We agree with Widdowson (1994: 384) in his view that to own a language means ability “to make it your possession, bend it to your will, assert yourself through it rather than simply submit to dictates of its form”.

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## **Lexical Access in Monolingual, Bilingual and Multilingual Children: A Comparative Study**

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### **Abstract**

The responsibility of deciding which of the activated lexical item needs to be prioritized for further processing is done by lexical selection mechanism. This uncomplicated mechanism is complicated for bilingual and multilingual populations as they face a cognitive challenge during speech processing and production. That is, the words in all the languages begin to get operative to certain extent and may compete for selection. Perhaps because of this complexity, the process involved in case of bilingual and multilingual group has not gained much attention. Hence the present study was conducted aiming to extend research in this area by examining and comparing the lexical access between monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children using picture naming reaction time experiment. 180 subjects participated in this study within the age range 8.6-9 years i.e., 60 monolinguals, 60 bilinguals and 60 multilinguals. The findings indicated faster availability of L1 in monolinguals suggesting that there is experiential difference seen between the monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children in the process of acquisition and language use and also the role of interference from the competing language in bilinguals and multilingual children.

**Key words:** lexical access of children, monolingual, bilingual, bilingual

### **Introduction**

When people acquire new words, they store the newly learnt words in their lexicon for later retrieval. During the language production, the words are retrieved from the speaker's lexicon that matches to their communication intent. So, while desiring to communicate a specific conception, it is first crucial to retrieve the lexical item that matches the target idea. The mechanism through which this is accomplished is commonly called as lexical selection

(Caramazza, 1997; Dell, 1986; Levelt, 1989, 2001; Levelt, Roelofs, & Meyer, 1999). There are many lexical representations that start operating because of the spreading activation from the semantic level to the lexical level. Thus, a selection mechanism is compelled. Therefore, through the spreading activation, the corresponding lexical node is also activated along with the activation of any representation at conceptual level. So in this context, not only the word that correlates with the intended meaning is activated but also the other semantically related words are also activated.

Amongst all the activated words, the responsibility of determining which item needs to be given more consideration for the further processing is controlled by lexical selection mechanism. For example, when picture of cow is given to name, the intended semantic representation COW becomes active, but closely related ones, such as GOAT, FUR, TAIL, MILK etc also become active (Dell, 1986; Caramazza, 1997; Levelt, Roelofs and Meyer, 1999).

So, in almost many regard, it is thought that the along with the target activated semantic representation the corresponding lexical representation is also activated by the spreading action at the lexical level. Thus, the word which has the greater level of activation that in normal is error-free and also equates to the desired meaning is chosen by the lexical selection mechanism.

Applying the lexical selection mechanism in the bilingual speech production situation, the Current models of Bilingual for lexical access particularly presume that the two languages in the bilingual are shared by a same semantic system (De Bot, 1992; Costa, Miozzo & Caramazza, 1999; Green, 1986; 1998; Kroll and Stewart, 1994; Potter, So, von Eckhardt, & Feldman, 1984; Poulisse & Bongaerts, 1994). That is, every semantic/conceptual representation is linked to its correspondent lexical nodes in the other two languages. Even though, few researchers have stated that conceptual representation are language dependent (e.g., Lucy, 1992; Paivio & Desrochers, 1980; Van Hell & De Groot, 1998), the latest hypothesis extensively accepts the notion that, the bilingual group have a distinctive conceptual storage system which is shared by both the languages (Mitchel, 2005).

If the above hypothesis states that the semantic system is shared by both languages in

bilinguals, then the question emerges whether the spreading activation theory in the middle of lexical system and the semantic system also executes regardless of the language programmed for the response. It is acclaimed that the corresponding lexical nodes receives proportionate activation along with the activated semantic representation. If in bilinguals, only the desired language received the spreading activation from the semantic system, then the lexical access in bilinguals would have prosecuted the process similar to the monolingual group. Nevertheless, the most latest postulation states that the semantic system spreads the activation to both the languages in bilingual speaker despite of the language programmed for the response (De Bot, 1992; Green, 1986; Poulisse & Bongaerts, 1994; Poulisse, 1997, Colome, 2001; Costa, Caramazza, & Sebastian-Galles, 2000; Costa, Colome, Gomez, & Sebastian-Galles (2001), De Bot, 1992; Gollan & Kroll, 2001; Hermans, Bongaerts, de Bot, & Schreuder, 1998; Poulisse, 1999). As stated by these theories, parallel activation takes place for both the languages in bilingual irrespective of the language desired for the response. That is to say that the present models believe that there is generalized parallel spreading activation of the both the lexicons in the bilingual speaker. In the same manner, few earlier researchers have proposed (McNamara & Kushnir, 1972; McNamara, Krauthammer, Bolgar, 1968; Penfield and Roberts, 1959) for the existent of a switching device that turns the semantic system on and off intercepting the spreading activation of lexical nodes which do not belong to the desired language in use.

Despite its significance as a universal occurrence, multilingual Lexical representation has not obtained a great importance as a part of research in the field of applied linguistics, psycholinguistics and linguistics. For a long period linguist have tried to explain and describe the manner of how languages work in humans by concentrating on the monolingual group and refused to take notice of bilingual and multilingual speakers. However, Bilinguals recently have been getting a lot of attention by the linguistic, psycholinguistic and applied linguistic researchers since few decades, but, many researchers have failed to go further bilingual group and have restricted their proposals and experimental work to only two languages.

Multilingual Interactive Activation Model (MIA) was developed by Dijkstra, (2003), Dijkstra & van Hell, (2003), by implementing the similar mechanism and architecture that are presumed in the bilingual model to explain the lexical representation in multilinguals.

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Lexical Access in Monolingual, Bilingual and Multilingual Children: A Comparison Study

Still, comparatively less is known regarding the lexical connections between the three or more languages that are learnt by the multilingual group.

The multilingual populations also face a cognitive challenge during speech processing and production. That is, the words in all the languages begin to get operative to certain extent and may compete for selection (e.g., Bajo et al., 2010, Kroll, Bobb, Misra & Guo, 2008). For example when a picture is viewed by a monolingual speaker, the conceptual representation is set into motion followed by the associated lexical and phonological representations prior verbalization. This uncomplicated mechanism becomes more complicated for a bilingual and multilingual, considering that for a given concept greater than one lexical representation is mapped. That is when a bilingual and multilingual speaker names a picture of a 'cat' in one of the language; there is activation of the words in all the languages to some extent, by that making a person to choose the appropriate word for verbalization (Bialystok, 2009; Green 1986, 2003). For example, Presuming that the parallel activation is true, when a Dakhni-Kannada-English multilingual is asked to name the picture of a cat in English, the activation of the Dakhni and Kannada translation word (e.g. /billi/ –cat in Dakhni and /bekku/ –cat in Kannada) corresponding to the target lexical item and is also activated.

Mayhap, considering the complicatedness of understanding the lexical access in speech production, the bilingual and multilingual group has not received much attention regarding how the lexical processes function in these cases.

Comprehending the organization of the lexicon is an enduring psychological and philosophical question. The lexicon, like all psychological representations, cannot be examined directly. Rather, psycholinguists normally investigate the evidence concerning the lexicon by examining the lexical access. There are several methods used in the past to evaluate the lexical access such as priming study, speech errors, verbal fluency and picture naming tasks.

Priming studies shed light on the organization of the lexicon. One word primes another if hearing the first word leads to faster recognition of the second word. Researchers have found that associated words--those that frequently appear together (Meyer & Schvanevelt, 1971). Another important way to assess the lexical access is by assessing

speech production and analyzing the experimental elicited and spontaneous speech errors (e.g. Dell, Juliano, & Govindjee, 1993; Fay & Cutler, 1977; Fromkin, 1971, 1973, 1980; GarcíaAlbea, del Viso, Igoa, 1989; Garrett, 1976, 1980; Martin, Weisberg, & Saffran, 1989; Martin, Gagnon, Schwartz, Dell & Saffran, 1996; Stemberger, 1990). There is a large body of work investigating speech errors (Fromkin, 1973) and the “tip of the tongue” phenomenon (Brown and McNeill, 1966). Analyses of speech errors have revealed that people tend to mix up phonologically similar items (saying bomb square instead of bomb scare) and occasionally semantically related items (oven and fridge, apple and orange), suggesting that the lexicon may be organized either phonologically or semantically, or both. Verbal fluency tasks like Rapid Naming of Animals(RNA) is another way used clinically (Troyer, 2000) with the assumption that the better the person’s ability to access lexical items, the more items the person would be able to name.

However, it has been argued that the above methods such as Priming, speech error analyses and Verbal Fluency have the shortcoming of characterizing the dynamics involved in the process of language production (e.g., Meyer, 1992). Hence the recent research focusing on the speech production has concentrated on the reaction time measure experiment which allows the researcher to test more objectively and help in deriving predictions from the theoretical models. So, the most common paradigm for testing the processes engaged in lexical access using reaction time experiment is the picture naming experiment. Although picture naming is an oversimplification of the processes involved in language production it involves many processes that are engaged in lexical access. While naming a picture, the initial step is to recognize the picture and to choose its corresponding semantic representation (e.g. cat). Throughout this process, along with the activation of the corresponding semantic representation of the picture, the related semantic representations also get activated (e.g. dog). Besides the activation of the conceptual representation, the corresponding lexical nodes within the mental lexicon also gets activated and the speaker needs to select the desired lexical node correlating to the picture amongst all the activated lexical nodes (‘cat’, ‘dog’, ‘mouse’, etc.). As soon as the desired lexical node is chosen, its corresponding phonological segments are retrieved (/c/, /a/, /t/). Further the articulatory routines in consonant to the phonological segments of the chosen word are accessed. The point where the lexical selection takes place is called as the grammatical encoding as it is the time where the grammatical properties of the chosen word are accessed (Bock & Levelt, 1994, Levelt, Roelofs & Meyer,

1999). And the point at which the segmental aspects are accessed is termed as the phonological encoding

There are few researches done on lexical access in bilingual and in multilinguals. The earlier studies done by Bialystok and Craik (2010) investigated the bilingualism effects on cognitive and linguistic performance across the lifespan. The results of their research indicated that speaking two languages routinely had greater implication on the cognitive ability and it also enhanced the executive control functions throughout the lifespan. But the only reported negative effect of being bilingual was on their verbal skill and knowledge especially the vocabularies were smaller and the access to the lexical items was less rapid. Ma'giste (1978) conducted several experiments on bilingual and trilingual group at Stockholm University. The language considered for testing were German and Swedish in Sweden and the trilingual group had migrated with different extent of L1s. The objective of the research was to study the speed of language processing in bilinguals, multilinguals and then to compare their performance with the monolingual group. Decoding (e.g. reading aloud printed words) and encoding tasks (picture naming and naming two digit numbers) were used to assess the performance. Comparing the performance of monolinguals with bilinguals and multilinguals revealed that the multilinguals had significantly longer reaction time for both the languages and especially with the encoding tasks. Even though this study did not give the actual figures, the figures given in the study gave an inference that the multilingual group had almost 200 ms slower processing speed the encoding tasks compared to the other groups. The rationale behind the slower reaction time in trilingual group can be (a) the frequency of usage of two or more languages can be less compared with one and (b) there may be competition between the language systems. The findings of the study substantiate the interdependence hypothesis reported in bilingual storage. In the following research, Ma'giste (1986) reported that the trilingual performance was poorer in the many parts of the Raven Matrices and also they were slower in bilingual Stroop tests in both German and Swedish languages. The above findings at least hint that there may be a cost to be paid for learning another language.

In Indian language context, there are several studies concentrated on the lexical semantic relationship in bilinguals. Iyer (2006) studied the lexical access and processing in monolingual English and bilingual Hindi-English adult speakers. Online picture naming task and word reading task were used to assess the lexical access. The performances of these two

tasks were compared between the monolingual English speaking group and the bilingual Hindi-English speaking group. Results were discussed aiming the issues related to lexical processing, language development and processing. Altogether, the findings suggested that the lexical task performance improved with age. Additionally, predictor-outcome relationships were mostly homogeneous for both bilingual and monolingual groups. The age at which the language was acquired played an important predictor for both word reading and picture naming behavior in both monolinguals and bilinguals. There was effect of frequency in bilingual languages for the word reading task along with differences in orthographic interacting with the effect of frequency.

Ramakrishna and Prema (2008) study the semantic and lexical organization in bilinguals by Comparing between the monolingual Kannada and bilingual Kannada speaking children using the repeated word association task to see the organizational abilities in monolingual and bilingual children. Bilingual children showed greater number of paradigmatic responses even at the age of 6 years whereas the monolingual children shift from the syntagmatic to paradigmatic responses occurred at later stage and stabilized at 8 years.

The majority of studies till date have concentrated on lexical access in monolinguals and bilinguals. Because of limited number of research have been conducted on trilinguals or multilinguals and comparison of performance between monolingual, bilingual and multilingual groups, the consequences of speaking more than two languages on Lexical access remain poorly understood. In Indian context, there are several studies which are concentrated on bilinguals and there is scarcity of studies concerning the Lexical access related to multi-ligulas. Hence the present study was conducted aiming to extend research in this area by examining and comparing the lexical access between monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children. The objectives of the study were to compare the performance between the monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children and to compare the reaction time for picture naming task across the groups.

## **Method**

## **Participants**

Total of 180 subjects participated in this study within the age range 8.6-9 years. The subjects were divided into three groups in this present study. Group 'A' constituted 60 monolingual, group 'B' included 60 bilingual children and group 'C' had 60 multilingual children. All the subjects were students. All were native Dakhni (L1) speakers. The monolingual group had Dakhni as their mother tongue, having Urdu as their medium of instruction. The bilingual group, had Dakhni as their first language in the early childhood and started with the acquisition of their second language, Kannada (L2) by the age of three years i.e., in their preschool period. The medium of instruction was in Kannada (L2). The Multilingual group had Dakhni (L1) as their mother tongue and having both Kannada (L2) and English (L3) as the language spoken at school. All the multilingual speakers had Dakhni as their first language in the early childhood and started with the acquisition of their second language and third language, Kannada and English by the age of three years i.e., in their preschool period. All the participant's performance in the school was average or above average as per the school records and teachers. They all had normal hearing sensitivity, intelligence and behavior as per the screening report of qualified Speech and Language Pathologists and Audiologists. All were from Middle socio-economic status. Next, to gather information about their language use and proficiency level, second language proficiency using International Second Language Proficiency Rating Scale (Wylie & Ingram, 2006) was administered. ISLPR was used to assess the second language proficiency in both bilinguals and multilinguals. For Monolingual children group, Proficiency 0+ Formulaic Proficiency (Able to perform in every limited capacity within the most immediate, predictable areas of need, using essentially formulaic language) in second language was considered as Monolinguals for the study. For Bilingual and Multilingual children rating of 2+ indicating proficiency of language for formal and informal communication was considered for the study. In the multilingual group, for the third language proficiency assessment, A language history questionnaire (Gullberg and Indefrey (2003), was administered to assess participants' language history.

## **Procedure**

### **Task**

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Picture naming task was conducted in the present study. Picture naming task investigates the processes involved in lexical access is by examining the mechanisms engaged in naming a picture. Although picture naming is an oversimplification of the processes involved in language production it involves many processes that are engaged in lexical access. (Costa, Colomé and Caramazza, 2000).

### **Stimuli**

The picture naming task included 50 pictures of the nouns from ten categories. Each category had five nouns as stimulus. An additional 5 pictures was used as practice items. The pictures was presented using laptop preprogrammed using DMDX to analyze the accuracy and latency of the response time to name the pictures was calculated.

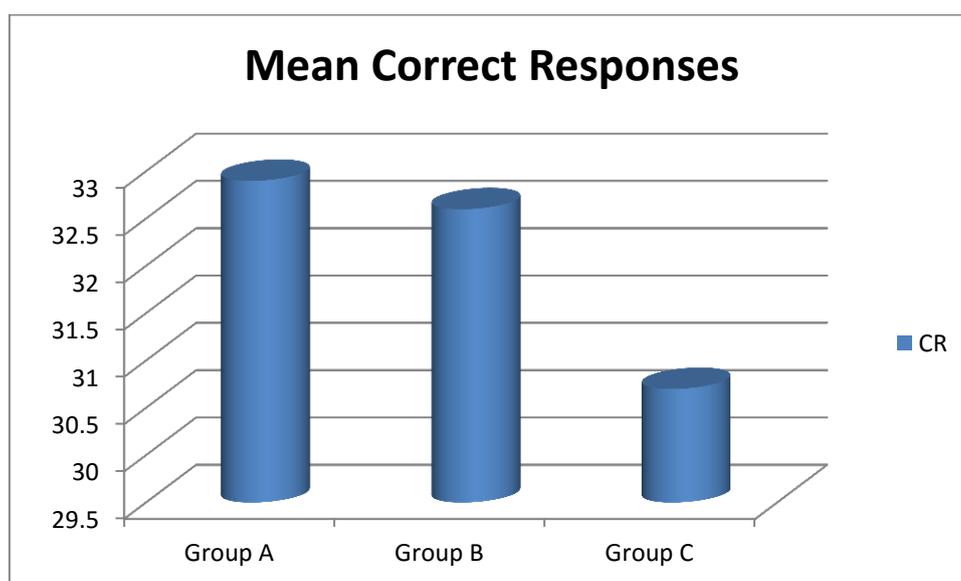
### **Testing**

The participants were individually tested. Instructions were given by the researcher verbally in their first language. The instructions were as follows' ""You will be presented with set of pictures one by one. You are required to name the pictures as fast as possible". Each participant was seated in front of a computer screen at a distance of 2 feet and was instructed to name lists of pictures in their L1. Before the experimental lists began, each participant was given practice trails as training session. This practice trial had lists of picture similar to the experimental lists. The list of pictures were structured as follows: (i) a picture was presented at the centre of the screen on a white background for 2500 milliseconds; this was followed by blank interval of 500 milliseconds (iii) the participants were instructed to name the pictures in their L1 into the microphone. The entire testing of picture naming task was carried out in a single sitting. The responses of the subjects were measured on two parameters, namely, accuracy and latency. A response was considered accurate when it is same as that of the target word. Each accurate response was assigned one point. Thus the maximum score that a subject can obtain is fifty. A total number of such accurate responses for each subject were calculated and total number of accurate responses for each group was obtained. The duration between the end of the investigator's stimulus and the end of the subject's response was considered as the latency of that response and was measured in seconds. The latencies were measured only for accurate responses. The latency measurement was done using DMDX software. Total latency (in seconds) for each subject was calculated.

## Results

**Table 1: Mean Correct Responses for Monolingual, Bilingual and Multilingual groups.**

GROUPS	N	Mean Correct Response	SD
Monolingual	60	32.9	7.3
Bilingual	60	32.6	6.1
Multilingual	60	30.7	5.3

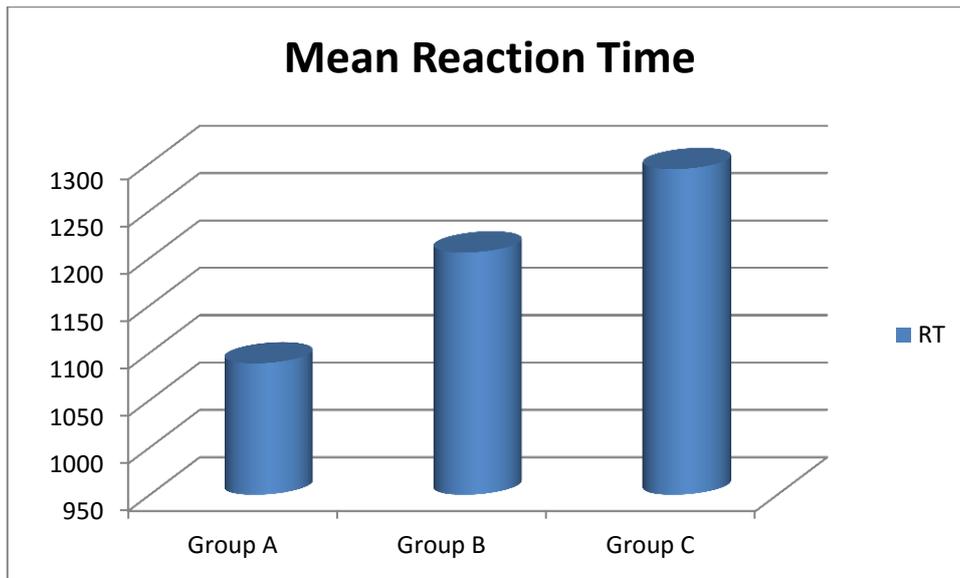


**Fig 1: Performance Comparison between Monolinguals, Bilinguals and Multilinguals.**

The picture naming task across the three groups was compared using the paired sample 't' test. The analysis was performed on condition means for correct and validly named responses. The mean correct responses were extracted. The mean Correct Response (CR) for Picture Naming task for monolingual, bilingual and multilingual groups was 32.9, 32.6 and 30.7 respectively. The study of the scores indicates that the monolingual group performed better than bilingual group followed by multilingual group for the picture naming task, however, the MANOVA results indicated that there was no significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) difference between group 'A', Group 'B' and Group 'C' for the mean correct responses. The mean and standard deviation scores of this task are depicted in Table 1 and Figure 1.

**Table 2: Mean Reaction (msecs) Time for Monolingual, Bilingual and Multilingual groups.**

GROUPS	N	Mean Reaction Time	SD
Monolingual	60	1088.7	181.6
Bilingual	60	1205.8	99.0
Multilingual	60	1293.8	219.4



**Fig 2: Mean Reaction Time (msecs) between Monolinguals, Bilinguals and Multilinguals.**

The mean Reaction Time (RT) for picture naming task for monolingual, bilingual and multilingual groups was 1088.7 ms, 1205.8 ms and 1293.8 ms respectively. This indicates that the participants of Group 'A' named picture faster compared to Group 'B' compared to Group 'C'. Further, the MANOVA results indicated that there was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) difference between group 'A', Group 'B' and Group 'C' for the mean reaction time i.e., Group 'A' performed significantly better than the Group 'B' and followed by Group 'C'. The mean and standard deviation scores for this task are shown in Table 2 and Figure 2.

## Discussion

In this present study we conducted picture naming task on monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children to study the accuracy and speed of lexical access. Picture naming task

was incorporated in this study as it allows testing more specific prediction and it is a popular paradigm to study the lexical access. The results of the study revealed that, both accuracy and the speed of lexical access was better for monolinguals compared to the bilingual and multilingual children, however, for accuracy task the difference between the groups were not significant but the speed scores between the groups were significantly different. Several explanations for these differences between monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children may be proposed. The difference in the accuracy may be attributed to the experiential difference in the language use and the process of language acquisition. For example, multilingual and bilingual children may experience certain items in particular circumstances wherein only one language may be used consistently to name that particular item, hence the number of words used in that specific language decreases.

There can be two more main hypotheses that can be proposed. One is the **weaker links hypothesis**, that states that, the poorer access observed in bilinguals and multilinguals can be attributed to the variation in the degree of the associative links between the concept and the words used, i.e., in monolinguals the exposure is more compared to the bilinguals and multilinguals in a specific language (Gollan, Montoya, Cera, & Sandoval, 2008). In contrary, the **competition hypothesis** states that, the bilinguals and multilinguals require an effortful processing to retrieve words from a specific language as they need to suppress the inhibitory interference caused by the competing languages (Dijkstra, 2005; Green, 1998).

The later hypotheses suggests that the bilingual and multilingual group need to exert more of inhibitory mechanism in order to suppress the activation of other related semantic items when asked to name a desired item. That is, the words in all the languages begins to get operative to certain extent and may compete for selection (e.g., Bajo et al., 2010, Kroll, Bobb, Misra & Guo, 2008) which implies that cognitive control mechanisms must be at work to control this cross-language activation. Some researchers have argued that inhibitory control may serve the role of suppressing the non-target words and help in accessing the target word. (e.g., Costa, Santesteban & Ivanova, 2006; Green, 1998).

The current findings are in consonant with the earlier results by comparing the reaction time and accuracy in picture naming task between monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children. Similar findings have been reported in bilingual studies by Kohnert &

Bates, (2002) and Ivanova & Costa, (2008) who reported that bilingual adult and children exhibited slower reaction time and poor accuracy for picture naming task even while naming the pictures in first language. They attributed their findings suggesting, that our processing mechanism may have built a rhythm to process in L1 and thereby the language processing in a language in which the elements are retrieved slower and hence it becomes available later (Franceschini et al., 2006). Additionally, it was propounded that in our system there is a ‘different drummer’ that controls the processing speed based on the availability of the elements. So, these findings suggest that as monolinguals are exposed to greater frequency to a particular language compared to the bilingual and multilingual group, therefore, the availability of the elements in L1 are faster or easily accessed in monolingual group compared to bilingual and multilingual.

## **Conclusion**

The study aimed at comparing the lexical access between monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children. The objectives of the study were to compare the performance between the monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children and to compare the reaction time for picture naming task across the groups. Results indicated both accuracy and the speed of lexical access were better and faster for monolinguals compared to the bilingual and multilingual children. These findings indicated that faster availability of L1 in monolinguals suggesting that there is experiential difference seen between the monolingual, bilingual and multilingual children in the process of acquisition and language use and also there is role of inhibit interference from the competing language in bilinguals and multilingual children.

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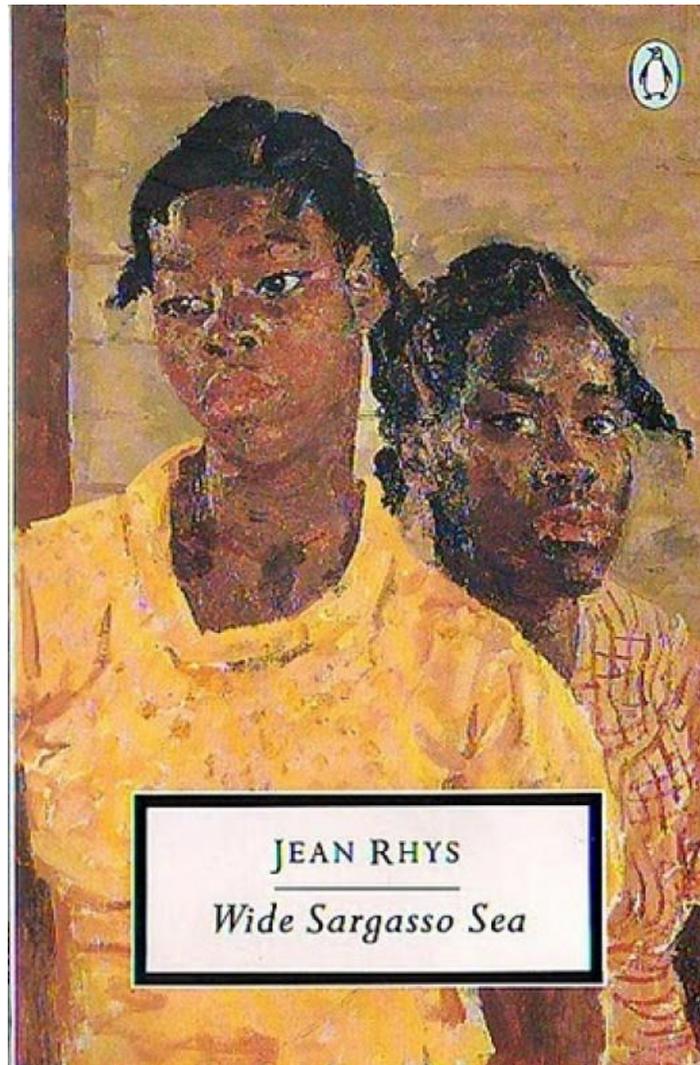
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Jean Rhy's Controversial Post Colonial Text *Wide Sargasso Sea*  
Implicitly Agrees with and Elucidates the Colonial Project

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**Abstract**

The aim of this paper is to discover how the author Jean Rhy's controversial post colonial text *Wide Sargasso Sea* has been elucidated how it agreed with the colonial project through her

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protagonist Antoinette. The embedded colonial spirit has been stretched to its full strength also in this so called post colonial text. Jean Rhy's attempt was to raise the voice against the colonizers (Charlotte Bronte's *Jane Eyre* and give the proper right and reverence to the colonized other (Charlotte Bronte's character Bertha Mason) through her own strong and rebellious character Antoinette in the text *Wide Sargasso Sea*.

The works of the Nineteenth century British novelists were predominantly the depiction of superiority throughout their texts. Charlotte Bronte's *Jane Eyre* was one of them. In this novel the character Jane Eyre was presented as a disciplined, modest, and pure English woman. While on the other hand, Bronte portrayed Bertha Mason as a mad Creole woman who was savage, mad and an indisciplined character. After this British novel which was based on Englishness, Jean Rhys' *Wide Sargasso Sea* described as a post colonial text where she actually tried to proclaim that Bertha Mason will no longer be a mad Creole woman but a strong white negress or a white creole. If the readers would make an attempt to sink inside of Jean Rhys' ideologies regarding the Englishness, they will be astonished to know her acceptance of Englishness through her character of Antoinette.

To analyse the importance of English attributes through the colonizer (*Jane Eyre*) and the colonized body (*Wide Sargasso Sea*), the controversial elements will clearly be traced out in Jean Rhys' *Wide Sargasso Sea*. While Bronte's text has been constructed the definition of Englishness by juxtaposing English characters against the colonial other, and Rhys' text took an attempt to fight against Bronte's cultural hierarchy while simultaneously did collude with the colonial project. This is how the text of *Wide Sargasso Sea* and the character of Antoinette became fashioned and attached with the superiority of Englishness trying to adopt the English touch in every step of her life throughout the novel.

**Keywords:** Post colonialism, Colonial project, Englishness, Colonizer, Colonized other, white English girl, Creolized West Indian woman

## Introduction

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In the novel *Jane Eyre*, Charlotte Bronte did depict the Creole woman Bertha Mason as inferior and helpless in front of Jane Eyre. While in *Wide Sargasso Sea* Jean Rhys created a counterpoint through her strong and rebellious character of Antoinette. Therefore, she did try hard to give an answer back to the colonial text *Jane Eyre*. Inside of the novel *Wide Sargasso Sea*, the main protagonist (Antoinette) was certainly the bearer of post colonialism's flag. But unfortunately, the superiority and desirability of Englishness has been found to be an effective impact even on this post colonial text and proved that Englishness certainly prevailed over all and remained as superior among the standards of ideals in all eras.

Jean Rhys' *Wide Sargasso Sea* sailed over the river of narratives with her inner anguish towards British imperialism. Her characters were taken on the ideologies to imbibe English attributes, but continuously did fall short. Though *Wide Sargasso Sea* was considered the Creole answer to Bronte's English text, which she did generate the subtle understanding of post colonialism through the double minded character Antoinette. In one sense she was utterly a rebellious soul and did fight against the English, while on the other hands, she was trying to fix herself as perfect as an English girl. From her appearance to her food habits, in everything she gave concentration and wanted to be an ideal English woman.

Rhys's main goal was to resist the superiority of English attitudes found in *Jane Eyre* by engaging in what Homi Bhabha described as colonial mimicry. Her novel basically acted like the prequel for *Jane Eyre*, and also endorsed the marks of mimicking it in style and genre. She even made Antoinette almost as similar to Jane in regard to her religious matters, education, isolation in society and loss of childhood friends. As Rhys attempted to put an effort to show the smashing attitudes of the creolized woman, though implicitly she has made the strong tie with the British colonial project. Hence her novel *Wide Sargasso Sea* became ensnared by the provocative Englishness, simultaneously colluding with the very ideas she was trying so hard to resist.

By depicting Antoinette as constantly trying to distinguish herself from the blacks on the island, making herself appear more white, more European, more English, Rhys presented her character and internalized the cultural hierarchy that values Englishness above all else.

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Antoinette's interactions with various racial and ethnic groups of island were both unsettled and also re-enacted many of the common structures of English superiority, bringing into question whether the novel *Wide Sargasso Sea* can even be considered as post colonial text at all or not, when the entire promise of the novel was not simply a reaction to the English imperial narrative.

Using Bhabha, I have intended to look at *Wide Sargasso Sea* as a controversial post colonial text and also I have the intention to discern about what extent the novel illustrated the controversial post colonialism and how this novel has gone to shake its hands with the colonial project. Antoinette's madness in *Wide Sargasso Sea* also became complicated by this reading of Englishness, as it proposed the idea that Antoinette's madness was the result of a colonial identity crisis and her frustration was not being able to fit within the narrow constructs of English superiority versus her sexual and social subordination by the male. Hence it has proved that Antoinette's endeavour to become an English woman eventually perished the spirit of post colonialism.

### **Jean Rhys' Implicit Acceptance of Englishness as a Post Colonial Writer**

Jean Rhys' post-colonial answer to *Jane Eyre* was complicated because of her ideological contradictions regarding the superiority of English attributes. The contradictions within Rhys' work was nothing but confusion which has made by her and thus she also instilled the controversial ideologies in her novel *Wide Sargasso Sea*. Rhys wrote from her very own experience and said that she discovered the peculiarly smug attitude of the British colonizers and started to think that she was in some way inferior and if she said that she was an English, they at once contradicted her or implied a contradiction. Their concepts were mocking and depressing towards her. They actually treated her as an inferior being. Rhys' mother said that colonials aren't ladies and gentlemen, and so on. Rhys remarked in exasperate manner "All right then I'm not English as a matter of fact, I'm not a bit. I'd much rather be French or Spanish. They'd get even more amazed at that. I was a traitor. You're British they'd say neither one thing nor the other. Heads you win, tails I lose and I never liked their voices any better than they liked mine". Rhys did not possess the ability to claim a solid national identity which has clearly been reflected

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both in her depiction of Antoinette as a hybrid character and the implicit contradictions which was found within her discussion of Englishness.

### **Jean Rhys' Ambiguous Presentation of Post Colonialism in Relation to Homi Bhaba's Theory**

In *Wide Sargasso Sea*, Rhys did fight against the bombardment of Englishness using what Homi Bhabha used the terms “colonial mimicry”. Mimicry is when someone tries to copy someone else in some way and the result can become almost ridiculous: “a subject of a difference that is almost the same, but not quite” (Bhabha 122). Here in the novel *Wide Sargasso Sea* Jean Rhys tried to copy the English people through her protagonist Antoinette which means to collude with the colonial project by using black characters as props to the Creole identity, just as Bronte used the Creole as a prop to the English identity. In this way implicitly Rhys gave influence her protagonist Antoinette as the follower of British colonial project through all of her activities in her life throughout the novel *Wide Sargasso Sea*. Rhys exhibited the social hierarchy, which the British imperialism imposed upon the West Indies by displaying Antoinette's constant attempts to achieve Englishness. So here in the post colonial text we are able to see the West Indian protagonist's urge to take the Englishness with great seriousness. It seems they have been able to spell bound the colonial subjects who were under their subjugation. From the beginning of the novel Rhys depicted Antoinette as a person who was really forfeited in the issue of a sense of belonging, due to a destructive racism that separated her socially from the Caribbean black population and epistemologically from the European white population. Although Antoinette enjoyed behaving like an English girl, also habituated of eating traditional English beef and mutton. Therefore she acknowledged that it was only a facade, since she truly craved Christophine's spicy West Indian cooking. It is to be noted that Antoinette was trying to be like an English girl but she actually could not because of her impure Englishness. She was not a pure English woman. Antoinette's aberration from English tastes that signified her physical and cultural differences from the domestic English body, as the Creole food she has chosen to ingest which symbolized her Creole otherness. Mr. Mason from his part did not understand Antoinette and her mother's alterity, and attempted to claim them for English elite while both are self-admittedly “so without a doubt not English” (Rhys, 16).

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To be like an English woman for Antoinette and her mother was utterly impossible compared to the inherited English people. And they did realize that, to celebrate the dominant codes of Englishness will not be possible, since the pure Englishness got attached to the English race and genealogy, which endorsed wholly by society, while in their blood there was the presence of trail through inherited Englishness. Thus the justification of Antoinette's inability to claim Englishness was absolutely credible. Besides this issue, Antoinette's improbable claim of Englishness laid in her family's lack of wealth. For the black inhabitants of Jamaica, whiteness was associated with the wealthy planter class. So, because Antoinette could not properly perform her whiteness, she could not claim Englishness. Hence it is to be noted that Rhys really wanted to prove her protagonist as a pure English woman.

### **To Present the Disagreement against the Superior Englishness, Jean Rhys' fell into Dire difficulty of Portraying the Black people as more Powerful than the White People**

In the novel *Wide Sargasso Sea* Rhys tried to show the power of the black negros as more than the white British or white negros. One of the characters is Tia, who was the Jamaican girl, to whom Antoinette tried to befriend. Tia pointed out the incongruity in Antoinette's social status when she says,

“Real white people, they got gold money. Old times white people nothing but white nigger now, and black nigger better than white nigger”. (Rhys, 8)

When Tia referred to “old time white people” she was referring to former slave owners whose familiarity with and involvement in the slave trade, creolized them morally and biologically estranged them from their English brethren. That means the former slave owners were no longer friendly. Antoinette's physical appearance also played a big role in her inability to claim her Englishness. The main obstacle was considered to be her skin color which was ambiguous. While some literary critics assumed Antoinette was a white Creole because of Rochester's comments about her ability to pass as English at times. Bronte's text described her as having darkened skin and appearing almost purple to Jane. Bertha/Antoinette's racial ambiguity created an issue of banishment from an English identity. As Bronte gave the

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description of having darkened skin associated her with blackness, the antithesis of English whiteness. For Britain, blackness was associated with the colonial slaves and their violent uprising in the West Indies against the white English imperial power. The colonial slave's violence against the colonizer, which made Antoinette emphatically un-English. Somehow Rhys wanted to prove her protagonist Antoinette as a pure English woman which was totally against the rule of post colonialism. However, as Rhys showed that Antoinette cannot be truly English, she actually did create some major problems and eventually failed to give the proper answer to Bronte's novel. Bronte presented Bertha's otherness as the reflection of Jane's Englishness.

In *Wide Sargasso Sea*, Rhys changed the name of Bertha and made her name as Antoinette who was supposed to fight against the colonial anarchy. But the question of colonial mimicry came forward when the post colonial text could not present the original theory of post-colonialism, rather it got the plan to merge with the enticing gait of colonialism. The questions of colonial mimicry became prominent and thus moved forward, because of the diametric opposition of the two female characters who were supposed to be called as colonial other. In *Jane Eyre* Bertha was totally stranded and neglected in front of Jane Eyre, while on the other hands, in *Wide Sargasso Sea*, Antoinette was portrayed as a rebellious, strong character who was performing her activities against the colonial power and their people. But the main twist happened when Rhys portrayed Antoinette as a fanatic applicant to adopt the Englishness. Homi Bhabha stated that, the act of colonial mimicry consists of a desire for a reformed, recognizable other, as a subject of difference that is almost the same, but not quite. Which is to say that the discourse of mimicry is constructed around an ambivalence; in order to be effective, mimicry must produce its slippage, its excess and its difference. Thus colonial mimicry reveals the ambivalence of racial markers and the arbitrariness of cultural hierarchy. In the scene in *Wide Sargasso Sea* where the black slave set fire to Coulibri, Rhys has re-enacted the famous scene of Bertha who was setting fire to Thornfield in *Jane Eyre*. By mimicking this scene of colonial violence, in this way Rhys presented Antoinette a victim of the colonial other. Such a comparison which has made the scenario of post colonial spirit become unstable and upsetting. Jean Rhys should not have created Antoinette the victim of colonial project, and instead of that

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Antoinette's existence should be decorated with the name of unceasing victory over the inherited Englishness of white people.

### **Rhys Elucidates the False Reasoning Regarding the English hierarchy by undermining Rochester.**

The rapturous moments proved as superior as like the attributes of English people. In their lives, they used to follow the superlative activities that made them superior than the inferior black race. In the British novel *Jane Eyre*, we have seen some absolute English characters. It seems, from God they have been gifted by the personalities of pride and their English inheritance. The bearer of Englishness, Mr. Rochester has was seen as a character of mimicry when he did praise Antoinette and remarked that she could be a pretty English girl. Rochester noticed how Antoinette might have been any pretty English girl- "looked like an imitation of an English summer house". (Rhys, 40). Again the concept of Rochester's English disgust became prominent when he commented that Antoinette and Amelie were resembled to each other and could be considered as the menacing concept for British Imperialism.

These kinds of observations by Rochester fuel the upcoming dangers of colonial mimicry. His thoughts of putting the sense of resemblance between the Creole other and the English race completely undermine the authenticity of Englishness. This kind of subversive ideology regarding the English attributes was a threat to the British and their imperialism. Rhys has been exposed the false reasoning regarding the English hierarchy by undermining Rochester. She tried to present Rochester as a man who did share his qualities with Daniel Cosway, Antoinette's biracial alleged half-brother. Rhys has gone so far as to show that, Rochester betrayed his Englishness by undermining the power of Englishness after sleeping with the black servant Amelie and actively partaking in miscegenation.

### **Rhys's notion of Underscoring the Unique Qualities of Antoinette as a Creolized woman**

Unfortunately Rhys took Antoinette as the colonial other and made her as the English subordinate. she also consciously or unconsciously did collude with the Colonial project by showing that, Antoinette's ideologies regarding the black's existence was treated as an issue of the inferior race. Antoinette displayed the fear of miscegenation when she saw a black servant

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kissed her mother. She then moved forward for the further explanation about her disgust at the black servant and showed her anger upon Christophine, calling and rebuking her. She remarked her as, “damned black evil from hell”. (Rhys, 86)

After seeing Christophine with the black man, Antoinette demonstrated that “racial dyad of white and black is always there in the back of her mind, always structuring and warping conceptions and relations, even her relationship with Christophine. In the scene where Antoinette is chased by the biracial boy on her way to school, she describes her horror at the child’s hybrid features, he had white skin, a dull ugly white face covered with freckles, his mouth was a negro mouth, worst, most horrible of all, his hair was crinkled, a negro’s hair, but bright red and his eyebrows and eye lashes were red”. (Rhys, 26)

Another fear of black appearance became visible when Antoinette encountered the biracial boy and it was proved that in her character there were some major impacts from colonial attitudes. Thus it also proved the theory of colonial mimicry as she took the boy to be almost a white boy, but actually he was not the same like the real white boys. Here in this way Antoinette showed her disgust at the physical evidence of miscegenation. On the other hands the concept of Rochester’s English disgust became prominent when he had commented that Antoinette and Amelie resembled each other and could be related. Antoinette’s attempts to break out of her displaced role of the “other” and establish herself within one cultural group, and therefore resisted without any pause. When Antoinette attempted to assimilate with the black population in Jamaica, tried to make friendship with Tia and attempted to speak the patois, her complete assimilation was prevented by both Tia and Rochester; when Coulibri was burned down and Antoinette ran to join her friend Tia, Tia threw a rock at Antoinette’s face signaling Antoinette’s rejection by the black community.

### **Antoinette’s Urge to Involve Herself Among the English Community that Makes Her Life Stranded and therefore rejects her from the Black Community**

For showing Antoinette’s strong position among the group of English people, Rhys made up the mind of Rochester like a superior English man even in the post colonial text *Wide Sargasso Sea*. When Rochester considered Antoinette as not belonging to the blacks as she was

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now the wife of an Englishman declared his disapproval with her speaking patios with Christophine along with her hugging and kissing the black servants openly. Thus, Antoinette's own English prejudices, along with Tia's rejection and Rochester's chastisement compelled her to negate her existence with the black community, while her birth and availability with the former slaves did preclude her connection with the English community.

In *Jane Eyre* Rochester asserted that it was Bertha's sexual matters which was contaminated. So it is to be noted that in *Jane Eyre* Rochester was fully in disgust with Bertha, a colonial other. He remarked, "excesses that had prematurely developed the germs of insanity", (Bronte, 345) while in *Wide Sargasso sea*, Rochester considered Antoinette as one among the English community. Here lies the dilemma of Antoinette's character, she neither belongs to the black community nor she can adjust with the English community. Rhys thus portrayed the madness of Antoinette only to prove herself rebellious against the English society. But Rhys failed to depict Antoinette in the light of post colonialism. This issue of Antoinette proved that her madness was the result of trying to fit within the narrow confines of Englishness.

As Seodial Denna pointed out, "Antoinette is a victim of colonization, one of the purest forms of cultural destruction and mass human denigration. Even the British colonizers suffered from a loss of cultural identity as they where creolized and rejected by their British relations. Antoinette has alluded to this when she and Mr. Mason discuss how Cora's husband's family refused to help the Cosways because of their involvement with slavery. Antoinette's attempts to present herself as English was frustrated by the nature of her position as a Creole, on the boundary of Englishness and otherness being different yet inherently similar to Rochester on the basis of fundamental reasons". Eric Johnson discusses this dichotomy about inclusion and exclusion of the inferior groups within the canon of Englishness. She remarked,

"Rhys is careful to show how the history of colonialism operates in such a way that Creole characters never achieve the same sense of national or even geographical identity that the English characters posses. Antoinette exists in an imperial system which simultaneously forces her to submit to the British nation

state's domestic, legal and cultural practices, yet refuses to view her as anything more than a distant imperial subject never domestically English”.

She was rejected by the Jamaican black community, and while her label as the ‘other’ then it has been problematized, she is still denied her Englishness, Antoinette has addressed her own lack of identity when she got reflected on a song about a white cockroach:

“That’s me. That’s what they call all of us who were here before their own people in Africa sold them to the slave traders. And I’ve heard English woman call us white niggers. So between you and I often wonder who I am and where is my country and where do I belong and why was I ever born at all. (Rhys, 63)

### **Jean Rhys’s description of the Superiority of Englishness through the Character of Rochester**

As a colonial writer Bronte has achieved the success to uphold the superior traits of English people through her novel *Jane Eyre* which was authentic and justified according to the theory of colonialism. But on the other hands, Rhys demonstrated the English’s superiority again even while she belonged to the post colonial writer’s group. She actually done the unauthentic thing. She described the self-importance and superiority by having Rochester constantly compare the West Indies and its inhabitants to England. Rhys exhibited that, it was Rochester for whom England was clearly the norm or standard against which everything else should be measured. From the beginning of Rochester’s staying in Jamaica, he was doing comparison between the West Indies and English practices, at what time dinner was served, how the house was looking, and how his wife Antoinette interacted with the servants. Perhaps he was showing his dominance over the Granbois same as his dominance which remained in Thornfield, his ancestral house in *Wide Sargasso Sea*. Rochester’s innate Englishness was proved through his susceptibility to colonial disease. In *Jane Eyre* Bronte depicted Jane’s fears of colonial contamination when she did attempt to present some negative ideas concerning travel to India. This issue could be related simultaneously to the character of Rochester in *Wide Sargasso sea*, when he caught a fever immediately upon his arrival in Jamaica.

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“His healthy English body can not withstand the colonial contagion represented by the West Indies and he feels wretched from the affliction for two weeks (Rhys, 44).

Again for the digestion of food Rhys expressed the English man’s fear of Creole foods.

“Just as Antoinette’s otherness and bodily contamination can be seen by her desire and ability to ingest Creole food, Rochester’s Englishness can be seen through his inability to ingest substances that are coded as belonging to the colonial other. In the scene where Antoinette puts one of Christophine’s patios made of West Indian ingredients, in Rochester’s wine he becomes physically sick to the point of thinking himself poisoned”. (Rhys, 88)

Here its so clear that, Rochester’s pure English body has been affected by the colonial contagion and his moral and cultural superiority was confirmed in his deep inward feelings about such contamination. Bronte was justified in showing the Englishness of Rochester in her novel *Jane Eyre*, but for Rhys to uphold the concept of the superior Englishness of a English man like Rochester, in *Wide Sargasso Sea* was not pertinent. Rochester refused to accept anything that deviates from his English norms and ideals, justifying his emotional suppression:

“It was necessary, I was told, and that view I have always accepted. If these mountains challenge me, or Baptiste’s face, or Antoinette’s eyes, they are mistaken, melodramatic, unreal”. (Rhys, 63)

Throughout the novel *Wide Sargasso Sea*, Rochester made the proper relationship of himself to his English self by establishing his moral and physical differences that are accepted as the examples of English national identity. He was terrified by the physical signs of a different race when he did encounter Denial Cosway: “A tall fine Englishman like you, you don’t want to touch a little tallow rat like meeh?” (Rhys, 79)

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Rochester attempted to overcome this threat to English identity with his own marriage when he has decide to remove Antoinette from Granbois and her cousin Sandi. Another reason was to take this decision when Daniel Cosway insinuated an affair between Antoinette and her bi-racial cousin. Antoinette confessed her relationship and remarked that, “we had often kissed before but not like that. That was the life and death kiss and you only know a long time afterwards what it is, the life and death kiss”. (Rhys, 123)

After bringing Antoinette to England, Rochester felt that, he got the ultimate success as he did restrict Antoinette from sexual activity to the domain of the patriarchal family. Therefore, Rochester thought he did prevent the possible birth and infiltration of Antoinette and Sandi’s bi-racial bastard into the patriarchal home and established the codes of Englishness. Here it can be said that, Antoinette was imprisoned with the hands of colonialism, since she has listened to what Rochester ordered her to do.

## Conclusion

To sum up, it can be said that, Jean Rhys' depiction of post colonial zeal through her novel *Wide Sargasso Sea* was absolutely controversial. She was supposed to present the strong and independent position of the creolized community and has actually planned to ignore the English traits. But somehow in her novel she expressed her inferiority through her character Antoinette’s urge to adopt the Englishness. Eventually Rhys and her novel both were simultaneously colluded with the colonial project.

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## **Analysis of Verbal Perseveration in Subcortical Aphasics**

**Girija P.C., M.Sc. Speech & Hearing**  
**Sreeshma E.R., MASLP**  
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### **Abstract**

**Aim:** The present study aims to profile and compare the nature and frequency of verbal perseveratory characteristics in the speech of subcortical aphasics and normal elderly population.

**Materials and Method:** A total of 60 participants of 2 groups (native Malayalam speakers) in the age range of 40 – 80 years were included in the current study. Group I included 30 subcortical aphasics of basal ganglia lesion. Control group (group II) consisted of normal 30 elderly populations. Items of the tasks were selected from three standardized tests. Ten black and white pictures selected from Peabody picture vocabulary test (PPVT) for picture naming task and for defining functional task, ten words from Weschler's adult intelligence scale - WAIS (Weschler 1955) were selected for word defining task, four pictures depicting real life scenes were selected from Binet- Kamat test (Kamat 1963) for picture description task. For answering the question task, a short Malayalam story was given. Participants were instructed to answer five questions related to the story followed by narration. The tasks were analyzed individually and score of '0' was given if perseverations were absent, a score of '1' was given if perseverations were present. The number of utterances expressed by the subjects on each individual task was calculated. The total number of utterances was then obtained by combining all the number of utterances expressed by one group on one particular task. Similarly, total number of perseverations was calculated. The obtained data were subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS software and independent t – test was done to compare scores obtained across group.

**Results and Discussion:** The results from the present study reveals, when frequency of occurrence of verbal perseveration errors across groups were compared there was a significant

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difference between subcortical aphasics and normals ( $p < 0.05$ ). Results of the comparison of frequency of occurrence of verbal perseveration errors across group in each tasks showed a significant difference between groups. Group I exhibited more perseverative errors in picture naming task compared to normal. This could be probably due to picture naming tasks require activation of thalamus and basal ganglia. When three types of perseveration in each groups were analyzed, it was found that occurrence of recurrent type perseveration was more in subcortical aphasics. Stuck in set type perseveration were absent in both the groups. The current literature support the present findings recurrent perseveration is associated with damage to the left temporal and parietal regions and also to the people with aphasia following subcortical damage.

**Key Words:** Subcortical aphasia, Perseverative errors.

## **Introduction**

Language is an important tool for communication. Most of the communication problems in adults are acquired which may be present after some kinds of brain damage, mental illness or dementia. Benson and Ardila (1996), defined that “aphasia is an impairment of language, affecting the production or comprehension of speech and the ability to read or write”. **Robin and Schienberg** (1990) claimed that subcortical lesions can also give rise to aphasic symptoms.

Nadeau et al, (1997) reported that subcortical aphasia can be caused by ischemic strokes, less often by intracerebral hemorrhages. Bradly, Daroff, Fenichel and Jankovic (2004) reported that there are mainly two major types of aphasic symptoms: aphasia with thalamic lesions, aphasia with lesions of subcortical white matter and basal ganglia. Left thalamic lesion resulting in aphasia is characterized by a relatively consistent clinical picture of a fluent expressive speech marked by verbal paraphasias and neologisms. Repetitions skills are spared and auditory and reading comprehension remains at relatively high levels. Other characteristics observed by researchers are reduced vocal volume, lack of spontaneity in oral expression, and word finding deficits with frequent perseveration.

Subcortical aphasia associated with basal ganglia lesions have been classified by anatomic sites. Lesion in specific anatomical site is associated with a particular set of speech and

language symptoms. According to Krishner (1995) the head of the caudate nucleus, anterior limb of internal capsule, and anterior putamen are the most generally noticed lesion sites causing aphasia. Damage to these areas leads to the anterior subcortical aphasic syndrome. It is characterized by dysarthria, paraphasias and decreased fluency but has a longer phrase length than in Broca's aphasia.

Following stroke or brain injury, aphasic patients commonly exhibit a range of errors in spontaneous speech and in tasks requiring a verbal response. Perseveration is one of the most captivating error types for language researchers. Buckingham & Christman (2004) reported that slowed decay rates from recent activation and weakened weight connections between levels would lead to perseveration of words as well as phonemes. Gotts, Rocchetta and Cipolotti (2002) defined perseveration as "the inappropriate repetition or continuation of a previous utterance or response when a different response is expected". In Halpern's (1965) view verbal perseveration as a "manifestation of the perseverating tendency generally described as an inappropriate repetition or reiteration of a previous verbal response". In aphasia, subcortical aphasia and normal elderly population perseveration can result in communication breakdown. This is due to changes in prefrontal cortex (shrinkage of the prefrontal cortex) and white matter which in turn could have contributed to the alterations in working memory, delayed memory and executive function.

Wepman (1972) believed that perseveration was the result of not taking enough time to consolidate and combine a response. He recommended that the mind acts like a camera shutter. Stimulation is possible only when the shutter is open. When the shutter is closed, processing of new information is impossible and thus accessing for a new response will result in perseveration. Subcortical aphasics show errors in tasks requiring a verbal response and in spontaneous speech. Gotts, Rocchetta and Cipolotti (2002) defined "perseveration as the inappropriate repetition or continuation of a previous utterance or response when a different response is expected". Albert and Sandson (1986) classified verbal perseverative errors into one of three major categories: continuous, stuck-in-set, or recurrent. Most researchers have stated that, between 50 and 90% of errors on verbal tasks made by patients with aphasia (regardless of type of aphasia) are perseverative.

Albert and Sandson (1986) reported that with respect to speech and language deficits, most forms of verbal perseverative errors could be classified into one of three major categories: continuous, stuck-in-set, or recurrent. According to Sandson and Albert (1984), “continuous” perseveration is defined as “the inappropriate prolongation or continuation of a response beyond the point of completion and without interruption by any intervening event.” “stuck-in- set” perseveration is “the inappropriate maintenance of a framework of response after introduction of a new task.” “Recurrent” perseveration is the “inappropriate occurrence of part, or all, of a previous response after a different intervening stimulus, response, or both.”

**Table 1:** Types of perseveration according to Sandson and Albert (1987)

<b>Types of perseveration</b>	<b>Motoric description</b>	<b>Area of brain involved</b>
Continuous	Abnormal repetition of a response token without cessation Stimulus: “name this picture” (of a dog) Response: “dog dog dog dog”	Damage to thalamus, arcuate fasciculus and deep nuclei of subcortical structures right hemisphere damage norepinephrine depletion
Stuck-in-set	Inappropriate maintenance of a response type even though task demands have changed Stimulus: “now point to the picture of the dog”	Left frontal lobe & mesolimbic frontal damage Dopamine depletion
Recurrent	Repetition of a previous response token to a subsequent stimulus within an established task set(has pointed to dog and book) Stimulus: “now point to the picture of the table” Response: points to the “dog”.	Posterior left hemisphere damage. Left temporal/ parietal damage Acetylcholine depletion

Dell, Burger and Svec (1997) based on the model of serial order and interactive spreading activation theory of language production postulated that verbal perseverations are due to some disruption of the activation of a present anticipated utterance. When the current targets vulnerably co- occurs with the persisting activation of past utterance result in perseveration.

Perseverative response is common in disorders of speech and language. Many research findings showed that, between 50 to 90% of errors on verbal tasks exhibited by patients with aphasia (regardless of type of aphasia) are perseverative. These errors are commonly seen in the

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speech of patients with senile dementia of the Alzheimer's type, schizophrenia, subcortical dementia and vocal tics of Tourette's syndrome and in patients with traumatic brain injury.

Literature suggests that verbal perseveration is an age related task specific phenomenon and that would be useful indicator of changes in the language characteristics of normal elderly population and individuals with brain damage. Garstecki (1981), reported that aging can lead to minor frustrations or as severe handicaps in the elderly. Verbal perseveration is one such behaviour frequently seen in the aging population. According to Goldstein (1916), the patients inability to make quick changes in attitude with a shift from one performance to another will result in perseverative behavior.

A study was done in twenty four Tamil speaking older individuals by Chandralekha and Prema (2001). Participants were divided into four groups across the age range of 60-80years. Five language tasks used were picture naming, picture description, defining words, defining function and question. The results revealed that remarkable verbal perseveration is seen in geriatrics (3.6% in 75-80 year old group) and that it increases with age in normal individuals. The type of perseveration which was most frequently observed was continuous compared to other types and this was equally present in phonological, semantic and syntactic aspects of language. There was no age and gender difference in the perseveratory characteristics.

Ramage et al (1999) conducted a study on 'frequency of perseveration in normal subjects'. The aim of the study was to document the extent of perseveration in normal young and older subjects 30 young normal individuals between the ages of 20 and 35 years and 30 older normal individuals between the ages of 60 and 75 years were given 4 tasks on which perseveration has been reported in brain damaged individuals. Perseverative responses were seen in 4% of all responses. There was no age or gender effects seen in frequency.

Emery and Helm-Estabrooks (1960) have done a study to determine the extent to which confrontation naming performance is influenced by perseverative behavior. Results revealed that all the 30 subjects exhibited perseverative behavior on the visual confrontation naming subtest. . Helmick and Berg (1976) suggested nine tasks for eliciting perseveration which were as follows, design construction, naming and reversing of a series, naming and describing the function of sited objects, answering questions, defining words, describing a picture, writing sentences and

the letter, drawing designs from memory, drawing geometrical shapes and writing names following verbal instructions. Gotts et al, (2002) reported that repeated presentation of stimuli increased perseverative responses. This could be due to the fact that, If an item is presented several times, its residual activity rests at a higher level, making it easier to respond to but also allowing it to override weekly activated targets.

### **Need for the Study**

From the literature review it is clear that there is a lack of objective data concerning existence and frequency of verbal perseveration in subcortical aphasics in Indian context especially in individuals who are native speakers of Malayalam. The study of verbal perseveratory behaviors in the subcortical brain damaged individuals would help us to screen and evaluate the effects of subcortical lesion on language which will help in planning intervention programme.

### **Aim**

The present study aimed to profile the frequency of verbal perseveratory characteristics in the speech of subcortical aphasics and normal elderly population. The present study also purports to compare the perseveratory characteristics of normal elderly population and individuals with subcortical aphasics using five tasks (picture naming, defining function, defining words, picture description and answering question).

### **Objectives**

- 1) To find out and compare the total frequency of verbal perseveration in subcortical aphasics and normal elderly population.
- 2) Compare the frequency of verbal perseveration across group in each task.
- 3) Compare the total percentage frequency of three types of verbal perseveration between groups irrespective of tasks.

### **Method**

#### ***Participants***

A total of sixty participants (native Malayalam speakers) in the age range 40 – 80 years were included in the current study. They were basically categorized into two groups. Group I

included 30 individuals with subcortical aphasia with basal ganglia lesion. They were selected from various hospitals and speech and hearing clinics and were diagnosed by neurologist. Control group (group II) included 30 normal elderly populations. All the participants were physically fit to do the different tasks like picture naming, picture description, defining function, defining words and answering questions. They had no significant vision and hearing deficits.

### ***Test materials***

The nature of perseveration of both experimental group and control group were assessed using the following tasks: picture naming, description of function, defining words, describing the picture, answering questions. Items of the tasks were selected from three standardized tests such as Peabody picture vocabulary test (PPVT) (Dunn, 1965), Binet- Kamat test (BKT) (Kamat 1963), Weschler's adult intelligence scale (WAIS) (Weschler 1955).

The pictures used in this picture naming task were adopted from Peabody picture vocabulary test (PPVT). This task consists of 10 pictures. The participants were instructed to name the pictures, which were presented one at a time. The pictures used for picture naming task was also used in defining the function task. Participants were instructed to describe ten black and white pictures which were presented one at a time. The words used for defining words task were taken from Weschler's adult intelligence scale Wais. The participants were instructed to define words which were presented by instructor verbally one at a time. Total of 10 words were presented and repeated instructions were given whenever the participants failed to understand the word. Picture stimuli used for describing the picture task were taken from Binet-Kamat test. It consists of four pictures depicting various real life scenes. The subjects were instructed to describe those pictures in an elaborate way. For answering the question task, a short Malayalam story from a fifth grade text was used. First the clinician narrated the story to the subjects. A total of five questions related to the story were asked to them. The subjects were instructed to answer these questions.

In order to find out the efficacy of test material developed, a pilot study was done on five, normal Malayalam speakers of age range 40-80 years old and found that all the selected tasks were appropriate for all normal individuals.

### ***Procedure***

Formal informed consent was obtained from the family members of the participant's, prior to the testing. Medical records of the subjects were reviewed and detailed information about each subject was obtained after interviewing the subject and family members. An informal hearing screening task was done to monitor the presence of any peripheral loss.

The participants (group I & group II) were made to sit comfortably in a quiet room. Prior to the testing rapport was built with the participants and then the testing was initiated. Before administration of test materials (picture naming, defining function, defining words, picture description and answering question), the participants were suitably instructed and in addition, they were given a demonstration whenever required or possible. The tasks (picture naming, defining function, defining words, picture description and answering question) were administered in a systematic manner. General prompts and feedback were provided by the investigator to encourage the participants to respond appropriately. The stimulus was repeated when the subject failed to understand it in the first attempt. The duration of administering each participant varied.

The responses of all subjects in each task were audio recorded. Later these responses were transcribed verbatim using broad phonetic transcription. Investigator analyzed the transcribed samples for the type and frequency of perseveration. The tasks were analyzed individually. If perseverations were absent, a score of '0' was given, and if perseverations were present, a score of '1' was given for each perseveratory utterance. The analyzed data for the groups (group I & group II) were tabulated on a scoring sheet. The number of utterances expressed by the subjects on each individual task was calculated. The total number utterances were then obtained by combining all the number of utterances expressed by one group on one

particular task. The same was done for the other group. Similarly, total number of perseverations was calculated. This was then converted to percentage for each task by the following formulae:

$$\frac{\text{Total number of perseveration}}{\text{Total number of utterances}} \times 100$$

The obtained data were tabulated across task and was subjected to statistical analysis. The statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS software. Mean and standard deviation were obtained for each group. Independent t test was done to compare scores obtained across group.

## **Results and Discussion**

The data was tabulated and appropriate statistical evaluations were done for the five tasks and frequencies of errors were than compared. For each participant the raw score were converted to percentage scores for each task and type of error. These data were then subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS 17. Mean (M), and standard deviation (SD) scores were obtained. Variations in results were compared between groups, across error types, and across different tasks.

### ***Quantitative analysis of perseverative errors:***

Percentage of scores for different tasks was analyzed and the measures were subjected to quantitative statistical analysis.

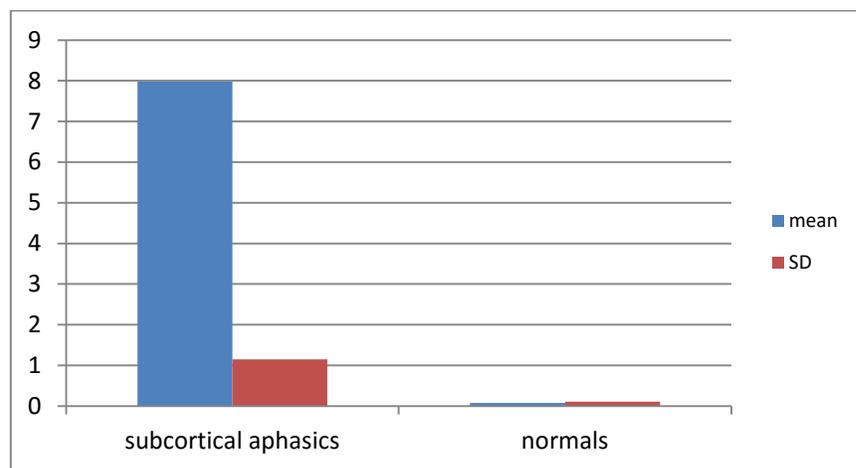
#### ***1) Comparison of overall frequency of verbal perseveration in subcortical aphasics and normal elderly population***

Two groups were compared for the overall frequency of perseverative errors. For each individual total percentage of errors were calculated by adding scores of all tasks. For all the variables mean and standard deviation were calculated. Table 1 provides the mean and standard deviation values for three groups.

**Table 2:** Mean and standard deviation (SD) of total verbal perseveration of subcortical aphasics and normal elderly population

Group (n=30)	Total error	Mean	SD
Subcortical Aphasics	39.40	8.4	1.15
Normals	0.52	0.09	0.12

The percentages of total errors were calculated. From the table 2 it is clear that subcortical aphasics group had greater perseveration than normal elderly population. This clearly portrays that while considering the total verbal perseveration irrespective of different type of perseveration and different task, the subcortical group (experimental group I) exhibited more verbal perseverations errors while the normal group exhibited the least.



**Figure 1:** Graphical representation of mean and standard deviation of verbal perseveration between two groups

Mean scores obtained for subcortical aphasics (experimental group I) in the present study were supported by the findings of Vilkki (1989), who reported that verbal perseverations can occur in subcortical aphasia. According to her view verbal perseveration in subcortical aphasics could be due to interference in the subcortical pathway in close proximity with the caudate nucleus. This can lead to inappropriate dysinhibition of caudate nucleus, which in turn leads to increased inhibition of globus pallidus. Inappropriate disinhibition of globus pallidus can result in increased excitation of cortex which may lead to the release of poorly monitored language for

motor programming which will manifest as verbal perseverations in individuals with subcortical lesion. Results of the present study are in consonance with the findings of Fabro (1999). He reported that aphasia due to basal ganglia lesion develop symptoms such as reduce voice volume, foreign accent syndrome, verbal perseveration and agrammatism. Crossan (1992) also reported that non fluent language disturbances like perseverations can be seen in fronto – caudate lesions.

Mean score of normal elderly population is 0.09. Results of the present study reveal that normals had least perseveration when compared to other two groups. Raz et al (1998) suggested that verbal perseveration can be seen even in normal elderly population. This age related increases in verbal perseveration can be due to the shrinkage of the prefrontal cortex. Ramage, Bayles, Helm Estabrooks and Crus's (1999), also obtained similar findings, i.e., 4% of the total responses made by 60 normal subjects were perseverative.

Independent t- test was done to compare the significant difference between the experimental groups (group I) and control group (group II). There was a significant difference between total verbal perseveration between two groups ( $p < 0.05$ ). Similar findings were observed by Ramage et.al. (1999), and they concluded that in normal aged individuals the frequency of perseveration was less (4%) and a significant difference existed between normal elderly individuals and individuals with brain damage in terms of verbal perseveration.

Hence the conclusion of the present study is that interference in the subcortical pathway may also leads to verbal perseveration. So the present study suggests that verbal perseveration is the predominant feature subcortical lesion also. Based on the above findings also can be stated that shrinkage of the prefrontal cortex may leads to verbal perseveration in normals.

## **2) Comparison of frequency of verbal perseveration across group in each task**

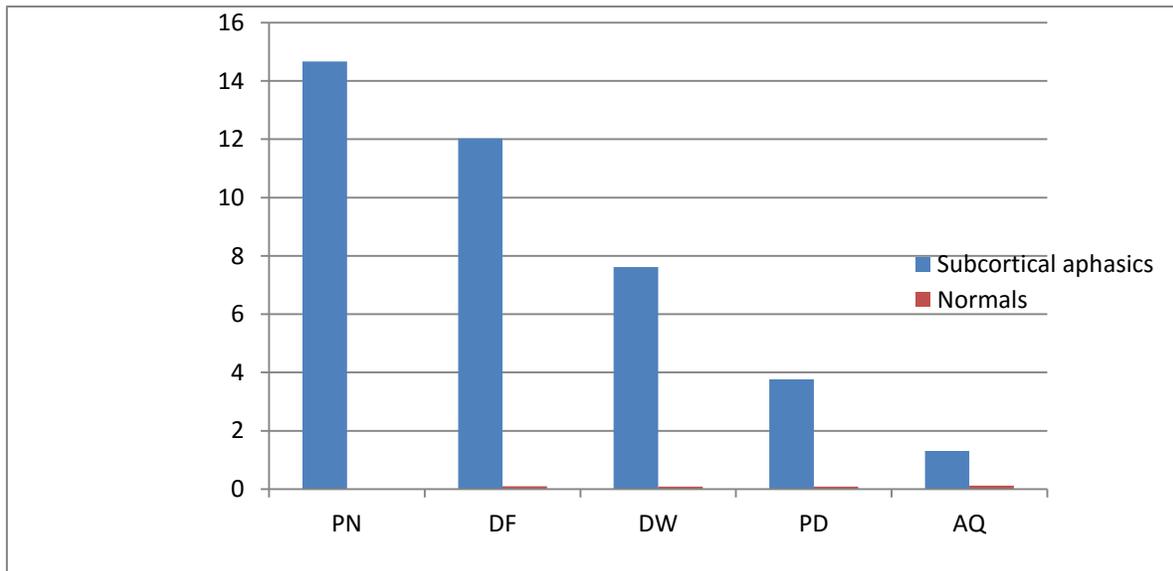
As verbal perseveration between two groups was found to be significantly different, the analysis was further done to find whether there was any significant difference between the groups in five tasks individually. The following tasks were considered for analysis; picture naming, defining function, defining words, picture description and answering question.

For each individual, frequency of errors was found out for each task. This was compared across the groups for each task. The mean and standard deviation of three groups for five tasks are given in table 3.

**Table 3:** Mean and standard deviation of frequency of errors for subcortical and normal groups in five tasks

Group	TASKS									
	Picture naming		Defining function		Defining words		Picture description		Answering questions	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Subcortical	14.67	7.54	12.03	3.12	7.62	1.74	3.76	0.62	1.37	0.23
Normals	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.33	0.10	0.33	0.11	0.33	0.11	0.33

**Figure 2:** Graphical representation of mean and standard deviation of frequency of errors for subcortical and normal groups in five tasks



PN- Picture naming, DF- Defining function, DW- Defining words, PD- Picture description, AQ- Answering questions

Table 2 shows that, in picture naming task, the mean of subcortical group was 14.67. Normal's had no verbal perseveration in this task. Levelt et al (2003) reported that the picture naming task involves different stages like (1) activation of conceptual information (e.g.: lexical semantics) which is localized to left midsegment of middle temporal gyrus. (2) Phonologic word

form retrieval (e.g.: phonologic output lexicon) which is responsible to the left posterior superior and middle temporal gyri (Wernicke's area) and left thalamus. (3) Phonologic encoding (e.g.: delineation of appropriate syllabification and stress) which is localized to the left posterior inferior frontal gyrus (broca's area) and the mid superior temporal gyrus. (4) Phonetic encoding and articulation which is localized to the primary motor and sensory areas bilaterally. So it can be concluded that verbal perseveration may be the result of weakened activation of a target stimulus at any level of these language processing stages.

In *picture naming task* subcortical group (experimental group II) exhibited more amount of verbal perseveration. This could be due to the changes in their neuroanatomical structures. According to Elghozi et al (1975) subcortical structures constantly regulate the activation of hemisphere. Hence lesion to subcortical structures can result in language difficulties like semantic paraphasia, verbal perseveration and reduction in verbal fluency. The present findings is in consistent with the findings of Brunner et al (1982), where they found a strong correlation between verbal perseveration in naming scores and extent of the subcortical lesions in individuals with basal ganglia lesion combined with cortical lesion. Price et al (1996) stated the verbal perseveration in language tasks like picture naming and word repetition showed activation of thalamus and basal ganglia.

Normal elderly population did not exhibit any verbal perseveration in picture naming task because picture naming requires less effort in this population. Bayles et al (2004) suggested that only two processes were involved in picture naming task – picture recognition and name retrieval. As the stimulus of the items remains visible they provide a perceptual additional cue for the lexicon retrieval from memory. These cues offer the increased activation in the semantic system and reduce the stress on working memory during the retrieval. In the current study, this could be the reason for absent verbal perseveration in picture naming task for normal elderly population.

In *defining function task*, subcortical aphasic group also exhibited some amount of verbal perseveration. Disruption in subcortical structures can damage the lexical semantic function. So results of the current study correlate with the findings of Nedeau (1997). Who reported that

disruption in the pulvinar and lateral posterior nuclei may impair selection of specific neuronal networks in the projection field of these nuclei that serve as the substrate for lexical–semantic function. Normal elderly population exhibited better performance in defining function task. Raz et al (1998) in their findings showed that frontal lobe play an important role in executive functioning; in addition, frontal brain structures are especially sensitive to the effects of age. So the decline in the defining function skills can be correlated with neuroanatomical changes in normal elderly population.

In *defining words task*, subcortical group presented some amount of perseveration. This could be due to the poor performance in linguistic expression of participants. Normals exhibited better performance in this task because as the age increases there will be a decrease in the cognitive abilities. Raz (2000) reported that cognitive changes can be due to changes in prefrontal cortex and white matter which intern could have contributed to the alterations in executive function, working memory, delayed memory etc. So in the current study also age related decline in memory tasks could be attributed to changes in these brain structures.

In *picture description task*, the mean score obtained for subcortical group was 3.76. Nadeau (1997) reported that spontaneous language disturbances can result from basal ganglia lesion. So the results of the present study can be attributed to the above findings. The mean score obtained for normal individuals in picture naming task could be due to the tendency of normal elderly population to use repeated utterances when encouraged to speak more.

In *answering question task*, subcortical aphasic group had very less verbal perseveration in answering question task compared to other tasks. This is because of their limited linguistic expression, much verbal perseveration could not be observed. Findings of the present study are consistent with the reports of Crossan (1992). He reported that basal ganglia lesions may lead to reduction of spontaneous speech. Normal elderly population obtained a mean value of 0.68 in answering question task because as age increases there is a decline in the memory skills. Head et al (2009) reported that age related increase in perseveration is completely accounted for by declines in processing speed and temporal processing, deficits in working memory mediated by decreased prefrontal cortical volume, and the indirect influence of prefrontally-mediated declines

in inhibition via working memory. This indicates that verbal perseverative errors in normal elderly population for answering question task can be correlated with the memory deficits.

Independent t test was done to compare the significant difference between the experimental groups (group I and II). Results of the test are shown in the table 3

**Table 3:** Results of independent t test

<b>Task</b>	<b>Sig (p)</b>
Picture naming	0.000
Defining function	0.002
Defining words	0.002
Picture description	0.006
Answering question	0.012

From the table 3 it is clear that there was a significant difference between both the groups ( $p < 0.05$ ) for all the tasks. This implied that these tasks were good predictor of perseveration .to find which group was significant different from each other.

### ***3) Comparison of total percentage of three types of perseveration between groups irrespective of tasks***

The groups were compared for overall verbal perseveration. This was computed by summing up the individual types of perseveration present in all tasks between three groups. Then mean and standard deviation of this was tabulated in the table 4 below.

**Table 4:** Comparison of total percentage of three types of perseveration between groups irrespective of tasks

	Subcortical Aphasics			Normals		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
C	30	9.50	0.42	30	0.31	0.51
R	30	29.90	0.56	30	0.11	0.34
S	30	0.00	1.23	30	0.00	0.00

\*\*C-continuous perseveration, R-recurrent perseveration, S- stuck in set perseveration

From the above given table it can be seen that the mean value of continuous perseveration in subcortical aphasics and normal groups were 9.50 and 0.31 respectively. For recurrent perseveration subcortical group had a mean of 29.90 and normal group had a mean of 0.11. Stuck in set type of perseveration were absent in both groups.

Group I exhibited recurrent perseveration followed by continuous type of perseveration. However stuck in set type of perseveration was absent in subcortical group. Sandson and Albert (1984), in their findings suggested that continuous perseveration is present in persons with damage to basal ganglia. According to Moses, Nickels & Sheard (2004) recurrent perseveration is associated with damage to the left temporal and parietal regions and also to the people with aphasia following subcortical damage. So the results of the present study are in agreement with the above mentioned studies.

The mean percentage of control group (normals) revealed that continuous perseveration was more in this group followed by recurrent type of perseveration. But there was no stuck in set type of perseveration is observed in this group. There were reports of significant percentage of continuous type of perseveration compared to other type of verbal perseveration in normal elderly Tamil speaking population in the study by the Chandrlekha and Prema (2001) and Mukundhan and Prema (2003). Preethi and Goswami (2008) identified continuous and recurrent type errors in normal Malayalam speaking elderly population. Hence the result of the present study is in agreement with the above studies.

Independent t test was done to compare the significant difference between the group I & II results of the test are shown below

**Table 5:** Result of Independent t test of three types of errors between subcortical and normal groups.

Type of errors	Sig (p)
C	0.000
R	0.001
S	0.240

C-continuous perseveration, R-recurrent perseveration, S- stuck in set perseveration

From the above table it is clear that there was a significant difference between the groups in continuous and recurrent type perseveration. But there was no significant difference between the groups in stuck in set type perseveration.

So it can be concluded that verbal perseveration, especially continuous, recurrent and stuck in set perseveration appears to be the coexisting symptom of aphasia. Subcortical aphasics showed more recurrent perseveration followed by continuous perseveration. There was a total absence of stuck in set perseveration in subcortical and normal elderly population.

Albert and Sandson (1986) suggested that verbal perseveration has been associated with abnormalities of language function in a variety of neurological states. Verbal perseveration influences language in aphasia and normal aging and it is an integral part of language dysfunction. Damage to the subcortical region produces aphasia which is milder and less long lasting than cortical aphasias. So it can be concluded that frequency of occurrence of verbal perseverations observed in the subcortical aphasics is less.

### **Summary and Conclusion**

The present study was aimed to investigate the frequency and nature of verbal perseveration in the speech of individuals with subcortical aphasia and normal elderly population. The objective of the study included, to find the presence of verbal perseveration in subcortical and normal elderly population, quantitatively analyze the frequency of verbal perseveration in subcortical and normal elderly population, to compare and analyze the task wise perseverations obtained across group, and compare and analyze the type of perseveration obtained.

Previous studies revealed that perseveration is a clinical manifestation in persons with brain damage. Most studies done in normal aging population have concluded that verbal perseverations are present in lesser frequencies as compared to the pathological conditions. Thus, frequency of verbal perseverations was found to be as significant measure to differentiate between normal elders and brain damaged populations. Verbal perseverations have been categorized into three main types. They are continuous, recurrent, and stuck in set. These types vary in their manifestation, site of lesion, mechanism exhibited and type of brain damage. Perseverations were studied in aphasic populations and findings revealed greater frequency of perseveration. Different tasks have been adopted to elicit different types of perseveration. Limited studies have been conducted to study the nature of verbal perseveration in individuals with subcortical aphasics and the nature and amount of verbal perseveration between the two groups

Hence the current study was taken up to investigate the nature and frequency of verbal perseveration in individuals with Malayalam speaking subcortical aphasics and normal elderly population by using different tasks. The present study consists of 30 persons with subcortical aphasia and 30 normal elderly populations. They were matched with age, education, and handedness. Tasks included in the current study were picture naming, defining function, defining words, picture description, and answering questions. Types of verbal perseverations considered for the present study were continuous, recurrent and stuck in set.

Percentage scores for each individual were tabulated and appropriate statistical analysis was done. Mean and standard deviations were computed across task and type of verbal perseveration between subcortical aphasics and normal elderly population. In order to compare whether there is any significant difference between groups the independent t test was done.

Results revealed that individuals with subcortical aphasia exhibited higher frequency of verbal perseveration than normals. All tasks were found to be the potential task to elicit perseveration. Subcortical group obtained higher percentage frequency of perseveration in picture naming task and lesser in answering questions. Normal elderly populations were found to yield higher percentage frequency errors in answering questions and picture description tasks, and lesser in picture naming task. Subcortical group had more recurrent perseveration followed

by continuous type. Normals performed with more continuous perseveration followed by recurrent type. There was a total absence of stuck in set type of perseveration in both the groups. So it can be concluded that frequency of verbal perseveration are more in brain damaged individuals and the interference in the subcortical pathway may also leads to verbal perseveration.

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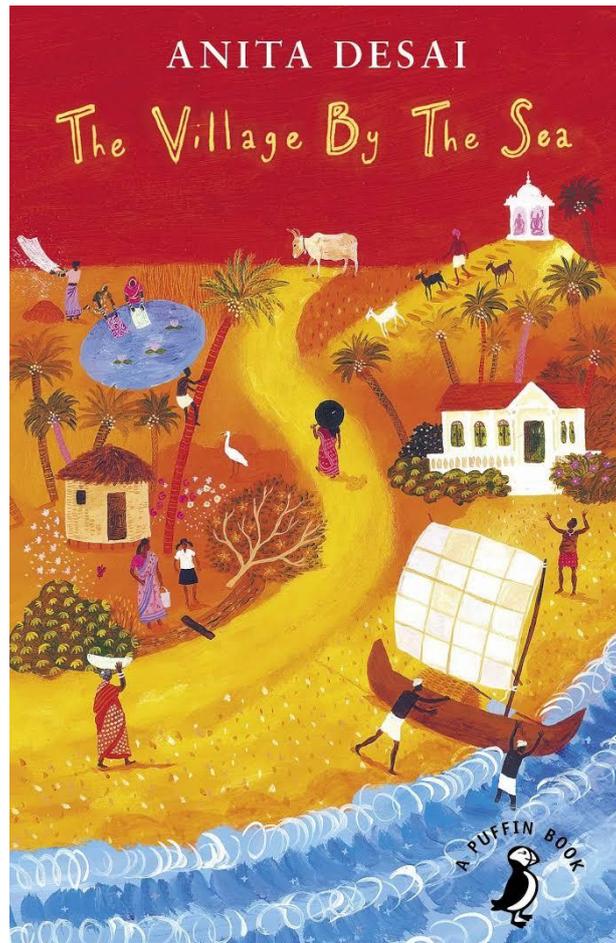
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Analysis of Verbal Perseveration in Subcortical Aphasics

## The Impact of Anita Desai's *The Village by the Sea* on the Adolescent Psyche

K. Kaviyarasu and Dr. Shobha Ramaswamy

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### *The Village by the Sea*

Adolescence is the period of transition from a child into an adult which involves a lot of physical and mental changes wherein they tend to get distracted away from their regular, disciplined way of life that needs to be taken care of by people around them. Literature of such educating kind could help children keep themselves under check and control. The work taken for discussion is one such story *The Village by the Sea* by Anita Desai that revolves around the lives of two adolescents undergoing one of life's greatest miseries. This paper highlights the positive psychological development of one of the major characters of the work that turns out to be opposite to the kind of its stereotypic characters.

## **Hari, the Young Protagonist**

Hari, a young protagonist about thirteen, is the main embodiment figure where he undergoes great responsibility with struggles through the novel. Identity and self-esteem play vital roles in the novel. The ongoing action of the novel is combined with an exploration of Hari's emotions and feelings. His struggle along with his sister Lila is both significant and serious. His struggles as an adolescent are to pull his family out from the dark poverty, mother's sickness and father's drunkenness. In raising his family out of poverty, he makes his mind to move to Bombay city. He goes to Bombay to settle his family out from financial crunch. Here, the author portrays the innocence of a rural boy who was alienated from his village by himself. In the novel, Hari finds it difficult to feel optimistic about himself and his village. His poor self-esteem is connected with the idea of being poor and even believing that he deserves to be poor.

Basically the boys in the age of Hari were more adventurous, mischievous and playful. But, in Hari's case, it's different. He is an innocent boy with responsibilities. He has an elder sister Lila and two younger sisters Bela and Kamal. Hari drops his school to help his poor family. He does all the odd jobs in his village to earn money for his family. As he finds out that the income, which he earns from fishing and selling coconuts from their land, will be too little to run his family, he runs out without informing his family members. He does not wish to be like the other ordinary boys of his village and on realising the miseries of his family; he becomes a responsible boy who strives a lot. He leaves out to Bombay from Thul and there he learns the world by facing difficulties of life with innocence. Desai has portrayed the dreams of Hari's venture in Bombay, as in the following lines:

Bombay! He stared out of the window at the stars that shone in the sky and wondered if the lights of the city could be as bright, or brighter. It was a rich city: if he could get there, he might be able to make money, bring home riches, pieces of gold and silver with which to dazzle his sisters. (Desai 45)

## **Hari and His Friend**

Hari was happy with the company of his friend, Ramu. He was directed by Ramu's ideas of life in their village, Thul. Ramu did not see the opinion of leaving Thul for Bombay as a good deal. In fact, Ramu advised Hari that being in home village is the best thing for

good will. But, Hari did not pay any heed to the advice. He dreamt of city life. His dreams were good but paradoxically he suffered a lot for survival.

### **In an Alien City**

To set his identity in an alien and strange city, Hari faced a lot of challenges for survival. He was almost an orphan in the hands of Bombay city. Desai has portrayed the grief and trauma of the boy while portraying Bombay. Hari felt very lonely in the crowded city Bombay. Hari struggled a lot, worked hard, and earned some money in Jagu's Sri Krishna Eating House. His ultimate aim was to earn some money and go back to his own village Thul. In the eating shop, he encountered two Tamil boys of his age and he saw himself in the faces of the two boys. He kept aloof from them but he was amiable to the boys. Hari was shocked by the story but he did not like to be the thought of another orphan in Jagu's care (Desai 150).

Even outside the eating house, he found a friend, not only a friend but also a philosopher and a guide, at Bombay Mr. Panwallah, a watch repairer. He learned to mend watches with the help of Panwallah. Anita Desai, through this part, points an optimistic view on the life of Hari. He has earned good people in the unknown city. He earned money and gained the worldly experience from those people he met. Those good men were men who had the life's lessons and experiences. Mr. Panwallah seemed to be a mentor like figure in the novel, carrying him with moral teachings and preaching of life. There Hari acquires wisdom. Panwallah's worthy ideas, advices and guidance teach an epiphany reaction in him.

### **Challenges in Life**

As an adolescent, Hari faced several challenges in his life. On account of the poor dark side of life, Bombay tended to commit more crimes and produced more criminals. One such fellow was the beggar, who Hari encountered with. He told Hari that during the daytimes, they begged and at night, they involved in crimes. Here it is evinced from the novel that the extremity of poverty demoralises the young ones and plunges them into crimes and other anti-social elements. Those immoral catalysts were suppressed and repressed in the minds of Hari and his longings were on returning to his native village and to reconcile with his family. He saved every single penny which he earned for his family. With great hope and confidence, he wrote to his mother promising that he would bring his earnings to his family for a propitious future. Though he was far away from the home and left all alone to face the

challenges of life, his mind found pleasure in thinking of the better future of his family, which he foresaw through his earnings. The boy's hope was not his own but his family's.

### **Painting the Reality of Rural Life**

The writers living elsewhere out of native world feels hyphenated to the adopted culture and become nostalgic for their roots. The immigrants have to adjust or adapt the culture of the adopted land where they meet with contempt and segregation. They feel alienated from native culture (Singh 92). Through Hari, an adolescent protagonist, Anita Desai successfully paints the reality of rural life, the migration and the false glory of urban city. The rural charm wins through the inheritance of moral consciousness, mentor-hood and the extroversion of the characters. The use of contrast scheme between rural and urban lives with the company of the protagonist leaves a deep impression on the minds of the readers. Childhood dreams and disillusionment are skillfully implied by the author all over the novel. The young minds can react, adapt, generalise, and rationalise the world with facing challenges with the broad minded mentors. The soul, mind, and personality of the adolescents can achieve an optimistic life by having endurance, positive outlook and ability of openness. To consolidate, the novel *The Village by the Sea* suggests the inevitability of changes and the need for adjustment and adaptation in the changing world.

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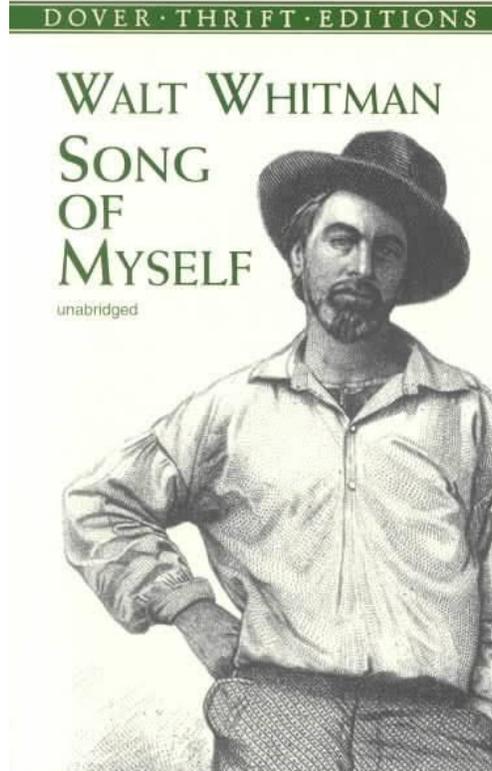
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## Critical Analysis of Walt Whitman and Philip Larkin as Modern Poets

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### Abstract

The following research paper deals with the claims of Walt Whitman and Philip Larkin to be regarded as modern poets. In this research paper we will discuss what is modernism and to what extent Walt Whitman and Larkin's poetry be called modern poetry whether it contains modern elements and what's the dilemma of a modern man. We will highlight the different

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important themes of modernism like displacement, disillusionment, nostalgia of old England, pre and post war fears and the most important is the man's tussle for his identification and his place in the society.

**Keywords:** Modernism, agnosticism, shallowness of life, Identification of self

## **Introduction**

Modernism is a movement that occurred towards the end of the 19th Century and lasted until roughly the middle of the 20th Century. Modernism rejected the previous movements in literature and art. Previously, literature and art followed strict standards and traditional methods in which the writer or artist expressed his or her artistic nature. Modernism rejected these concepts. Modernism allowed writers and artists to find their own artistic voice and appreciated the individualism of the artist. While the Romantics may have focused on some aspects of individualism, they did so within the context of nature as an overriding force within the artist. Modernists rejected this worship of nature.



Philip Larkin

Courtesy: Philip Larkin. (2016). *The Famous People website*. Retrieved 06:10, Sep 5, 2016, from [www.thefamouspeople.com/profiles/philip-larkin-199.php](http://www.thefamouspeople.com/profiles/philip-larkin-199.php).

The author Philip Larkin was one of the first poets of modern times to reflect new attitudes to both society and to poetry in his writings. Society was changing - no longer were all

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the gems kept by the same crowd - in the war women had proved their worth and laborer's had become educated. Class was like shifting sands and it was now possible to become a self-made man to rival any impoverished aristocrat in terms of earned wealth. Many countries were on their way to independence and the power of empire and colonialism was waning fast. Suddenly the middle classes looked mediocre and non-descript, the establishment seemed blinkered and uncreative and Larkin (along with Wain, Auden and Amis) wasn't afraid to write about it. By the time he published his poetry collection 'The Less Deceived' Larkin had stripped himself of this shell himself and recreated a new, fresher more honest writer's persona for himself while others languished in the more quintessentially Romantic English tradition .

The modernist poetic movement in brief was inspired by Walt Whitman, who is recognized as the first to throw off the formality of the Romantic poets (who threw off the formality of their predecessors who rigidified the formality of their predecessors). Modernists became devoted to the pure meaning of words without overlays of metaphor and simile. This means that if a poem spoke about three white rabbits running, it was about three white rabbits running; no metaphor was intended nor could legitimately be found or assigned. A new pessimism entered poetry with the modernists because of the devastations, personal, social, and planetary, of World War I and then World War II, which was particularly demoralizing psychologically because it followed World War I, which was to be "the war to end all wars."

## **Methodology**

In this research work the researcher may apply the discussion method and particularly one must discuss that what the term modernism means In this research work the themes of modernism like displacement disillusionment Nostalgia of old England and self-identification or the dilemma of a modern man can be discussed by the researcher in view of Larkin and Walt Whitman's poems.

## **Analysis of Larkin's Poems in view of Modernism**

### ***Church Going***

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*Church Going*, written in 1954, is a monologue in which the speaker discusses the futility and the utility of going to a church. It clearly reveals the social context of the time when it was written. It was a time of general decline in the attendance in churches which had begun to take place in 1945.

The poem expresses a view that faith and belief in religion must die but that the spirit of tradition represented by the English church cannot come to an end. Larkin's agnosticism becomes more understandable if we look at this poem in the national and the international context of the post-war years. The poem refers both to the erosion of the Church as an institution and to the perpetuation of some kind of ritual observance. In other words, the poet here explores different perceptions of the same event (the event being the decline of attendance in the churches). Some readers take this poem as a religious poem but Larkin strictly contradicts to this idea of interpretation. He says, "It is of course an entirely secular poem. I was a bit irritated by an American who insisted to me it was a religious poem. It isn't religious at all. Religion surely means that the affairs of this world are under divine supervenience, and so on, and I go to some pains to point out that I don't bother about that kind of thing, that I am deliberately ignorant of it—'Up at the holy end', for instance".

### **Important Themes in *Church Going***

- 1-Demise of the church /religion
  - 2-Secularism and agnosticism
  - 3-Ritual superstition and post war sentiments
  - 4-Nature and religion
- "Belief may die but not the superstition "

### **Criticism of Modern Christianity**

The theme of agnosticism is reflected in the following lines  
"The echoes snigger briefly Back at the door I sign the book 'denote an Irish six pence Reflect the place was not worth stopping fore yet I stop I often did; in fact I often do."

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### ***Mr. Bleaney***

The poem is about an individual who is living a very shabby life full of shallowness and another visitor's life is also void of interest.

An individual who is constantly in a struggle to find the meaning of his life.

### **Major Themes in *Mr. Bleaney***

In this poem the poet reflect the basic dilemma of human beings and that basic dilemma is the Quest for self identification.

Mr. Bleaney is the classical example of shallowness of modern life.

### **Materialism and Superficiality**

“And at the age having no more to show than one hired box should make him pretty sure . He warranted no better, I don't know.”

### ***MCMXIV***

1914 is based, to a greater extent, on the contrast between the social and cultural picture of English society in pre and post war conditions.

The poem records post-world war 1 impression.

“Pre war fears

Post war destruction

“Never such innocence before/ Never before or since

As changed itself to past /without a word \_ the men

Leaving the gardens tidy / thousands of marriages

Lasting a little while longer/never such innocence before

Urban and ruler response towards war

Conservatism

Nostalgia of old England

“And the countryside not caring:

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The place names all hazed over  
With flowering grasses, and fields  
Shadowing doomsday life

### **Critical Analysis of Walt Whitman's Poem *Song of Myself* in view of Modernism**

*Song of Myself* by Walt Whitman is the longest poem in *Leaves of Grass*. The poem is a joyous celebration of the human self in its most expanded, spontaneous, self-sufficient, and all-embracing state as it observes and interacts with everything in creation and ranges freely over time and space. The bard of the poem, speaking in the oracular tones of the prophet, affirms the divinity and sacredness of the entire universe, including the human body, and he asserts that no part of the universe is separate from himself — he flows into all things and is all things.

### **Major Themes in *Song of Myself***

#### **American Democracy**

*Song of Myself* was first published in 1855. You'll remember from history class that this was a tumultuous period in America. A lot of things were looking great - the railroads were starting to connect people and goods from all around the country, commerce and technology were booming and new waves of immigration were bringing never-before-seen religious and ethnic diversity. At the same time, the country was already sharply divided on the issue of slavery, and the Civil War was looming. Like many people, Whitman was excited about what the U.S. could be - a place of freedom for all - and concerned about what was actually happening - a lot of injustice and internal division. 'Song of Myself' is part vision, part plea for a democratic society where all are equal.

#### **The Democratic Self**

Whitman celebrates the common man by creating a unified, overarching concept of the self that applies to individuals as well. Whitman often casts himself as the main character in his poems, but the Walt Whitman he refers to is only partially representative of Whitman's own opinions and experiences. He also uses "I" (or himself) to represent the archetypal American man. This technique, known as "an all-powerful I," allows Whitman to draw all Americans into a

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unified identity with the poet himself as the figurehead. The idea of the Democratic Self is common in the work of Transcendentalist writers like Henry David Thoreau.

I celebrate myself, and sing myself,  
And I assume you shall assume.

He says "For every atom belonging to me as good belongs to you." Whitman believes that nature and people are connected.

### **Three Important Themes**

These include the idea of the identification of the self with other selves, and the poet's relationship with the elements of nature and the universe. Houses and rooms represent civilization; perfumes signify individual selves; and the atmosphere symbolizes the universal self. The self is conceived of as a spiritual entity which remains relatively permanent in and through the changing flux of ideas and experiences which constitute its conscious life. The self comprises ideas, experiences, psychological states, and spiritual insights. The concept of self is the most significant aspect of Whitman's mind and art.

### **Spirituality and Self Knowledge**

The poet wants to have a contact with himself "The atmosphere is not a perfume, it has no taste of the distillation, it is odorless ,It is for my mouth forever, I am in love with it, I am mad for it to be in contact with me."

### **War**

Whitman's career coincided with the Civil War. Therefore, many of his poems address themes of war and the loss of humanity that results from physical conflict. Although Whitman was a patriotic man, he was also a pacifist. He believed that war was useless and that fighting was never an effective solution. He worked as a nurse during the Civil War and during that time, he developed many personal relationships with wounded soldiers. He felt that it was his personal responsibility to humanize these brave individuals and honor their sacrifice. "Ashes of Soldiers," in particular, was inspired by soldiers that Whitman met during the war. Through the war was

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over, he wanted his readers to pause their celebrations and remember the individuals who enabled the victory.

### **Concern for the Present**

Whitman says that he has heard “what the talkers were talking, the talk of the / beginning and the end,” but he refuses to talk of either. Instead, he rejects talk of the past or future for an experience in the now. This is the “urge” of the world which calls to him. Whitman sees all the things around him – “The latest dates, discoveries, inventions, societies, authors old / and new,” but he knows that “they are not the Me myself.” He remembers in his own past that he once “sweated through fog” with fashionable arguments. He no longer holds these pretensions, however.

### **An Encounter between Soul and Body**

Whitman then describes an encounter between his body and soul. He invites his soul to “loafe with me on the grass” and to lull him with its “valve voice.” He tells his soul to settle upon him, “your head athwart my hips and gently turn’s / over upon me.....” He invites his soul to undress him and reach inside him until the soul feels his feet. This will bring him perfect peace “that pass all the argument of the earth....” This peace is the promise of God and is what allows all people to become his brothers and sisters.

### **The Soothing Effect of Nature**

The poet is against all ages and all periods because they are not concerned with his self and with the self of others.

These are really the thoughts of all men and in all ages and lands, they are not original with me, If they are not yours as much as mine or next to nothing, If they are not the riddle and the untying of the riddle they are nothing,

This is the grass that grows wherever the land is and the water

This the common air that bathes the globe

## **The Dilemma of Confusion and Frustration of Modern Man**

The poet is against all ages and all periods because  
I think I could turn and live with animals; they are so placid and self-contained,  
I stand and look at them long and long.  
They do not sweat and whine about their condition they do not lie awake in the dark and weep  
for their sins  
They do not make me sick discussing their duty to God,  
Not one is dissatisfied, not one is demented with the mania of owning things,  
Not one kneels to another, nor to his kind that lived thousands of years ago,  
Not one is respectable or unhappy over the whole earth.

## **Accepting of Reality**

Endless unfolding of words of ages! and mine a world of the modern the word En masse  
of the faith that never balks, Here or henceforward it is all the same to me, I accept Time  
absolutely.  
It alone is without flaw; it alone rounds and completes all,  
That mystic baffling wonder alone completes all.  
I accept Reality and dare not question it, Materialism first and last imbuing.  
Gentlemen, to you the first honors always!  
Your facts are useful, and yet they are not my dwelling,  
I but enter by them to an area of my dwelling.”

## **Stylistic Features in *Song of Myself***

*Song of Myself* is a good example of the stylistic features of *Leaves of Grass*. Whitman's style reflects his individualism. He once wrote to Horace Traubel, his biographer: "I sometimes think the *Leaves* is only a language experiment." Words, for Whitman, have both a "natural" and a "spiritual" significance. Colloquial words unite the natural with the spiritual, and therefore he uses many colloquial expressions. He is also fond of using foreign words. The catalog is another special characteristic of Whitman's poetic technique. He uses numerous images, usually drawn from nature, to suggest and heighten the impression of a poetic idea. These images appear to

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have no clear organization; yet, in effect, they have a basic underlying unity, usually involving a spiritual concept, which gives meaning and coherence to the apparently disconnected images or scenes.

## **Conclusion**

In a nutshell we can say that undoubtedly Larkin and Walt Whitman belongs to the genre of Modernism. In their poetry one can see the modern poetic elements. They are truly representative of the modern age with all its conflicts and upheavals .In their poems we can see the effects of modernism on an individual who is suffering with all the dilemma's of the modern world The person represented in their works is undoubtedly the product of modernism.

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## **Relative Contribution of Naming Speed and Phoneme Awareness To Reading Kannada and English in Dyslexic and Nondyslexic Biliterates**

**Marita P. J. Saldanha, M.Sc., Ph.D. Research Scholar**  
**Anand Siddaiah, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D.**

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### **Abstract**

Phonological awareness (PA) and naming speed or Rapid automatised Naming (RAN) are the major building blocks of efficient reading. The current study compared the performance of three groups of biliterates with and without dyslexia on PA and RAN. Further, the study examined the unique and shared contributions of the aforementioned building blocks to the reading English and Kannada, an alphabetic and Indian alpha syllabary writing system respectively. Adopting a quasi-experimental research design, the participants were dyslexic children who were remediated to a large extent, children who were typically developing, and children with dyslexia who were not remediated. The overall results confirm the view that while both RAN and PA together contribute to the early development of reading across orthographies, the relative importance of PA, specifically at the phoneme level, may not be so crucial in nonalphabetic systems.

**Keywords:** Phonological awareness, naming speed, alpha syllabary, biliterates, developmental dyslexia, remediation, English, Kannada.

### **Introduction**

Biology is not destiny (Leopold, 2013). Neuronal plasticity has given opportunities to researchers to successfully remediate children, adolescents and adults with developmental dyslexia (DD) benefit from reading intervention (Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2005). The inconsistent sound encoding by dyslexics can be ‘fixed’ by training (Hornickel & Kraus, 2013). DD is a lifelong brain disorder with a genetic disposition, and no spontaneous remission for “catching

up” can be expected. The inconsistencies in performance and learning challenges can be very frustrating and the devastating effects can be seen in the form of low levels of general and academic self esteem, and also peer and teacher related areas of adjustment (Thambirajah, 2010).

Efficient phonological processing such as phonological awareness (PA) and rapid naming are very vital for the mastery of literacy (Araújo, Bramão, Faisca, Petersson, & Reis, 2010; Wagner, Torgesen, & Rashotte, 1999). These deficits are the primary causes for reading problems in DD, and despite being independent sources of breakdown of reading dysfunction, have an additive effect on most reading and spelling measure (Miller et al., 2006; Nicolson & Fawcett, 2005; Norton & Wolf, 2012; Verhagen, Aarnoutse, & Van Leeuwe, 2010; Vukovic & Siegel, 2006 ).

No orthography is indifferent to DD (Holopainen, Ahonen, & Lyytinen, 2001; Tressoldi, Stella, & Faggella, 2001). The degree of deficits is greatly influenced, and moderated by the characteristics and phonological demands of the linguistic system, which modulates the specific demands on the phonological and orthographic processing skills (Grigerenko, 2001; Guardiola, 2001; Miles, 2000). Kannada is one of the major Dravidian languages of South India. With a boastful recorded history of over 2,300 years and unmatched literature, obtained classical status granted by the Indian Central Government on the occasion of 52<sup>nd</sup> Kannada Rajyotsava and highest number of Jnanapeeta awards (Express News Service, 2012). It is necessary to foreground the research on a hybrid class of scripts categorized as an alphasyllabary (Vaid & Padakannaya, 2004). It is the state language of Karnataka, and is spoken by over 60 million people. Kannada has 50 basic letter symbols called akshara which means that the symbol stands for orthographic syllable, which can further be visually analyzed into its constituent phonemes. There is almost one to one graphophonological equivalence expressed in syllable structure, regular signs of vowels being attached to the basic consonant forms. Each of the vowels, in addition to its syllabic (primary) form, has an intrasyllable (secondary) form which is used in writing a CV syllable and each syllable form can be analyzed into its consonant and vowel components. Consonants also have dual graphemic representations- basic form and in conjunct form (see Nag & Snowling, 2012; Padakannaya & Ramachandra, 2011; Prakash & Joshi, 1991,

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1995). English is notoriously irregular and follows an alphabetic spelling system (Nag, 2007), and the relationship between letters and their spoken equivalent is far from consistent. It is a deep alphabetic system, as the letter-sound mapping is less consistent with several exceptions (Landerl & Wimmer, 2008; Norton & Wolf, 2012).

India has the largest population of children below the age of 18 (Child Rights and You, 2012). As per population census of India 2011, the literacy rate of our country has gone up to 74.04 from 65.38% in 2001, thus showing an increase of 9% in 10 years. The present study, part of a larger study, is novel and important on two accounts. Firstly, there is dearth for studies comparing children who have undergone remediation with the typically developing (with normal academic achievement) children, and children with dyslexia not exposed to any remedial intervention. Secondly, this study examined the performance of participating groups in two distinct language systems viz., alphabetic (English) and alphasyllabary (Kannada/Hindi) with respect to unique and shared contribution of PA and RAN measures to reading. The schematic representation of the study is presented in Figure 1.

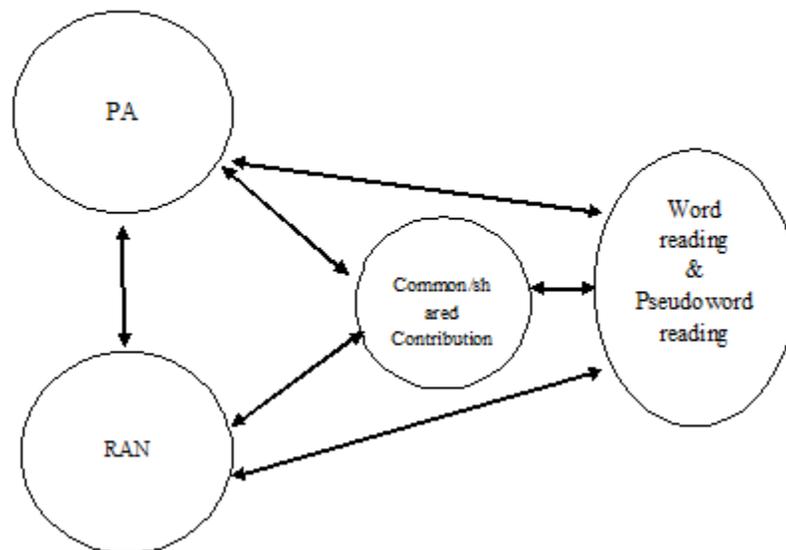


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the study depicting direct and combined effect of PA and RAN on reading.

## **Method**

### ***Participants***

One hundred and forty one students (both boys and girls) of 11-17 years of age participated in the study and were studying in English medium schools. There were three groups of participants:

1) Typically Developing children (TD): There were 46 students (33 boys and 13 girls, with a mean age of 12yrs and 9 months,  $SD=1.02$ ), who were normally developing with normal academic achievement, language developments and intellectual ability.

2) Children with dyslexia remediated (CDR): There were 49 students (37 boys and 12 girls, with a mean age of 14yrs and 2 months,  $SD=1.6$ ), who were largely compensated at the time of testing.

3) Children with dyslexia with no remediation (CDNR): There were 46 students (36 boys and 10 girls; with a mean age of 12yrs and 9months,  $SD=1.3$ ), in the group who never had exposure to any special education intervention or remediation prior to the testing.

CDR group children had gone through remediation for a period of minimum 3 years at the time of testing. They had full time remedial teaching in a special school in Kannada and English along with other academic core subjects by trained special educators. All the participants in CDR and CDNR were officially certified having DD by authorized institutions in Karnataka state, India. The research project had the approval of the Human Ethical Committee of the University and informed consent was obtained from the parents of the students.

### ***Measures***

#### **A. Reading Measures**

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1. *Word and Pseudo-word reading in Kannada* (Saldanha, Siddaiah, Veerappa, Ramachandra & Padakannaya, 2014).

This test developed in the lines of Test of Word Reading Efficiency (TOWRE, Torgesen, Wagner, & Rashotte, 1999), measured word and pseudoword reading efficiency in Kannada. The sight word efficiency (SWE) section and Pseudo-word efficiency (PDE) section comprised of 72 and 62 items respectively. The total number of words/pseudo-words correctly read in 45 seconds and the total number of correctly read items (without time limit) constituted one's scores. The time sampling test-retest reliability coefficient of the four subtests was 0.91 and above. The test details are available elsewhere Saldanha et al., 2014).

2. *Test of Word Reading Efficiency (TOWRE; Torgesen et al., 1999)*. The test for English comprised Sight Word Reading Efficiency (SWE) and Phonological Decoding Efficiency (PDE) measures. The test is widely used as a timed measure of single-word and pseudoword reading efficiency. The number of items read correctly within a 45-second time limit as well as the total number of items read was recorded.

B. PA measure.

Phoneme reversal test from Saldanha & Padakannaya, (2010) and *The Comprehensive Test of Phonological Processing* (CTOPP, Wagner et al., 1999) for Kannada and English respectively were used for this study. They required the participants repeat orally presented short nonwords in the reverse order of the sounds/phonemes.

C. RAN measure.

Color naming part of the RAN test in English developed by Denckla and Rudel (1974) and its Kannada adaptation (Siddaiah, Saldanha, Venkatesh, Ramachandra, & Padakannaya, 2016) were used. The participants were required to name an array of color squares arranged in 5 rows of 10 symbols each on a sheet as rapidly and accurately as possible. The total time was taken as the score.

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The above measures are all valid measures used in researches. The particular PA and RAN tests were selected due to their significant correlations with reading measures (Table 1). These tests were administered individually to all the participants in a quiet room provided by the institution authorities.

Table 1. Correlation between PA and RAN measures with word and pseudoword reading across the groups (Kannada).

	Sight Word Reading			Pseudoword Reading		
	CDNR	CDR	TD	CDNR	CDR	TD
Kannada						
PR	0.48**	0.32*	0.22	0.33*	0.35*	0.27
RAN-Color	-0.12	-0.31*	-0.40**	-0.90	-0.36*	-0.47**
English						
PR	0.31*	0.55**	0.26	0.34*	0.40**	0.48**
RAN-Color	-0.40**	-0.34*	-0.41**	-0.30*	-0.26	-0.19

*Note.* CDNR= Children with Dyslexia with no Remediation; CDR= Children with Dyslexia Remediated; TD=Typically Developing; PR=Phonological Reversal; RAN=Rapid Automated Naming

\*p < 0.05 \*\* p < 0.01

## Results

The descriptive statistics (Table 2) for the reading measures, PA and RAN measures. As expected, the CDNR group showed slowest naming speed and weakest phonological awareness among the three groups. The performance of the TD was the best followed by CDR group in all the tests.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for word and pseudoword reading, PA and RAN tests (Kannada)

	CDNR		CDR		TD	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Kannada						
SWE <sup>a</sup>	14.83	8.96	31.04	12.09	53.28	12.99
PDE <sup>a</sup>	11.09	5.96	22.47	7.7	38.72	10.63
PR <sup>b</sup>	2.37	3.14	9.22	2.14	11.04	0.99
RAN-Color <sup>c</sup>	116.83	70.80	77.92	45.18	53.96	16.24
English						
SWE <sup>a</sup>	20	11.23	45.78	17.5	74.76	10.41
PDE <sup>a</sup>	9.48	5.65	24.14	11.62	46.35	10.27
PR <sup>b</sup>	3.89	2.58	11.18	3.28	15.35	2.27
RAN-Color <sup>c</sup>	58.5	30.4	41.16	9.5	35.09	7.63

*Note.* SWE= Sight Word Reading; PDE= Phonological Decoding Efficiency; PR = Phoneme Reversal; PR=Phonological Reversal; RAN=Rapid Automatized Naming

<sup>a</sup> Measured in terms of number of words/pseudo words read; <sup>b</sup>Correct number of responses; <sup>c</sup> Measured in seconds.

The Regression Commonality Analysis (RCA) was applied to infer the independent and joint contributions of PA and RAN to sight word reading and pseudoword reading. RCA helps partitioning of variance to quantify proportions of variance in the dependent variable, which can be attributed uniquely to the different independent variables, and also the proportion of variance that are attributed to the different combinations of the independent variables (Pedhazur, 1982). We opted to go for a representative measure each from among the PA and RAN measures based on their correlation pattern with sight word reading and pseudoword reading measures (Table 1). The SPSS script was based on the R code (Nimon, Lewis, Kane, & Haynes, 2008) for performing the analysis. The results of the unique and shared contribution of PR and RAN color naming to the reading measures for the three groups are shown in Table 3A for Kannada and Table 3B for English.

Table 3A. The unique and common contributions of PR and RAN color naming to Single word and pseudoword reading of the three groups of readers in Kannada (% variance accounted for is given in the parenthesis).

	Sight Word Reading			Pseudoword Reading		
	CDNR	CDR	TD	CDNR	CDR	TD
<i>Unique contributions</i>						
PR	0.2321 (94.12)	0.0754 (43.83)	0.0431 (21.51)	0.1087 (93.12)	0.1014 (78.30)	0.067 (23.19)
RAN -Color	0.14 (5.88)	0.0678 (39.42)	0.1510 (75.34)	0.008 (6.87)	0.0021 (1.64)	0.2126 (73.58)
<i>Common contributions</i>						
PR & RAN – Color	0.000 (0.005)	0.0288 (16.74)	0.0063 (3.14)	0.0000 (0.005)	0.026 (20.05)	0.0093 (3.22)
Sum	0.2466	0.1720	0.2005	0.1168	0.1295	0.2889

*Note* .CDNR= Children with Dyslexia with no Remediation; CDR= Children with Dyslexia Remediated; TD=Typically Developing; PR=Phonological Reversal; RAN =Rapid Automatized Naming

The results for Kannada (Table 3A) showed that the unique contribution of PR accounted for a major proportion of variance - 94.12% ( $100 \times (0.2321/0.2466)$ ) and 93.12% to word and pseudoword reading of CDNR group respectively. The proportion of unique contribution of PA to reading decreased, as the level of reading expertise increased. Whereas, the proportion of unique contribution of RAN color to word and pseudoword reading, 75.34% and 73.58 % respectively, is highest for the TD group. The proportion of unique contribution of RAN to word reading decreased as the reading expertise decreased. The results showed that combined contribution to sight word reading and pseudoword reading by PA and RAN decreased as the reading expertise of the groups increased.

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Table 3B. Unique and common contributions of PR and RAN color naming to Single word and pseudoword reading across the different subsets of readers in English (%variance accounted for is given in the parenthesis).

	Sight Word Reading			Pseudoword Reading		
	CDNR	CDR	TD	CDNR	CDR	TD
<i>Unique contributions</i>						
PR	0.0642 (29.12)	0.2505 (68.74)	0.0427 (20.32)	0.0915 (50.58)	0.1311 (66.21)	0.2068 (84.75)
RAN -Color	0.1256 (56.96)	0.0666 (18.28)	0.1440 (0.023)	0.0633 (34.99)	0.0404 (20.40)	0.0178 (7.30)
<i>Common contributions</i>						
PR & RAN – Color	0.0308 (13.97)	0.0473 (12.98)	0.0234 (10.95)	0.0260 (14.37)	0.0265 (13.38)	0.0194 (7.95)
Sum	0.2205	0.3645	0.2101	0.1809	0.1980	0.2440

*Note:* CDNR= Children with Dyslexia with no Remediation; CDR= Children with Dyslexia Remediated; TD=Typically Developing; PR-Phonological Reversal; RAN=Rapid Automatized Naming

The results for English (Table 3B), showed that the unique contribution of PA to reading was greater than RAN except for the CDNR group. Further, the unique contribution of PA to pseudoword reading was directly proportional to the reading proficiency of the groups. On the other hand, the unique contribution of RAN decreased as a function of increase in reading ability of the groups.

## Discussion

The results suggest that the CDR group were compensated largely as they performed significantly better than the CDNR group. In fact, their performance on RAN was almost on par with the TD group though they still showed marked deficiency in PA. Despite intensive

remediation at the phonemic level, children with dyslexia can never acquire complete mastery at the phonemic level due to the lack of consistency in grapheme-phoneme relations in a non-transparent orthography like English (Goswami, 2000).

In both the languages the CDNR group showed DD typical profile with the weakest PA and slowest naming speed. Remediation seemed to have helped the CDR group as the mean scores on reading and PA of the group are one standard deviation above the mean scores of the CDNR. However, the results support the view that the poor PA is the principal marker associated with DD.

Further, the RCA analysis for Kannada showed that PA plays a major role during the early reading acquisition phase, but as reader scales to higher level in decoding ability, the contribution of naming speed increases. However, the unique contribution of RAN decreases as the reading ability in English, a deep orthography, improves. The combined contribution of PA and naming speed decreases as the reading proficiency increases.

### **Conclusion**

For English, the strength of shared contributions of RAN and PA to reading word and pseudoword decrease as the level of reading proficiency increases; whereas for Kannada, an alphasyllabary, the unique contribution of both PA and the shared contributions of PA and RAN decrease as the level of reading proficiency increases.

The overall results confirm the view that while both RAN and PA together contribute to the early development of reading across orthographies, the relative importance of PA, specifically at the phoneme level, may not be so crucial in nonalphabetic systems.

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Relative Contribution of Naming Speed and Phoneme Awareness To Reading Kannada and  
English in Dyslexic and Nondyslexic Biliterates

## **Role of Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety in Majoring and Non-majoring English Language Learners A Comparative Study**

**Mari Nargis and Lohar Shoukat Ali**

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### **Abstract**

The current study was conducted to investigate foreign language classroom anxiety among students who are studying English as their major subject and those who are studying English as their non-major subject. Three components of anxiety as communication apprehension, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation were measured. Participants of the study were 23 students from Institute of English Language and Literature University of Sindh Jamshoro, studying as majoring subject and 23 students studying as non-majoring subject from Department of Public Administration, University of Sindh Jamshoro, Sindh Pakistan. Students took part in the study voluntarily and were provided a questionnaire adopted from Horwitz & Cope (1986) on Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety based on five point Likert scale. The result of the studying indicates majoring learners more effected by foreign language classroom anxiety in comparison of non-majoring learners.

**Key words:** Speaking anxiety, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation

### **Introduction**

The present study is designed to explain the foreign language classroom anxiety. Since anxiety is a major obstacle between learners and his target. This study examines communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation and demonstrates the negative effects of the anxiety on majoring learners and non-majoring English learners. Though there is much study done in context of language anxiety in Pakistan but there is a significant need to highlight the anxiety and anxiety related problems at university level in Sindh Pakistan. Consequently, it

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provides a clear image of negative effect of speaking anxiety among undergraduate learners to English language teachers in general and to Pakistani researchers in particular and language teacher in general.

## **Literature Review**

English language now has become most common language around the world and it is declared as lingua Franca, language to use or communicate globally. The most prominent characteristic of the language is communication, though there are different reasons behind spread of the language for instance colonization of United States of America around the world, another reason is invention and use of computer more than that the installation of English language as operating language in computer. Consequently, English became the language of education, science, politics and technology. About fifty years back English language was limited to theoretical predictions but now it is used globally and it is no more any theoretical prediction. "A language gains a status as a global language when it has a special role that is recognized in every country in the world (Crystal, 1997, cited in Rohmah 2005). People need to have grip on the language to avail more and better opportunities, moreover English language is not an interesting language to learn, it has no charm to learn it intrinsically infect it is extrinsically interested to be master for instance having more opportunities in academic and professional careers. In Pakistan English language is used as second language as it is declared as official language. Constantly it is due on everyone to master the language academically and professionally. On the road of mastering the language there comes some ups and downs, for instance if one feels confident while learning the language the other one may feel demotivated, one may have positive and negative learning attitudes towards learning the language, likewise among all other factors like attitude, motivation, aptitude, anxiety is most researched factor which increases defecting elements in learning the language among learners. Anxiety is defined by various researchers one among them is given by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986), "a distinct complex of self-perception, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (P.128. Cited in Gopang et al 2015). Moreover speaking anxiety has three components, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension refers to anxiety which students feel while communicating with

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others, test anxiety refers to fear of exams finally fear of negative evaluation refers to be miss understood by others. The viewed anxiety is combination of above three components further it is divided into two major elements of anxiety debilitating anxiety and facilitating anxiety. Debilitating anxiety concludes in abandoned learning and facilitating anxiety concludes in facilitating learning, it arises a sense of worry towards learning which leads towards struggles to achieve the target. Many studies has been done illustrating the speaking anxiety among which attitudes towards anxiety of students who has English as their major subject and students who has English as their minor subject is one of the major issues to be examined and provide some advises.

### **Research on Foreign language Learning Anxiety**

An uncountable number of researches has been done on foreign language speaking anxiety around the world and multiple challenges have been discovered by researchers caused by anxiety effecting learners strongly in debilitating or facilitating way. One of the study conducted in 2012 by Trang et al at a university in Vietnam on investigation of anxious students experiencing English learning as foreign language in order to find out wither anxiety is effected on their determination of studying English or not, study concluded that students should be informed by the importance of learning English. Another study conducted in 2015 at Lasbela University Pakistan by Gopang et al suggested that mostly students feel nervous and avoid speaking English and students face speaking anxiety inside and outside of class, students feel more nervous while speaking with native speakers, furthermore the study declares speaking anxiety as a serious issue of undergraduate students in Pakistan. Consequently study conducted by Smith & Schroth in 2014 at University of Southeastern region of United states, reveals that students who remain normal, earn high grades, results also indicate that outside factors like less amount of sleep and lack of preparation often contributed anxiety. Study also reveals that speaking anxiety can effect classroom performance.

Present study is concerned with highlighting the role of foreign language speaking anxiety and comparing the level of speaking anxiety in majoring-English students and non-majoring-English students at university of Sindh Jamshoro . The practical implications or benefits of the study are to create awareness regarding the level of speaking anxiety experienced by majoring and non-

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majoring students when they happen to different situations and provide some suggestions to concerned teachers to tackle with the situation.

## **Research Questions**

Following is the major research question designed by researchers.

What is the role of Foreign Language classroom Anxiety in learning English among major-English students and non-major English students at University of Sindh Jamshoro.

Focusing above main question the researchers answered the below questions.

Q 1: What is the level of anxiety in communication among majoring-English students and non-majoring English students at University of Sindh Jamshoro.

Q 2: What are the effects of anxiety on tests or exams on majoring-English students and non-majoring English students at university of Sindh Jamshoro.

Q 3: At what level fear of negative evaluation exists in majoring and non-majoring students at University of Sindh Jamshoro.

## **Methodology**

### **Participants**

Participants in this research are 46 both male and female, among which 23 belong to students having English as major subject and 23 belong to have English as non-major subject. Who are studying in second year and fourth semester at Institute of English language and literature and Department of Public Administration university of Sindh Jamshoro Pakistan.

### **Instrument**

Foreign language speaking anxiety scale Consisting of 33 items designed by Horwitz et al is adopted to quantify the FLA in this research paper. All the items are administrated as 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". FLCAS illustrates three components of speaking anxiety: communication apprehension, text anxiety, fear of negative

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evaluation. FLCAS is reasonably reliable and valid also previously used scale in different researches worldwide.

### Data Collections

Data is collected by survey method, participants completed the questionnaire in given time which was around 40 minutes. All the students were informed that survey do not have any effects on their grades constantly students were informed by benefits of the research moreover all the ethical issues were considered as well.

### Data Analysis

The data is analyzed into three sections by applying SPSS. In first section communication apprehension is examined of learners having English as major and non-major subject. By analyses of communication apprehension the level of foreign language speaking anxiety is explored and first question of the study is answered. Consequently in second section test anxiety is examined in learners. By analysis of test anxiety the level of test anxiety is discovered and section question of the researched is answered. Constantly in third section fear of negative evaluation is examined in learners and by analysis to fear of negative evaluation third question of the study is answered.

## Result

### Section 1

By analyses of following eight statements communication apprehension of majoring and non-majoring English learners is elaborated.

**I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	1	4.3	4.3	4.3
Valid Agree	16	69.6	69.6	73.9
Disagree	6	26.1	26.1	100.0

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Total	23	100.0	100.0	
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Table: 1.1: Showing communicative apprehension in majoring learners

**1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	3	13.0	13.0	13.0
Agree	16	69.6	69.6	82.6
Valid Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table:1.2: Showing communicative apprehension in non-majoring learners

Students having English as major and students having English as non-major subject both are found 69% unsure about their selves during speaking English in classroom.

**9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	8	34.8	34.8	34.8
Agree	9	39.1	39.1	73.9
Valid Disagree	6	26.1	26.1	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.3: Showing communicative Apprehension in non-majoring learners

**9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	6	26.1	26.1	26.1
Agree	7	30.4	30.4	56.5
Valid Disagree	8	34.8	34.8	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.4: Showing communicative apprehension in majoring learners

Table 1.3 and table 1.4 show that non-majoring learners 39% agreed on feeling panic during speaking without preparation in class, while table 1.4 shows that 30% majoring learners agreed on feeling panic during speaking in class without preparation.

**14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Agree	3	13.0	13.0	13.0
Agree	10	43.5	43.5	56.5
Disagree	10	43.5	43.5	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table1.5 Showing Communicative apprehension of non-majoring learners

**14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly agree	4	17.4	17.4	17.4
Agree	7	30.4	30.4	47.8
Disagree	10	43.5	43.5	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.6: showing communication apprehension in majoring learners

Table 1.5 Shows equal percentage on agree and disagree, 43.5% non-majoring learners agree upon feeling nervous during talking with the native speakers of English language while 43.5% learners expressed disagreement on feeling nervous during talking with native speaker of English language. Table 1.6 shows that only 30% majoring learners agreed on feeling nervous during speaking with native speakers and 43.5% learners disagree about feeling nervous on speaking with native speakers. It concludes that both majoring and non-majoring learners are equally confident during talking with native speakers of foreign language.

**18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	5	21.7	21.7	21.7
Agree	13	56.5	56.5	78.3
Valid Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.7: show communication apprehension in non-majoring learners

**18.I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	6	26.1	26.1	26.1
Agree	11	47.8	47.8	73.9
Valid Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	87.0
Strongly Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.8: Show communicative apprehension in majoring learners

Table 1.7 show that 56.5% agreed on feeling confident during speaking foreign language in classroom and only 13.0% learners disagreed while table 1.8 show that only 47.8% learners agreed on they feel confident when they speak foreign language in classroom. Table 1.7 and table 1.8 conclude that non-majoring learners are more confident to speak foreign language in classroom.

**24: I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Agree	7	30.4	30.4	30.4
Agree	10	43.5	43.5	73.9

Disagree	6	26.1	26.1	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.9 show communicative apprehension in non-majoring learners

**24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	4	17.4	17.4	17.4
Agree	11	47.8	47.8	65.2
Valid Disagree	6	26.1	26.1	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.10: show communicative apprehension in majoring learners

Table 1.9 shows that non-majoring learners 43.5% agreed and 30.4% strongly agreed on feeling self-conscious during speaking foreign language in front of other learners, while table 1.10 shows that 47.8% majoring learners agreed and 17.4% strongly agreed while 26.1% learners disagreed on feeling very self-conscious during speaking foreign language in front of other learners. It shows quit less self-conscious to majoring English learners in comparison with non-majoring English learners.

**27: I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	1	4.3	4.3	4.3
Agree	8	34.8	34.8	39.1
Valid Disagree	10	43.5	43.5	82.6
Strongly Disagree	4	17.4	17.4	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.11: show communication apprehension of non-majoring learners

**27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	1	4.3	4.3	4.3
Agree	7	30.4	30.4	34.8
Valid Disagree	12	52.2	52.2	87.0
Strongly Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table1.12: show communication apprehension of majoring learners

Table 1.11 show that only 34.8% non-majoring learners agreed and 43.5% learners disagreed upon getting nervous and confused when they speak in language class. While table 1.12 show that 30.4% majoring learners agreed and 52.2% disagreed on feeling nervous and confused when they speak in language class.

**29: I get nervous when I do not understand every word the language teacher says.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	5	21.7	21.7	21.7
Valid Agree	12	52.2	52.2	73.9
Disagree	6	26.1	26.1	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table1.13: table show communication apprehension of non majoring learners

**29. I get nervous when I do not understand every word the language teacher says.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	5	21.7	21.7	21.7
Valid Agree	7	30.4	30.4	52.2
Disagree	9	39.1	39.1	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.14: Show communication apprehension of majoring learners

Table 1.13 show that 52.2% non-majoring learners agreed, 21.7% strongly agreed while 26.1% learners disagreed upon feeling nervous when they do not understand every said word by teacher. table 1.14 shows that 30.4% majoring learners agreed, 21.7% strongly agreed while 39.1% disagreed upon feeling nervous when they do not understand every said word by teacher. It concludes that non-majoring learners become more nervous when they do not understand each said word by teacher.

**32: I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Agree	2	8.7	8.7	8.7
Agree	14	60.9	60.9	69.6
Disagree	7	30.4	30.4	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.15: Show communicative apprehension of non-majoring learners

**32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly agree	6	26.1	26.1	26.1
Agree	8	34.8	34.8	60.9
Disagree	8	34.8	34.8	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.16: Show communication apprehension of majoring learners

Table 1.15 show that 60.9% non-majoring learners agreed on probably feeling comfortable around native speakers of foreign language while only 34.8% majoring learners agreed upon probably feeling comfortable around native speakers. it concludes majoring learners more attentive towards their speaking skills which puts them uneasiness.

**Section 2:**

Section two analysis the test anxiety among majoring and non-majoring English Learners, it consists five statements of FLCAS and answers second question of the study.

**2. I do not worry about making mistakes in language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	2	8.7	8.7	8.7
Agree	18	78.3	78.3	87.0
Valid Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.1: showing test anxiety among non-majoring learners

**2. I do not worry about making mistakes in language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	5	21.7	21.7	21.7
Agree	7	30.4	30.4	52.2
Valid Disagree	8	34.8	34.8	87.0
Strongly Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.2: showing test anxiety among majoring learners

Table 2.1 show that 78.3% non-majoring learners do not worry about making mistakes while talking in the second language while in table 2.2 it has been showed that majoring learners have agreed only 30.4% on not being worried about making mistakes. It shows that majoring learners are more tensed regarding making mistakes in language class.

**8. I am usually at easy during tests in my language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Agree	3	13.0	13.0	13.0
Agree	12	52.2	52.2	65.2

Disagree	8	34.8	34.8	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.3 show test anxiety among non-majoring learners

**8. I am usually at easy during tests in my language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	1	4.3	4.3	4.3
Agree	15	65.2	65.2	69.6
Valid Disagree	5	21.7	21.7	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.4: show test anxiety among majoring learners

Table 2.3 shows that 52.2% non majoring learners feel easy during tests in language class, constantly 65.2% majoring learners agree on feeling easy during tests in languages class. It concludes that though majoring learners are more easy with language tests but non-majoring learners also feel easy with language tests.

**10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	6	26.1	26.1	26.1
Agree	9	39.1	39.1	65.2
Valid Disagree	7	30.4	30.4	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.5 show test anxiety among non-majoring learners

**10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly agree	2	8.7	8.7	8.7
Agree	15	65.2	65.2	73.9

Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	87.0
Strongly Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.6 show test anxiety among majoring learners

Table 2.5 shows that 39.1% non-majoring learners are worried about consequences of failing the language class while 65.2% majoring learners have agreed on being worried about the consequences of failing the language class. It concludes that majoring learners are more worried than non-majoring learners about consequences of failing language class.

**19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	6	26.1	26.1	26.1
Agree	10	43.5	43.5	69.6
Valid Disagree	5	21.7	21.7	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.7 shows test anxiety among non-majoring learners

**19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	6	26.1	26.1	26.1
Agree	8	34.8	34.8	60.9
Valid Disagree	8	34.8	34.8	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.8 shows test anxiety among majoring learners

Table 2.7 shows that 43.5% non-majoring learners are afraid of language teacher for making their mistakes correct in language class while table 2.8 shows that only 34.8% majoring learners are afraid of language teacher for making their mistakes correct in language class. It concludes that non-majoring learners are more afraid of language teacher for correcting their mistakes.

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**21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	1	4.3	4.3	4.3
Agree	8	34.8	34.8	39.1
Valid D isagree	12	52.2	52.2	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.9 shows test anxiety among non-majoring learners

**21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	2	8.7	8.7	8.7
Agree	9	39.1	39.1	47.8
Valid Disagree	7	30.4	30.4	78.3
Strongly Disagree	5	21.7	21.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.10 shows test anxiety among majoring learners

Table 2.9 shows that 52.2% non-majoring learners disagreed upon getting confused as much as they study for language class, while table 2.10 shows that 30.4% majoring learning disagreed on getting as much confused as they study for language class. It concludes that majoring learners get as much confused as much they study for language class. Consequently in this situation test anxiety effect more to majoring learners.

### Section 3

Section three analyses the fear of negative evaluation among majoring and non-majoring English learners, it consists eight statements of FLCAS and answers the third question of the study.

**3. I trouble when I know that I am going to called on language class.**

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	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	6	26.1	26.1	26.1
Agree	2	8.7	8.7	34.8
Valid Disagree	10	43.5	43.5	78.3
Strongly Disagree	5	21.7	21.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.1: Shows Fear of negative evaluation among non-majoring learners

**3. I trouble when I know that I am going to called on language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	1	4.3	4.3	4.3
Agree	10	43.5	43.5	47.8
Valid Disagree	11	47.8	47.8	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.2: Shows fear of negative evaluation among majoring learners

Table 3.1 shows that 43.5% non-majoring learners disagree upon feeling in trouble on being called in language class, consequently table 3.2 shows that 47.8% majoring learners disagree upon feeling in trouble on being called in language class, constantly it concludes that both majoring and non-majoring learners do not feel their selves in trouble when they are called in language class.

**7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at language than I am.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	1	4.3	4.3	4.3
Agree	12	52.2	52.2	56.5
Valid Disagree	5	21.7	21.7	78.3
Strongly Disagree	5	21.7	21.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.3: shows fear of negative evaluation among non-majoring learners

**7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at language than I am.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	8	34.8	34.8	34.8
Agree	8	34.8	34.8	69.6
Valid Disagree	4	17.4	17.4	87.0
Strongly Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.4: Shows fear of negative evaluation among majoring learners

Table 3.3 shows that 52.2% non-majoring learners agreed that they keep thinking that other students are better at language than them, on the other hand only 34.8% majoring learners agreed upon thinking that other students are better than them at language. It concludes that non-majoring learners are more affected by fear of each other's linguistic abilities.

**13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	2	8.7	8.7	8.7
Agree	11	47.8	47.8	56.5
Valid Disagree	9	39.1	39.1	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.5: Shows fear of negative evaluation among non-majoring learners

**13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	2	8.7	8.7	8.7
Agree	10	43.5	43.5	52.2
Valid Disagree	9	39.1	39.1	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.6: Shows fear of negative evaluation among majoring learners

Table 3.5 shows that 47.8% non-majoring learners get embarrass to volunteer answers in language class while 43.5% majoring learners agreed upon getting embarrass to volunteer answers in language class. It shows though majoring learners feel uncomfortable but non-majoring learners are more uncomfortable while answering voluntarily in language class.

**15. I get upset when I do not understand what the teachers is correcting.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	4	17.4	17.4	17.4
Agree	9	39.1	39.1	56.5
Valid Disagree	9	39.1	39.1	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.7: Show fear of negative evaluation among non-majoring learners

**15. I get upset when I do not understand what the teachers is correcting.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	7	30.4	30.4	30.4
Agree	11	47.8	47.8	78.3
Valid Disagree	4	17.4	17.4	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.8: show fear of negative evaluation among majoring learners

Table 3.7 shows that 39.1% non-majoring learners agree upon getting upset on not understanding of what teacher is correcting while they speak language in language class, on the other hand table 3.8 shows that 47.8% majoring learners agreed upon getting upset for not understanding the correction done by teacher. It concludes that majoring learners feel more upset when they do not understand the context of teacher.

**20. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Agree	3	13.0	13.0	13.0
Valid Agree	15	65.2	65.2	78.3
Valid Disagree	5	21.7	21.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.9: Show fear of negative evaluation among non-majoring learners

**20. I feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in language class.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly agree	9	39.1	39.1	39.1
Valid Agree	6	26.1	26.1	65.2
Valid Disagree	7	30.4	30.4	95.7
Valid Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.10: Show fear of negative evaluation among majoring learners

Table 3.9 shows that 65.2% non-major learners expressed their plus high when they were called on in language class, on the other hand only 26.1% agreed and 30.4% majoring learners disagreed upon feeling their hurt pounding when they are going to be called on in language class. It concludes that non-majoring learners are more afraid of being called on in language class.

**23: I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Agree	3	13.0	13.0	13.0
Valid Agree	10	43.5	43.5	56.5
Valid Disagree	8	34.8	34.8	91.3
Valid Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.11: show fear of negative evaluation among non-majoring learners

**23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	3	13.0	13.0	13.0
Agree	14	60.9	60.9	73.9
Valid Disagree	5	21.7	21.7	95.7
Strongly Disagree	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.12: Show fear of negative evaluation among majoring learners

Table 3.11 shows that 43.5% non-majoring learners agreed upon feeling that other students speak the language more better than them, on the other hand table 3.12 shows that 60.9% majoring learners agreed with the statement which concludes that majoring learners are more afraid of other's speaking skills.

**25: Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	3	13.0	13.0	13.0
Agree	11	47.8	47.8	60.9
Valid Disagree	6	26.1	26.1	87.0
Strongly Disagree	3	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.13: Show fear of negative evaluation among non-majoring learners

**25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly agree	2	8.7	8.7	8.7

Agree	11	47.8	47.8	56.5
Disagree	8	34.8	34.8	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.14: Show fear of negative evaluation among majoring learners

Table 3.13 shows that 47.8% non-majoring learners agreed upon quick moving of language class and fear of getting left behind consequently exact 47.8% majoring learners showed the same feelings about quick move of language class.

**33: I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I have not prepared in advance.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	5	21.7	21.7	21.7
Agree	12	52.2	52.2	73.9
Valid Disagree	4	17.4	17.4	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.15: Show fear of negative evaluation among non-majoring learners

**33.I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I have not prepared in advance.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	5	21.7	21.7	21.7
Agree	10	43.5	43.5	65.2
Valid Disagree	6	26.1	26.1	91.3
Strongly Disagree	2	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 3.16: show fear of negative evaluation among majoring learners

Table 3.15 shows that 52.2% non-majoring learners agreed upon feeling nervous if not prepared in advance for language class, on the other hand 43.5% majoring learners agreed on the

statement which shows that non-majoring learners have more nervousness if not prepared for language class in advance.

Above three sections delineated communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation in learners who are studying English as major and non-major subject at university of Sindh Jamshoro.

## **Discussion**

In section of communication apprehension anxious feelings of one during conversation as being panic, nervous or feeling comfortable or not in speaking with native speakers, speaker's confidence towards foreign language, self-consciousness, getting nervous due to not understand every said word by teacher are analyzed, in order to determine level of anxiety in communication apprehension, among students who are studying English as their major subject and students who study English as non-major subject and learn English as foreign language at University of Sindh Jamshoro, Sindh Pakistan.

Commonly it is expected in Pakistani context that non-majoring learners are more nervous and unsure about their language skills as compare to majoring learners but this study surprisingly illustrates that both kind of learners are equally conscious about their language during speaking which indicates that both the learners are equally worried about representing their linguistic abilities. That feeling of worry for sure arise much more anxious feeling but it is research that as per situations majoring and non-majoring learner have shown controlled and uncontrolled behaviors. As both the learners are equally worried but during talking non-majoring learners have shown less frightening feelings while majoring learners are often failed in controlling their such feelings. Consequently it surprisingly discovers that majoring learners have less confidence during communicating in language class. There are two reasons behind more confidence in non-majoring learners one that they do not feel over whelmed by self-consciousness or they have enough good control on their inner situations and the other reason is both non-majoring and majoring learners believe that their co-learners are more good at language then them but non-

majoring learners get less effected by that belief in comparison to majoring learners. Constantly non-majoring learners show same confidence in communicating with native speakers as majoring learners claim but due to being worried and self-conscious the question remain objected that whether majoring learner would be able to communicate with native speakers confidently or not as they have been discovered less confidante in comparison to non-majoring learners.

Consequently, in section two test anxiety is measured among majoring and non-majoring learners in order to determine the level of being worried, being easy or uneasy, being afraid of failing consequences and being corrected by teacher in language classroom.

The study illustrates that non-majoring learners are more confident they have less anxiety, they are not worried about making mistakes as making mistakes is a part of learning while majoring learners are found mostly worried and anxious at a high level for making mistakes in language class. Furthermore in comparison to non-majoring learners, majoring learners are found more worried about failing consequences of the test in language class, probably because of its strong effect on their educational and professional careers. Though majoring and non-majoring learners equally claim for feeling easy during tests but as per all round worries of majoring learners their claim is questionable and both the learners get as much anxious and nervous as they study but high level of anxiety has been discovered among non-majoring learners during tests on the other hand majoring learners have intense anxiety which is more effective negatively. Throughout the section non majoring learners are only found afraid of teachers for making their mistakes correct in language class.

Section three provides an image of often faced fear of negative evaluation by learners during talking in second/foreign language. Learners have trouble, they feel fear of being called on in language class they also keep thinking that other learners are better than them constantly it embarrasses them to come forward in language class voluntarily. These situations collectively upset learners when teachers correct their mistakes. A sense heart pounding comes across during being called in language class. Another fear included among above all is getting left behind due

to quickness of the class which continuously arise anxiety among learners and they feel nervous until and unless they do not prepare in advance for language class.

Measurement of fear of negative evaluation in third section concludes that both majoring and non-majoring learners are afraid of moving language class quickly. Both majoring and non-majoring learners do not feel their selves in trouble on being called in language class but both learners are effected by fear of their fellow learners linguistic abilities. Furthermore non-majoring learners do not feel comfortable if they are called in language class without preparation they also avoid voluntarily participation in class while majoring learners do face these situations better than non-majoring learners. Moreover in comparison to non-majoring learners majoring learners are negatively affected and nervous when language teacher corrects their mistakes.

## **Conclusion**

This study concludes that majoring English learners and non-majoring English learners both are equally anxious both have equall level of anxiety, both are equally worried about their linguistic abilities. While majoring learners have less confidence in communicating with native and non-native speakers in comparion to non-majoring learners. This study also concludes that majoring learners have less confidence and high anxiety during language lests, they are afraid of making mistakes and being corrected by teacher in comparision to non-majoring learners. Likewise majoring are more afraid of failing the tests/exam. Furthermore non-majoring learners are found more afraid of teacher for making their mistakes correct. Study further concludes that Both the learners are affraid of their fellowlearner's linguistic abilities, they have fear for being wrong infront of them. Both are afraid of quick move of language class as it cases misunderstandings between speaker and hearer. Futhermore non-majoring learners get afraid if they are called on in language class without preparation and majoring learners get more afraid if language teacher corrects their mistakes.

## **Padagogical Implication**

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Bellow are the sggestons for teachers to implay in their classes.

### **For Majoring**

1. Teachers should encourage learners to have faith in their linguistic abilities.
2. Teachers should implay multipule speaking strategies to decrease anxiety in communication.
3. Teachers should not dirrectly correct mistakes of learners as it cases negative affects on learner's learning abilities..
4. Teachers should make sure that durring tests/exams learners are feeling easy and positive and are not thinking about failing the exam.
5. Teacher should take care that language class should not run fastly.

### **For Non-majoring**

1. Teachers should encourage learners to have faith in their linguistic abilities.
2. Teachers should develop self-confidence among learners
3. Teacher should prepare learners towards situational practices for making tham prepare to handle situations without preparation.
4. Teachers should implay multipule speaking strategies to decrease anxiety in communication.
5. Teachers should not dirrectly correct mistakes of learners as it cases negative affects on learner's learning abilities.
6. Teacher should take care that language class should not run fastly.

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## Appendix

### Questionnaire

#### Participant's details.

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Class: \_\_\_\_\_

Gender: \_\_\_\_\_

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Department: \_\_\_\_\_

Contact: \_\_\_\_\_

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.  
(a) Strongly Agree      (b) Agree      (c) Disagree      (d) Strongly Disagree
2. I do not worry about making mistakes in language class.

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- (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
3. I trouble when I know that I am going to be called on in language class.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
4. It frightens me when I do not understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
5. It would not bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at language than I am.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
10. I worry about THE consequences of failing my foreign language class.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
11. I do not understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree
14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.  
 (a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

15. I get upset when I do not understand what the teachers is correcting.  
(a)Strongly Agree            (b) Agree            (c) Disagree            (d) Strongly Disagree
16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.  
(a)Strongly Agree            (b) Agree            (c) Disagree            (d) Strongly Disagree
17. I often feel like not going to my language class.  
(a)Strongly Agree            (b) Agree            (c) Disagree            (d) Strongly Disagree
- 18: I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.  
(a)Strongly Agree            (b) Agree            (c) Disagree            (d) Strongly Disagree
- 19: I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.  
(a)Strongly Agree            (b) Agree            (c) Disagree            (d) Strongly Disagree
- 20: I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in language class.  
(a)Strongly Agree            (b) Agree            (c) Disagree            (d) Strongly Disagree
- 21: The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.  
(a)Strongly Agree            (b) Agree            (c) Disagree            (d) Strongly Disagree
- 22: I do not feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.  
(a)Strongly Agree            (b) Agree            (c) Disagree            (d) Strongly Disagree
- 23: I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.  
(a)Strongly Agree            (b) Agree            (c) Disagree            (d) Strongly Disagree
- 24: I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.

(a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

25: Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.

(a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

26: I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.

(a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

27: I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.

(a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

28: When I am on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.

(a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

29: I get nervous when I do not understand every word the language teacher says.

(a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

30: I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.

(a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

31: I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.

(a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

32: I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.

(a) Strongly Agree                      (b) Agree                      (c) Disagree                      (d) Strongly Disagree

33: I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I have not prepared in advance.

(a) Strongly Agree      (b) Agree      (c) Disagree      (d) Strongly Disagree

=====

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## Oro-Motor Speech (OMS) and Total Language Score (TLS) in Children with Stuttering (CWS) and Children with No Stuttering (CWNS)

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### Abstract

Stuttering is probably the best known speech disorder; it is a multifaceted disorder which has been the area of interest for the researchers since two decades or more. It is perhaps the most difficult to define or explain and to treat (Yairi & Ambrose, 2005). The disorder being a complex clinical population is present in around 1% of adults in the world and about 2.5 % in children (Proctor, Craig & Peters, 2002). It was also observed that the age of 3 to 5 years is the most critical period for the beginning of stuttering, because it is during this time that children accomplish the task of learning the transformations of adult language and their motor structures and function develops. The present study aims to compare the language abilities and oro-motor speech abilities in CWS and CWNS. Participants were children between age ranges 5 – 7 years. They were divided in two groups. Group I will consist of 20 CWS and Group II will have 50 CWNS. Objective was to find the difference between total language abilities and oro-motor speech abilities in CWS and CWNS. The results reveal that CWS were poorer in total language abilities than CWNS, though this difference was not statistically significant { $F=2.15$  (1), ( $P>0.05$ )}. There is a significant difference { $F=7.708$  (1), ( $P<0.01$ )} in oro-motor speech abilities in between CWNS and CWS, majorly with oro-motor speech task which includes repetition of word, phrases, sentence and diadochokinetic rate. This shows that CWS faces difficulty in speech coordination tasks. The results support the notion that speech motor tasks in CWS are a problem area, which is neglected by most of the speech therapists. Implications of the present study will help in planning better treatment for CWS.

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As the population considered for the present study was very limited, so the results cannot be generalized. Future researches can be done on larger population to see whether the difference in oro-motor speech tasks varies with gender, severity and age.

**Keywords:** Speech disorder, stuttering, total language abilities, oro-motor speech abilities.

## **Introduction**

Speech is the most effective medium of communication. When the medium of communication gets affected it results in social disturbances. Amongst all the disorders affecting social interaction, stuttering has received most attention (Van Riper, 1971). Children who start stuttering are at great risk for social isolation too. They prefer to keep to themselves and avoid social interactions. They also experience cognitive and emotional reactions like anxiety, fear, anger and helplessness because of their speaking difficulties. This can have a devastating effect on their interpersonal communication in complex ways, stuttering is interwoven with the language development of the children. Stuttering typically begins between 3-5 years of age, which is a time of rapid syntactic, morphological and lexical development, when children acquire the ability to produce complex utterances (Owens, 2012).

Language development is important for any individual to communicate properly, especially during the year of adolescence when the social life starts to develop. During the development process, when the internal or external demands for fluency exceeds the child's capacity in one or more developing areas like motoric or emotional, then stuttering is likely to occur. It can be due to a dis-coordination of activity within the speech motor subsystems involved in speech production.

Development of both the sub-systems goes in agreement with each other, between the age ranges of 3-5 years (Peters & Starkweather, 1990). During the process of development,

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whenever these two systems involved are not able to work in cohesion, the fluent flow of speech is interrupted. So if the competence level of language is normal but the performance of motor system is not matching, it can lead to disruption in the fluency of speech in getting started i.e. on the execution of an identifiable segment of language, and that the children modify their articulatory movements to meet the prosodic and linguistic demands, which leads to dysfluencies (Bloomstein, 1993; Starkweather, 1987; Peters & Starkweather 1990).

Recently, various researches have been conducted to study the interactions between the speech motor planning and language abilities, the results indicated that CWS score low on speech motor planning and language when compared to their peers (Pushpavathi, 2004). There are studies which show that increased linguistic complexity, as measured by length of utterance and increased motor complexity, as measure by speech rate variability are associated with increased stuttering frequency (Michael & Alexander, 2007).

## **Method**

Research on correlation between language and oro-motor speech abilities of CWS and CWNS has yielded ambiguous results. Few studies have supported this notion that there is a correlation between language and oro-motor speech abilities and few have refuted. In order to explore the correlation between language and oro-motor speech abilities, the current study was taken up with the aim of finding out the correlation between language abilities and oro-motor speech abilities in CWS and CWNS.

CWS included a heterogeneous group with varied severity because of less availability of participants meeting the inclusion criteria in the given time frame. Figure 1 shows the distribution of severity of stuttering among subgroups. In age group I, 40% of the participants were diagnosed with very mild stuttering, 30% with mild stuttering, 10% with moderate stuttering and 20% with severe stuttering. In age group II, 30% participants had very mild stuttering, 30% had mild stuttering, 30% had moderate stuttering and 10% had severe

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stuttering. Varied percentage of degree of severity among the subgroups made it difficult to compare the groups statistically, depending on the degree of severity.

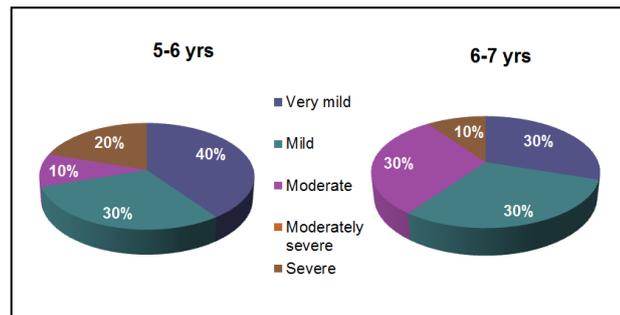


Figure 1: Distribution of Severity of stuttering in CWS

### Participants

The following were the inclusion and exclusion criteria while selecting the children for the present study.

Table1: *Inclusion and Exclusion criteria while selecting children:*

<b>Inclusion criteria</b>	<b>Exclusion criteria</b>
Children with Normal intelligence	Children with the history of any neurological speech disorder.
Children in between age range 5-7 were selected.	Children without therapy from last 1 year
Children with both genders will be included.	Children with any psychological issues were excluded from the study
Children with mother tongue as Hindi.	
Children with parental education of higher secondary school	

A total of 70 participants between 5-7 years of age were selected for the study. They were divided in two groups, consisting of 20 children with stuttering (CWS) and 50 children with no stuttering (CWNS). These groups were again sub-divided into two age groups I: 5-6 years and age group II: 6-7 years with equal number of participants in each group. The groups could not be matched for gender, because female participants reported less in number than males to the speech therapy centers in the available time frame.

Secondly, stuttering is commonly observed in males than females (3:1). Hence the female participants were less. For CWS, age group I included 7 males and 3 females and age group II included 9 males and 1 female. For CWNS, age group I included 12 females and 13 males and age group II included 12 females and 13 males. Figure 2 shows the details and distribution of the participants across group.

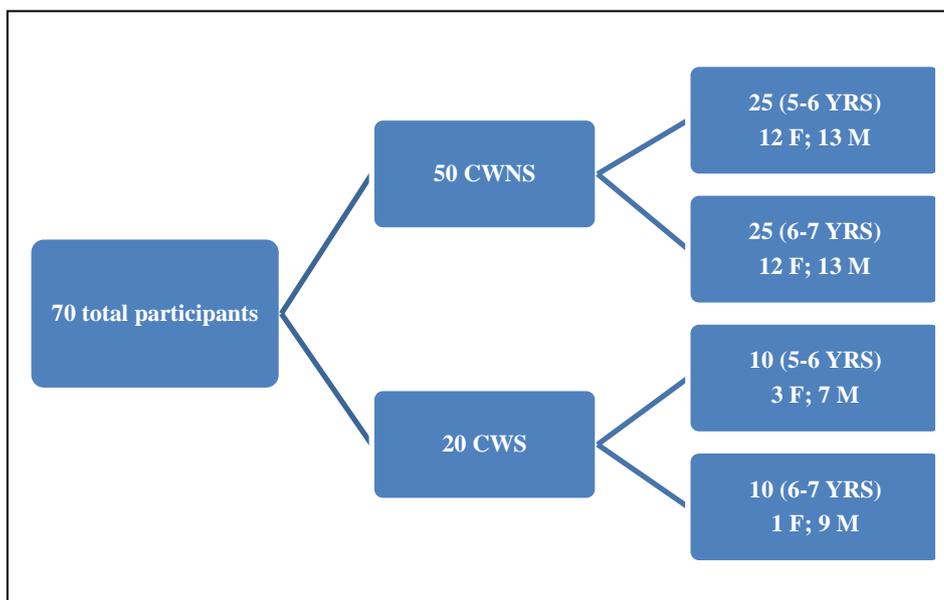


Figure 2: Distribution of Severity of stuttering in CWS

## ***Material***

### *For psychosocial assessment*

The Pediatric symptom checklist given by Murphy, Jellinek and Pagano (1996) was taken. It is a screening checklist designed to recognize cognitive, emotional and behavioral problems. It consists of 35 items. Scoring was done as 1, 2 and 3 as never, sometimes and often respectively.

### *For assessment of language*

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Linguistic profile test (LPT) in Hindi developed at AYJNIHH, Mumbai (1995) , as the project of UNICEF was used. LPT was originally developed by Karanth in Kannada language. Later it was developed in various Indian languages like Gujarati, Hindi, Marathi, Oriya, and Bengali. This test basically measures individual's receptive and expressive language skills in two parts. Part I tests Semantics & Part II tests Syntax. Semantic section contains 12 categories with 66 test items; it includes categories like naming, semantic discrimination, lexical categories, similarity, semantic anomaly, semantic contiguity, paradigmatic relations, syntagmatic relations, polar questions, antonymy, synonymy, and homonymy. Syntax section contains 10 sub categories which consist of 60 test items. It includes categories like plurals, tenses, P.N.G. markers, case markers, conditional clauses, transitive/ intransitive/ causative, sentence type, conjunctive and quotative, comparatives and participle construction. The stimulus book of LPT is developed in such a way that individual with language problems and non-readers can respond without difficulty. It is in album form which contains test plates. Total score and sub-section wise score was calculated for each child for further analysis.

#### *For oro-motor speech assessment*

Com – DEALL “Oro Motor Checklist” developed by Karanth (2007). It includes 4 sub-sections. In that, the last section checks the oro-motor speech coordination, it includes repetition of words, phrases and calculation of diadochokinetic rate. Scoring was done according to the responses as 0 (no response), 1 (only spontaneously) and 2 (on demand).

#### ***Procedure***

The children for the present study were randomly selected from different Hindi medium schools in Pune. Informed consent was taken from the Principal/ HOD/ Parents of the children included in the study. The data was collected during the school hours in quite, empty classroom. The child was made to sit comfortably. Brief history was collected from the

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children/class teacher. PSC (Pediatric symptom checklist) was administered. Clinician filled the questionnaire with the help of teachers. Total score was calculated. Any child scoring more than 24, between age group 5-6 yrs and more than 28, between age group 6-7 yrs were excluded from the study, as it indicated psychological impairment.

Oro-motor speech assessment was done. The child was asked to follow the instruction. For oro-motor speech assessment the child was asked to repeat vowels, words and phrases. Diadochokinetic rate was calculated for assessing speech coordination. For all this, instructions were given as mentioned in the test. The score was added and calculated for further analysis.

For Language assessment, LPT was administered in Hindi. Instructions were given as mentioned in the LPT manual. Child was shown the LPT test plates and scoring was done simultaneously in the LPT scoring sheet.

### ***Statistical analysis:***

Statistical analysis was done with SPSS software (Version 20). Descriptive statistics was done to compare the language and oro-motor speech abilities in CWS and CWNS. MANOVA was carried out to find the effect of age on oro-motor speech and language abilities. The results of the study have been tabulated and discussed in the following chapter.

## **Results and Discussion**

The main aim of the present study was to assess the relationship between language ability and oro-motor speech ability of CWS and CWNS. Standardized tests for assessing language

abilities and oro-motor speech abilities were administered on 70 participants. Scores were obtained and added for each of the tests and then tabulated for further statistical analysis.

Though present study did not consider the parameter of degree of severity for statistical calculation, future studies can be planned with the aim of studying effect of degree of severity on the language and oro-motor abilities in CWS.

Descriptive analysis was done to achieve the objective of comparing language and oro-motor speech abilities in CWS and CWNS. The mean scores of CWS and CWNS for language and oro-motor speech test was compared to observe the difference in scores for each. MANOVA was carried out to study the age and gender wise difference in all the parameters selected for the study.

#### ***Language and oro-motor speech abilities in CWS & CWNS:***

Mean values for language and oro-motor speech was calculated for CWS & CWNS. The mean values were graphically represented in Table 2. For CWNS, the mean total language score (TLS) was 103. For CWS the mean total language scores (TLS) was 99. Similarly, in CWNS mean of oro-motor speech score (OMS) was 11.10. In CWS mean oro-motor speech score (OMS) was 9.95 (Refer Table 2).

Table 2: *Manova results of Language and Oro-motor Parameters*

Parameters	CWNS		CWS		df	F	P-Value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
<b>TLS</b>	103.18	12.26	99.10	14.04	1	2.15	0.147
<b>OMS</b>	11.10	1.54	9.95	2.13	1	7.708	0.007**

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The mean score for language was lower for CWS than CWNS, to see if there is any statistically significant difference in mean values, MANOVA was carried out. MANOVA result reveals that there is no statistical significant difference in mean total Language score (F=2.15(1),P>0.05) between CWS and CWNS.

Results of the present study suggest that CWS, when compared with CWNS did not have quantifiable difference between the measures of language abilities. Though the CWS performed lower, the difference was not statistically significant. The result of the present study was in support with the study done by Kalehne and Johannsen (2000) who stated that the receptive and expressive language abilities of CWS were within normal limits.

There have been studies documenting contradicting results about disordered or weak language skills in CWS which may have played a causal role in the onset of stuttering (Anderson & Conture, 2000; Arndt & Healey, 2001; Bloodstein, 2005). The differences in the results could be due to relatively small sample size and large variability in speech disfluencies within the group of CWS, which may have appreciably reduced the chances for finding significant results.

The mean scores for oro-motor speech abilities differed in CWS and CWNS. MANOVA was carried out to see whether the difference was statistically significant. The result revealed that there is a statistically significant difference in oro-motor speech abilities { $F=7.708(1)$ ,  $P<0.01$ } between CWS and CWNS. Since CWS performed poorer on oro-motor speech abilities, it can be assumed that their co-ordination in oro-motor abilities may be lower than CWNS. The result of the present study supports the assumptions stated by Freeman and Ushijima (1978), that stuttering can occur due to a dis-coordination of activity within the speech motor subsystems involved in speech production.

The hypothesis given by Max et al., (2004); Laucks and Nil (2007), postulated that stuttering arises from unstable or insufficiently activated internal models. It also suggests that CWS do not internalize appropriate relationship between motor commands and sensory consequences for speech production. Hence, further studies can be conducted to check the sensory motor integration, oral proprioceptive limitation and motor control deficits in CWS.

MANOVA was carried out to check the developmental trends of language and oro-motor speech abilities with CWS and CWNS. The result reveals statistically significant { $F(8) = 3.223$ , ( $P<0.01$ )} difference in between age group I and age group II showing that language and oro-motor speech abilities develops in between age 5-7 yrs. Study done by Watkins (2005), Nippold (2012), and Owens (2012) showed similar developmental trends.

#### *Effect of age on language abilities in CWS and CWNS:*

##### *Total language score:*

The mean and standard deviation values for all the language and oro-motor speech parameters across the groups are shown in Table 3 and Figure 4. CWS scored poorer than CWNS on language abilities. The mean total language scores for CWNS was 96.40 and 111.68 in age group I and age group II respectively. And for CWS, it was 90.30 and 109.01 in age group I and age group II respectively. Result of the present study showed that total

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language scores increased significantly {F (1) =31.459, (P<0.01) as the age increases in CWNS as well as in CWS. There are enough evidences in literature about language development occurring markedly in the age range of 5-7 yrs. The school, home environment helps the child to improve the vocabulary, syntax, semantics and pragmatics levels (Owens, 2012). Result of present study also showed that CWS and CWNS did not differ significantly in total language scores. Both the groups improved their language levels individually and equally.

Table 3: Mean and standard deviation of total language score (TLS)

Age group	CWNS		CWS		df	F	P-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
I	96.40	11.28	90.30	12.74	1	31.49	.000**
II	111.68	8.38	109.01	8.86			

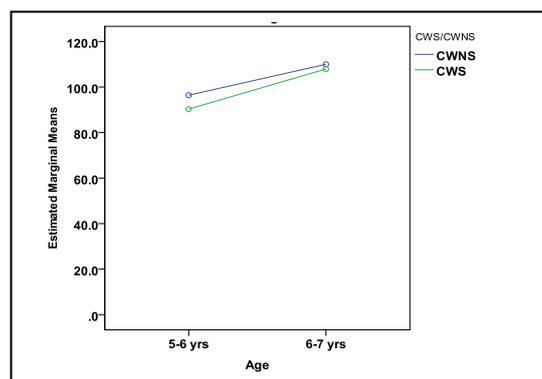


Figure 4: Total language score for CWS and CWNS

Effect of age on oro-motor speech abilities in CWS and CWNS

As shown in table 4 and figure 5, the oro-motor speech for CWS & CWNS differed across the subgroups. The mean total oro-motor score for CWNS was 10.32 and 11.91 in age group I and age group II respectively. And for CWS, it was 9.20 and 10.56 in age group I and age group II respectively. Result of the present study showed that oro-motor speech scores increased significantly {F (1) =13.64, (P<0.01)} as the age increases in CWNS as well as in CWS. Result shows that the speech motor coordination abilities increases with age.

Literature also has evidence that speech motor control and speech production abilities go hand in hand. Nip and Green (2006)., concluded that the maximum speeds of the articulators are slower for speaking tasks as compared to tasks requiring more cognition and language formulation such as retelling a story. Appropriate speech motor ability requires a relationship between motor commands and sensory sequences for fluent speech production. Maz (2004) stated that fluent speech production is obtained by 8 years of age which supports the notion that oro- motor control for speech develops and shows typical developmental trends.

Table 4: Mean and standard deviation of oro-motor speech (OMS)

Age group	CWNS		CWS		df	F	P-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
5-6 yrs	10.32	1.86	9.20	2.30	1	13.64	.000**
6-7 yrs	11.91	0.29	10.56	1.81			

\*\*significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

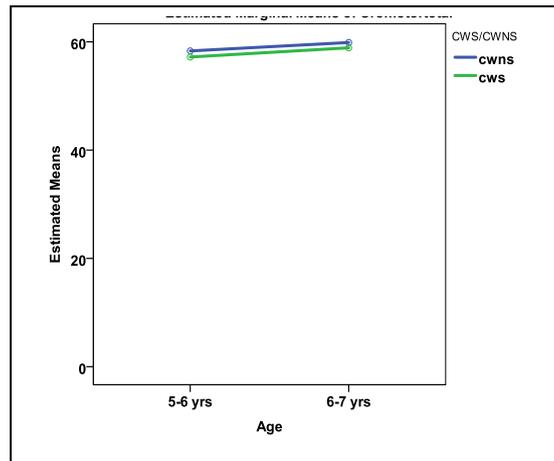


Figure 5: Oro-motor speech score for CWS and CWNS

To summarize, the results revealed that CWS were not significantly poor in language abilities than CWNS. But, there was a significant difference in oro-motor speech abilities (repetition of word, phrases, sentence and diadochokinetic rate) in between CWNS and CWS.. Hence, the result supports the notion that CWS face difficulty in speech coordination tasks. Implications of the study will be helpful in planning better treatment for CWS. However the results of the present study cannot be generalized as the population considered for the present study was very limited. The results support the notion that speech motor tasks in children with stuttering are a problem area, which is neglected in most of the speech therapy sessions. Further researches can be done on larger population to see whether the difference in oro-motor speech tasks varies with gender, severity and age.

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**Dr. Anand's 'Bio-text':  
A Manifestation of Creative and Circumstantial Consciousness**

**Dr. Poonam Dwivedi, Ph.D.**

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**Abstract**

Dr. Anand has propounded a novel theory of 'biotext' in the world of literary criticism and it entails the creative consciousness of a person. The process of ideological conception and its textual production becomes an entity in the virtual world. The kite and string metaphor, past, present and future co-relation and co-ordination of human mind in the triad world of Time, transports the reader to another world of theory in pragmatics. Dr. Anand's perceptions of thesis, anti-thesis and synthesis, three dimensional aspect of writing, involvement of the reader in the writing and his/her reciprocity, have been discussed in the article. The innovative interregnum of Third Space has a significant place and moment's multilateral dynamics in life and death have undertones of biotext as illustrated by the birth of biographical sketches. The discovery of biotext is epical as delineated in the Indian context of twin epics of Asian ethos. Dr. Anand has entirely changed the gambit of criticism by formalizing a theory of his own; of biotext which is real as existentialism and composed of synthetic structuralism. The circumstantial consciousness and creative consciousness blend together to weave a web in which kites do have free flight but the space is limited and the time determines the flight of imagination of human beings.

**Key words:** biotext, ideological conception, metaphor, third space, ethos, existentialism, synthetic structuralism, circumstantial consciousness, creative consciousness Anand

**Introduction**

The whole creation is manifestation of the Supreme Consciousness which flows perennially into the human mind to outpour in creative consciousness. The creative consciousness is always synchronized with the circumstantial consciousness. The subjectivity and objectivity in human mind is reflected in the writings of any author, effectually reflected in the mind of the reader, hence a confluence of text, context and reader takes place. Dr. J.S. Anand

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has exotically theorized it as 'biotext' in which a body and mind of the writer merge in the text and in turn which is also a wide spread canvas of the circumstances concised by the writer.

No one can question the wisdom of Dr. Anand's assertion that "The great body of literature created till date relates itself not only to man, but to his social movements as well, which underlines the fact that creation is man-centric and man is society-specific," although it appears difficult to agree with his position that "Nobody can create anything out of nothingness." The 'nothingness' is also a thing to be contemplated. The vacuum sucks in the thoughts of eternal thoughts of entirety. In the process, the saints and sages have been delving in the secluded places to catch the ideas floating in the universe. The great men think alike emerges from the fact of this phenomenon. But paradoxically, the floating ideas are essentially born out of the experiences of the realism which were hurled in the space and time by the individuals. The 'biotext' of Dr. Anand again surfaces to tell us the historicity of such textual ideas, its inked manifestation, oral traditions and proverbial lingual lineage.

Dr. Anand has beautifully presented the process of ideological conception and its textual production called entity in the virtual world.

"The fact is that the creator is as much a by-product of his circumstances as is the reader; and then, the text which passes from generation to generation also develops its own distinct existence independent of the creator or the reader. All this makes a text a complex unyielding entity which poses a formidable challenge to the literary world, on one side of which is the creator, and on the other end, the reader."

It will not be overreach to claim that the birth of gospels, sermonic sacred books and scriptures have also undergone this incubation, labour pains of social onslaughts and then actualization of their great personification and legal entity as well to be venerated, interpreted, researched and looked for inspirational demi-gods for betterment of humanity.

### **Birth of Biographical Sketches**

There is no place in the world where the biographical sketches are not drawn in paintings, writings, on the rocks, minarets, and whatever the material is available for art and craft as per the space, time and circumstances. Dr. Anand quotes S.T. Coleridge's *Biographia Literaria* which has recorded the biographical details of literary personalities, along with their creations. Dr. Anand's observation that "Every text is imbued with the bio-text" is hallmark of the literary criticism emanating from a fertile mind. He is not off the mark when he asserts that every piece of literary text has a biographical spectrum, and, therefore, he believes that a text must have a *Literaria Biographia* on the pattern on S. T. Coleridge's *Biographia Literaria*, the difference between the two being that one [Coleridge's] focuses on the author's biography, while the second [of Anand's conception] focuses on the biography of the literary text.

Even the imagination of the writer is laced with the circumstantial metaphors, lingual and colloquial effectualities and realities. Rustic and sophisticated imagery is borne out of the circumstances. The writers having habitats in the corridors of powers in the olden days breathed the regal poetry, studded with words of loyalty and royalty. The commoner and wandering saints and 'fakirs' had the blend and concoction of popular lores and language of the streets. But the writings had never been divorced from its 'biotextuality.'

The matchless use of metaphorical contention by Dr. Anand to buttress the point is exceptional, when he says:

"The rationale for such a contention is that, whatever his mental powers, and however high his imagination, after all, a kite has a string, and somebody is flying it. In other words, the writer who is creating such stuff is himself the creation of certain circumstances, and he is rooted in a certain societal reality. He may have the poetic genius to transcend that reality, and create a new world of his wishes, still, it would not be altogether impossible to deconstruct that utopia, and find out its linkages with the temporal world."

Nobody can discard the objectivity in the world. The circumstances do affect the human mind. To transcend the realm of realism is impossible with the strongest of the support of strings

to climb. The flight of imagination has been compared to a 'kite' by Dr. Anand, which has a string in the hands of the writer. The string in the human mind may be remote, wireless, cordless but still the imagination has time and space effect. The circumstantial consciousness and creative consciousness blend together to weave a web in which kites do have free flight but the space is limited and the time determines the flight.

Time has been divided into three parts by the human mind to decipher exactness and reality. The pragmatic division of time has made us aware of the difference between the creativity and non-creativity, value of time and space. The childhood memories and memorabilia of the youth do dangle with the persona of a person throughout his/her life. The human mind has manifestation born out of such recollection of experiences as delineated on the screen of mind.

### **The Undertones of Bio-text**

Dr. Anand delves deep into the dynamics of writer's mind to fathom the tapestry of petals, thorns, pearls and shells, which has the basis and constitutes bed to germinate the bio-text. Without the fertility of the bed and the gauging the manure and seedling and its environs, in other words, the human body and mind, its circumstances, the influence of the books, paintings, sculptures, parenting, friendship, theosophical showers have indelible effect on the outpour of the writer. Dr. Anand again is at his best when he simply astounds the critics by saying:

“The major question, therefore, is that every creation, fictional or otherwise, has a basis in reality, and the text is imbued with the bio-text. The idea that the experience of the writer becomes the canvas on which he paints his ideas, lends further credence to this idea that there is a subtext under the text, and this subtext is, in fact, the bio-text, which informs the entire body of literature.”

### **The Epical Consciousness**

The epical consciousness constitutes Asia's aesthetics, imagination, metaphorical, mythical, legendary and valour tales to up bring progeny generation to generation. It is historicity mixed with the imagery of bravery, prowess, royalty and inspirational legendary tales to tell and mesmerize the folks. There are so many Ramayanas starting from Balmiki's text and context.

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Tulsidas has different beginning and ending and in-between eulogized the characters as lords of divinity, whereas Balmiki sticks to the reality of manliness in the character and avoids more or less the element of divinity. The writer's personal perception and strong relishment creeps in the writings and the same forms part of the history created by literature.

Literature is a sensible and aesthetic cascading of the history and not dry and dreary chronological rendition of events. Dr. Anand has candidly elaborated the point:

“It is history which receives a poetic treatment, after which, the writer's additions, change it into an aesthetic experience. History, when read, gives us joy, but when a story is read, it gives a different kind of joy, although both these genres have a plot full of incidents only. One more idea can be incorporated here. History is natural selection, whereas story or a literary creation is a conscious selection of the writer, and this consciousness, in fact, is the real creative or esemplastic power, also christened as imagination, which moves an event from its historical spectacle, to a make-shift encampment [imagination] where genres like poetry, prose and fiction are mass-produced.”

The creative consciousness may be processed by circumstantial incidental happening as in Balmiki's Ramayana, the episode of shooting a bird-in-love by the hunter augments the pathos in poet's sensibilities and he utters “Ma Nishad.....” Thus, the epical episodes are set in motion. Incidental, accidental and coincidental happenings are nothing except the exploring of the self-participation in the films, poems, epical characters, stories and dramatic performances. The audience weeps, laughs, regrets and hails due to the mental synchronization with the bio-text as the textual personization has entered the minds and body of the reader or audience.

### **Intrinsic and Inherent Substance of the Story**

Dr. Anand's work ‘Confessions of a Corpse’ [short stories] has a story in which the protagonist was known to the author, but fictionalized to be dead in the story. The death is imaginary phenomenon and not actual in reality. So to conclude a story the writer imagines the end the way he wants to conclude. To arouse pathos, to have comparative and symbolic

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presentation, to do poetic justice, to leave the reader to conclude in his own manner, these are various endings at the command of his ingenuity of brain. Intrinsic studies are required to gauge the inherent sensibilities of the writer. Even the symbolism has a personal touch, social bearing and psychological aperture. Deconstruction of the structural edifice of writing can be done by entering the mind of the writer and understanding the dynamics and wave length at which it was working at that particular time keeping in view the circumstances.

### **The Reciprocity of the Receptive Reader**

The text and the context are gone with the writer and the new generations are to interpret the biotext. Even the contemporaries of a writer may interpret the biotext differently than the writer himself. The creative and circumstantial manifestation of the interpreter may be different due to various factors. The affiliations, allegiance and vengeance may be the reasons. Dr. Anand is well aware of such reciprocal interpretation of the receptive reader who is always **at** liberty to appreciate, criticize and interpret the biotext in his own way.

“The interpretation of the text is at the most a protean process in which there is nothing constant except change. In fact, the creation of text is the result of a creative moment, which, once passed, may not be replayed. In the same way, the interpretation of the text is also a by-product of a particular moment, in which, personal, political and social factors are at play, and this moment of interpretative creativity may never repeat itself, rendering the creative and interpretative processes highly endemic to the author or reader’s biographical credentials, and cultural setting at the momentous moment of creativity or interpretation.”

### **Three Dimensional Aspects of Writings**

The conception of an idea is nurtured as text in the contextual circumstances and thus, an entity called the writings of an author becomes reality. It has the potential to be projected as future entity since it is always pregnant with new ideas to be taken forward by its reader/futuristic authors. A relay race of ideas goes on like the moment studded in a string, electric current flowing in a wire, watery droplets weaved in a stream, all cascade towards the ocean of thoughts. Similarly, the pretext, text and context blend together to have trajectory of

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futuristic triad. These are independent from each other, there is intrinsic relationship, interdependence but not total subjugation as biotext has its vital role to play. Roghayeh Farsi, has rightly said:

“Text itself is not an independent entity as it evolves out of interrelationships between author/reader and context. Text is the product of contextual demands and author’s/reader’s responses. Taking these points into consideration, Anand draws on the Deleuzian time notion which is based on the three passive syntheses of past, present, and future. Biotext is similarly argued to have grown out of the three passive syntheses of context (past), author/reader (present), and text (future). While Deleuze’s time notion is less concerned with the politico-historical aspects of the event, biotext is highly political and historicizing.”

### **J. S. Anand’s Biotext and Critics**

A cursory view of the formalists, contextualists and other school of critics is taken on board to gauge the intensity and intrinsic value of the theory of Dr. Anand. It becomes crystal clear that the schools of thought hitherto flourished shall be termed lopsided or one-eyed king in the realm of the blind. Dr. Anand has given us a wholesome and comprehensive peep into the arena of criticism. The metaphor used by Dr. Anand to bring home the meaning of the postulation of this theorization has been appreciated as: “This Indian critic metaphorically compares the unavoidable relation between the poet and the context to a flying kite and its string and writes: “the writer is himself the creation of certain circumstances, and he is rooted in certain societal reality” (Personal email, 2013, p. 1).”

His comprehensive rendering has been appreciated and differentiated from the hackneyed track of critics. The touchstones and milestones set by the critics all over the world have limitations and the writings have to have such halts and hurdles to pass. But Anand has entirely changed the gambit of criticism by formalizing a theory of his own; of biotext which is real as existentialism and composed of synthetic structuralism. It is aptly remarked:

“While Formalists textualize the text by setting aside the context and focusing on the aesthetic features, the reader-response critics valorize the reader over text and author. Contextualists pay the least attention to either reader or text *per se* and approach text as a political phenomenon for or against context. Therefore, they subjectify the author and politicize his/her work. Anand tries to include all these diverse dimensions in his theory of biotext without abiding by any one. He argues that biotext has a synthetic structure and for this feature it retains different dimensions.”

### **J. S. Anand’s Dynamics of Time and Thought Process**

Biotext is the feature which encourages the present comparison of Anand to Deleuze. In a personal email, Anand writes,

“Whatever flows into the text is actually the result of a long process, of association and dissociation, sifting and filtering, all going on at the same time. The creative process does not wait for artificial tools to be applied to a work of art. A work of art is the creation in the bio-tanical garden of life [ . . . ] the whole cosmos is filtered through the poet’s consciousness at the time of creation.”  
(2013, p. 5)

### **Moment’s Multilateral Dynamics in Life and Death**

Dr. Anand has developed his thesis independently of the already established premises of postulations of Deleuze, where ‘death lies with the same and sameness, whereas life is for the different and difference.’ In biotext there is interwoven relationship of before and after, and the cut itself is bio to result into biotext. The past and future have inter-se relationship and these are riveted with the present bio of individuality. There is no death as the moments die or submerge to emerge again to merge further to make a chain of events. The eventual outcome is biotext. The comparative study of Deleuze enlightens us to have more peeps into the gravity of mind with which Anand has woven the tapestry of his innovative thesis of criticism.

“Deleuze’s account of the third synthesis rests on individual dramas, especially Hamlet from which he got the notion of caesura or cut in time. Deleuze features this synthesis with the caesura, then its assembly, its ordering into infinitely multiple series of “before” and “after” the cut, and the difference between the time before the cut and the time after the cut. In Deleuze’s notion of the third synthesis, an unclassifiable, disorienting time erupts, which Deleuze calls “the event”. The event establishes an incommensurable “before” and “after” marked by asymmetry: “We may define the order of time as this purely formal distribution of the unequal in the function of a caesura” (as cited in Bogue, 2010, p. 41).”

Ronald Bogue has gleaned three paradoxes in the theory which Dr. Anand dwells on: that is the virtual past which is simultaneous with the present (Bogue, 2010, p. 39), second ‘that the past coexists with itself’ (2010, p. 39) and the third paradox is, in Bogue’s analysis, ‘that the past pre-exists every present moment’ (2010, p. 39).

### **The Interregnum of Third Space**

The spatial interregnum in-between the duo of past and present, text and context, thought and action, seedling and sprouting has been gauged in its finesse by Dr. Anand and beautifully it has been elaborated with illustrations, metaphors and simply wonderful comparative analysis in a scientific manner. In Anand’s thesis of biotext and third space, the literature with all its might and flight of fancy merges in the pragmatic realm of scientific explorations. The critic has quoted email of Dr. Anand to bring home the point under discussion:

“The last but not the least important feature of biotextuality is the affinity that Anand accords to his notion by modeling and naming it Third Space after his postcolonial predecessor, Homi K. Bhabha. In a personal email, he talks of biotext as the Third Space which like the Bhabhalian notion, is virtual, hence unrepresentable, and protean, hence multiple.

Biotext opens new horizons on the freer maneuver of literary critics and besides it lacks the limitations of the other approaches. In a way, the processive and processual base of biotext renders it an eclectic lens which like the schizophrenic is always on move, on shift, and in change, hence its fluidity, flexibility and all-inclusiveness. Such fluidity helps biotext escape the clichéd or institutionalized forms of reading and at the same time leaves its footprints in every other approach. In Anand’s apt words, biotext “informs the entire body of literature” (2013, p. 2).”

## **Conclusion**

### **Thesis, Anti-thesis and Synthesis**

Every creative consciousness outpours some thesis in the shape of theorism born out of its own and collective circumstantial consciousness, but slowly it has to meet its anti-thesis with the dynamics of time and space. The anti-thesis basically is also a form of thesis but it is born out of reaction to the thesis of the past and comes in a modified state to supersede the dogmatics and traditions of the earlier thesis. The action and reaction in thoughts and action, in the contexts and texts would not stop until and unless the arrival of synthesis on the stage to douse the flame of antagonism inflaming with the anti-thesis.

The philosophy of such thesis has been remarkably described as “This transcendental condition is characterized by the model of individuation, taken from the philosopher Simondon. Individuation is a process of actualization which emerges from a metastable site which is itself marked with “a line of continuous variation”, hence multiplicity.”

Let hundreds of flowers bloom in the garden of creative consciousness nurtured by the individuality, nursed by the circumstantial consciousness and its multiplication must not stop to have unified humanity in diversity at its embedded roots.

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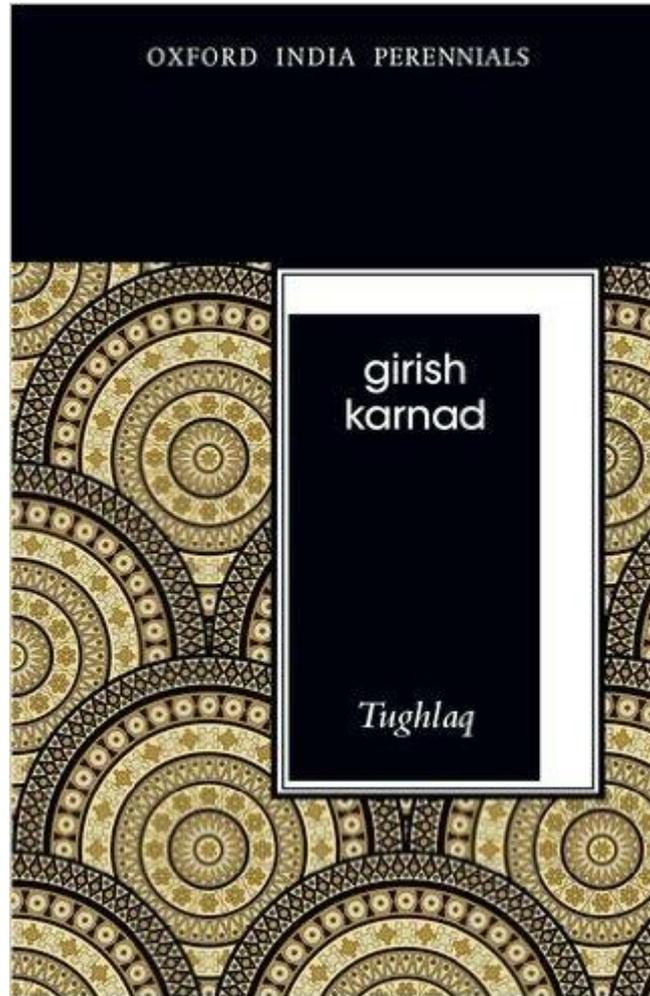


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**Treatment of History in Girish Karnad's  
*Tughlaq* and *Tale-Danda***

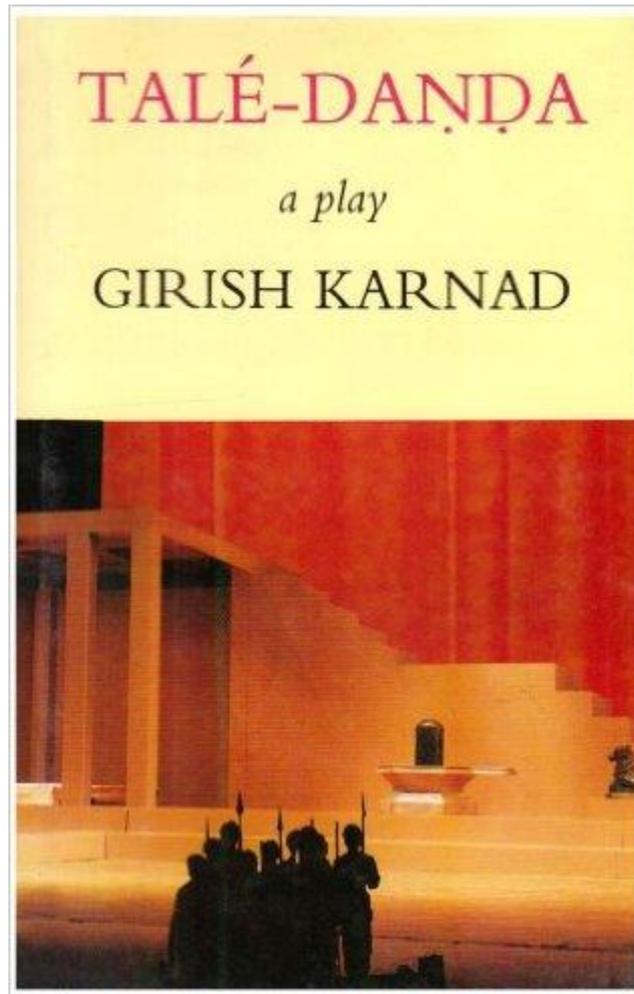
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**Abstract**

Girish Karnad's plays reflect the contemporary Indian society, cultural and social life through the use of folk-tales, myths and historical legends. Indian Drama has from its origin borrowed heavily from the country's mythological and historical past. *Tughlaq* and *Tale-Danda* are the two primarily historical plays in which Karnad employs history to comment on the pathetic and corroded state of Indian modern day politics. In *Tughlaq*, Karnad has taken a chapter from the Muslim period of history and drawn striking parallels between India then and India now.

Karnad's *Tughlaq* should be studied to find parallelism between the realities of the fourteenth century India ruled by the Sultan and the twentieth century democratic country governed by a Prime minister and his colleagues in the cabinet. In *Tale-Danda* Caste system has given the Brahmins and other high caste people a privileged position and they have never tolerated any violation, including an inter-caste marriage. This condition has not changed till now.



So, in *Tale-Danda*, Karnad deals with one of the most sensitive issues of all times – the ugly face of caste system of India that was in the past hailed as an ideal one. Though the play is based on an historical event, Karnad's adept use of symbolism, irony and humour makes it a modern play. It is because of these modern devices that the situations and the minor characters in the play dramatize the contemporary socio-political scenario in India.

The play *Tughlaq* offers a clear suggestion that mixing of religion and politics always results in national disaster. Girish Karnad has shown us the importance of the past in the

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present. Through the select plays, he has not only raised the issues of majority-minority religions but has also given vent to intra-religious problems like caste system. Although he delineates the issues of both inter-religious and intra-religious problems, he advocates a non-violent and need-based ideology without giving privilege to any one of them. He is of the view that there is a need to learn lessons from the past as our past prefigures our present and myths resonate in modern experience.

**Key words:** Girish Karnad, *Tughlaq* play, *Tale-Danda* play, treatment of history in plays, Basavanna, veerasaivism.

### **Presentness of the Past**

Girish Karnad is one of the foremost playwrights of the contemporary Indian stage a richness that could probably be equated with his talents not only as playwright but also as an actor and a director. He is widely appreciated for his technical experiments, as well as, displaying a wide range of themes and subjects. He merges myth and reality, past and present. He brings in legendary and historical figures that are able to carry his message of restructuring the present society. Karnad artistically links up the past and present in his plays, even when he takes up a legendary or a historical figure like Tughlaq in *Tughlaq*, or King Bijjala and Basavanna in *Tale-Danda*. He relates them to the present times, they hold a contemporary relevance. Commending his plays, Kirtinath Kurtoki has said, “Karnad’s plays are thoroughly modern in outlook and spirit” (239).

### **Modern Day Relevance of *Tughlaq* and *Tale-Danda***

Indian Drama has from its origin borrowed heavily from the country’s mythological and historical past. *Tughlaq* and *Tale-Danda* are two primarily historical plays in which Karnad employs history to comment on the Indian modern day politics, and through which he engages to illustrate how ‘history is made’ and ‘repeated’.

Karnad discloses that he has written *Tale-Danda* dealing with the two decades ending in AD 1168, in the city of Kalyan, a man called Basavanna assembled a congregation of poets, mystics, social revolutionaries and philosophers. Together they created an age unmatched in the history of Karnataka for its creativity, courageous questioning and social commitment. Indeed, they rejected anything ‘static’ in favour of the principle of movement and progress in human enterprise. Karnad wrote *Tale-Danda* in 1989 when the ‘Mandir’ and

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the 'Mandal' movements were beginning to show again how relevant the questions posed by these thinkers were for their age.

### ***Tale-Danda***

In *Tale-Danda* Karnad has given an old historical tale a new meaning and significance which is highly relevant in the present context. The play is based on a historical incident which took place in the twelfth century but the issues it raises are extremely to our contemporary society. The play is set in a place called Kalyan. The play questions the two thousand year old traditional values of the caste-system. As the caste in India is derived from birth alone and cannot be transferred from one caste to another in any way as reward or anything, it is a closed system. The essential features of the caste system was its hierarchy, restrictions on inter-caste marriages and on eating or living together to the extent of not touching each other.

### **Two Categories of Characters**

The characters in the play are grouped into two classes in this play upholders and detractors of the caste system. Basavanna, King Bijjala, Jagadeva, Madhuvarsa, Harlayya and all the Sharanas want dismissal of the caste system and are set to bring in equality based casteless society, whereas Sovideva, ManchannaKramita and Damodara Bhatta advocate the Vedic dharma and want to continue the restraints of the caste system. The upholders treat any attempt to shake it as a sacrilege and profane attack on the Vedic dharma and consider the caste system as divine and need-based.

### **Basavanna**

In the 12th century AD, during the two decades from 1148 to 1168, the city of Kalyan was the centre of a powerful social and religious reform movement led by the poet saint Basavanna. The movement known as Lingayatism or Vira-Saivism aimed at the abolition of the caste system in Hindu society and tried to propagate free thinking and devotional worship in place of ritualistic worship of god. This brought the followers of this sect, known as Sharanas, in conflict with the orthodox upper-caste section of society. King Bijjala had appointed Basavanna as the Finance Minister. The poet was not interested in the political life; but as a true religious leader, he was conscious of the then burning social problems of his age.

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## **Karnad's Approach**

Availing the ambivalent nature and episodic elements present in the Indian history, Karnad, on the one hand, permits its opponents to strongly demand its removal and, on the other hand, allows the exponents of the caste system to advocate its appropriateness and necessity.

Karnad's *Tale-Danda* takes us on a journey into history that brings forth issues equally relevant to our own times. Basavanna called the assembly or a congregation of poets, mystics, social revolutionaries and philosophers. The participants were true thinkers who believed in creativity, courageous questioning and social commitment. The reformers talked of the religious matters and of God and Man.

For the first time, they emphasized the use of the mother tongue, the tongue of the common man instead of using Sanskrit, the language of the learned people. The new leaders condemned idolatry and temple worship, because they believed in the principle of kinetic and in the progress in human enterprise and rejected everything that was static. In addition, they emphasized in the equality of the sexes, and they dedicated themselves with devotion and hard work. Their outstanding work was to oppose the caste-system, not just in theory only; but also in practice. It brought tremendous opposition and the wrath of the orthodox Hindus of the society. Basavanna's movement ended in bloodshed. The year 1168 became an epoch-making event in the history of Kalyan. The movement started for the cause of humanity ended in bloodshed. A prosperous society plunged into anarchy and terror. Karnad's *Tale-Danda* pictures only one week of those turbulent days in Karnataka.

The orthodox Hindus became violent when the reformers acted upon their age-old beliefs and traditions. A Brahmin girl married a low-caste boy. The orthodox people proclaimed *Tale-Danda* or Death by Beheading. Tale means Head and *Danda* means Punishment. Basavanna had used the words, related with the offering of the head and the barbarous practice, when people in the unpleasant situation or accusation uttered the words - May my head roll or I offer my head. Basavanna disliked this practice and expressed outrage in his movement.

## **Caste System**

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The Indian society was traditionally divided into four *varnas* and even the professions of the people were categorized accordingly. Now with the passage of time there is a freedom in the choice of profession but Indians have not been able to liberate themselves mentally from the idea of caste and creed. Rather, caste system remains an integral part of Indian thinking. As such, inter-caste marriages are not a very common phenomenon. *Tale-Danda* exposes this practice of the Hindu society. In this play, the movement against the social evil is launched by the Sharanas for whom sincerity of action and selfless service of humanity is a true religion in which all human beings are equal.

### ***Tale-Danda*- a Drama of Ideas**

Karnad's *Tale-Danda* is a drama of ideas. It is also a historical play, which is based on history. Its plot is centered on the great religious upheaval and social reform, which took place in Karnataka in the 12th century. Basaveswara, popularly known as Basavanna, was the central figure of the movement. He advocated and propagated moral, spiritual and egalitarian values for peaceful and purposeful life. He established 'AnubhavaMantapa' a unique academy of socio-spiritual and religious experience. It was based on democratic principles of universal love and goodwill. Philosopher, poet and minister Basavanna reformed and revived Vira Saivism in Karnataka. Shaivism or Saivism is the name given to the divisions that regard Lord Shiva as the highest Supreme Self or Brahman. It is considered as one of the oldest divisions of Hinduism and its followers are popularly known as Saivites or Lingayats. Under the leadership of Basavanna they formed a reformist religious group 'Sharana'. The basic notion of this religious group was that everybody is a devotee and ultimate offspring of Lord Shiva, so all are equal without any caste or class discrimination. For the first time in the history of Hinduism, Basavanna created awareness on discriminatory and exploitative nature of the dominant social practice called as caste system. The Shudras in the Hindu society were treated in the most inhuman way. Through the Sharana movement, Basavanna fought against this orthodox practice of caste system. As a great humanitarian he is also called 'Vishwa-guru' whose teachings are for the welfare of all humankind. His divine experience was the basis of his social life that aimed at providing everyone with equal opportunity, regardless of gender, caste or social status.

The great Hindu tradition saw such a sect as a dividing force. Basavanna was quixotic in believing that the prevalent system should be trackled and attacked to bring about change.

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But for reasons more than one, though the Virasaivism movement caught the imagination of all, it failed to bring about any dazzling revolution. Basavanna's disillusionment in the play begins with Jagadeva, the son of the staunch Brahmin, Sambashiva Shastri, who is estranged from his father because he becomes Sharana, member of the Virasaiva community and keeps the company of those who are the lowest in the Varna hierarchy, his best friend being Mallibomma, a tanner, which his family detests. Shastri's wife, Bhagirathi, laments her own fate as well as that of others like them. "Why can't that Basavanna see some sense? In every household in Kalyan, it's the same story. Father against son- brother against brother." (TD 2)

In India, particularly, one's original caste- identity is difficult to erase. Bijila, the king of Kalyan, while talking to his wife, Queen Rambhavati, reveals his past as well as opines on one's caste-identity in general which is crucial to the understanding of the play:

Your family- the Hoysalas, you may be Kshatriyas. But I am a Kalachurya. Kattachurra. A barber. His majesty king Bijila is a barber by caste. For ten generations my forefathers ravaged the land as robber barons. For ... You can peel off top to toe, but when the new skin forms, there you have again: a barber- a shepherd- a scavenger! (TD 14)

Basavanna, the great Virasaivism saint-poet, was King Bijjala's Treasurer, later relinquishes his post, first to illustrate non-attachment to the material world and then to lead the people to salvation. Bijjala thinks very highly of Basavanna:

Basavanna wants to eradicate the caste structure, wipe it off the face of the earth. ... They sit together, indifferent to caste, birth or station. (TD 15)

Basavanna completely refused to accept the authority of Brahman class and ordained a new priesthood – the Jangamas (the spiritual Guru). The Sharanas opposed idolatry, rejected temple worshipping, upheld equality of sexes, celebrated hard, dedicated work and preached abolition of caste and animal sacrifice. The vision of Basavanna is shown in the play-

It'll solve nothing. They are insufferable moralists.

You know that verse of Basavanna's?

Do not steal

Do not kill.

Do not ever lie.

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Do not rage...

I've built temples to keep my subjects happy. (TD 15)

The above remark exposes the double standards of those in commanding positions. It also reveals the superfluous relation of the state and the subjects. The lack of compassion at the top is responsible for the tides of vengeance that follow in any given society. Bijjala knows that the people of higher castes do not respect him properly. He admits: "In all my sixty two years, the only people who have looked me in the eye without a reference to my lowly birth lurking deep in their eyes are the *sharanas*: Basavanna and his men" (TD 15)

Society is bonded by prejudices, which are useful and keep it cemented; so much so that Indian history as perhaps other histories also have proved that when broken they have proved dangerous. In a discussion with Basavanna, Bijjala says:

BIJJALA. As a child you tore up your sacred thread and ran away from home. Birth, caste, and creed mean nothing to you. But don't you delude yourself about your companions, friends. If you really free them from the network of brothers, sisters, sons, daughters, uncles and second cousins, and let them loose in a casteless society they will merely sputter about like a pile of fish on the sand and die! (TD 20-21)

Moreover his city flourishes because of their hard work and devotion. While accounting for his love of *sharanas*, the king himself says:

Every sharana seeks only to earn the day's keep, makes no extra demands, treats profits with contempt.... Even those who despise the *sharanas* for their beliefs need them for their economic enterprise- as indeed I do- and they pour money into the *sharanacoffer*. (TD 24)

Thus Bijjala feels grateful to Basavanna and his men. But his son, Sovideva is not happy about it. He dislikes Basavanna and his philosophy. He knows that Basavanna spends large amounts of money on his hospitality to his guests. So he suspects that Basavanna has stolen money from the royal treasury. He therefore decides to prove this by opening the treasury. Thus, he wants to win his father's favour by making Basavanna unpopular.

The play is a luminous illustration of Game of Power–Politics. Every one attempts to assert himself at the cost of humanity and brotherhood. Jagadeva abandons his old parents in chase of his political career. He confesses - “my father was breathing his last. My mother, alone and helpless, was banging her head against the wall. And I was at the Treasury! You know why...Tomorrow.....I shall be the hero of the sharanas.” (TD 30)

Basavanna’s preaching discards superstition. When Prince Sovideva, who suspects him of taking money from the royal treasury to spend on the ‘sharanas’ makes an inspection of the treasury, he finds no money missing from it. Jagadeva, a sharana, comes to know Sovideva’s plan to open the royal treasury. At once, he gathers thousands of sharanas and encircles it. Thus, he prevents Sovideva from tampering with it. Meanwhile Basavanna comes and immediately sends Jagadeva to attend to his ailing father. He takes Sovideva into custody, finds the treasury intact after verification and then releases him. People consider it miraculous that the treasury is intact. Bijjala scolds Sovideva severely for his misdeed. So, Sovideva feels deeply frustrated, humiliated and hurt. He, therefore, decides to avenge this on his father and Basavanna. Damodra Bhatta, Queen’s priest and ManchannaKramita, the Brahmin adviser to the king, are very unhappy about Basavanna’s mission and Bijjala’s support to it. So, they join hands with Sovideva in the plot against Bijjala and Basavanna.

Jagadeva goes home and finds his father on death bed. His father’s death makes him remorseful of neglecting home and so performs all the funeral rites for his father though it is contrary to his new faith. His emotion gets reversed as Basavanna visits him to express his condolences. Disturbed by the feelings of guilt for betraying the sharana-faith, Jagadeva blames Basavanna for his bereavement. The followers of Basavanna take it as a sign of miracle and try to deify him. Basavanna is grieved at it. In response to the query from a follower as to how many miracles he has performed so far, he says:

How many shall I say? Will eighty-eight do? Showing off my eighty-eight miracles my *Bhakti* has become a carnival wardrobe. It’s in such tatters I can’t find a patch large enough to hide my shame. (TD 25)

Basavanna is against religious intolerance. When the news reaches him that at Maddur, some sharanas have occupied a Jain temple by force and are threatening to smash the idols in it and turn it into a Shiva temple, he is disturbed. Jagadeva tries to justify the

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actions of the 'sharanas' by saying that Jains always provoke them. What Basavanna says to Jagadeva is pertinent to our own times as well:

Violence is wrong, whatever the provocation. To resort to it because someone else started it first is even worse. And to do so in the name of a structure of brick and mortar is a monument to stupidity. (TD 29)

Basavanna's words are relevant to modern Indian socio – political crisis and it provides the solution to it, when he says – “What the world thinks is immaterial. It is a question of living; breathing human beings.....What matters is what *we* consider right.” (TD 44)

These words of Basavanna reflect the modern Indian socio-political crisis and provide the answer as well:

The rich will make temples of Shiva what shall I, A poor man do? My legs are pillars The body, the Shrine The head of cupola Of gold... Things standing shall fall. But the moving shall ever stay. (TD 29)

These words of Basavanna appear to hint at the root cause of all communal problems in India. We are “standing” and not “moving” and in order to progress we have to move. About the so-called miracles which the Indians are prone to believe in, Basavanna says, “Isn't this life abundant enough? Do we need more miracles?” (TD 29)

*Tale-Danda* criticizes the cheap mentality of people who take interest in other's household affairs and spread rumours through gossiping. When Mallibomma, an outcaste, comes to Jagadeva's house the doors of neighbouring houses fill up with women, children and old men, all watching. It is the dilemma of life when we are in a dire need even our neighbours retreat to extend a helping hand, but they are always ready to ridicule and criticize our weakness. Gundanna talks about the inhumanity of the people when no one approaches to rescue Haralayya and Madhuvarasa from the butchery of soldiers. They all watched, shut inside their houses.

In western countries there is a lot of scope to utilize one's experience in the development of the nation even after retirement. Even the government also provides aid to **Language in India** [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com) ISSN 1930-2940 16:9 September 2016  
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find them work, but unfortunately in our country the experienced have to sit idly at home. The mutual cooperation of fresher and experienced can change the destiny of India. The government should take some steps towards it. Jagadeva in Scene Four shares with us the grief of Shastri, “Do you know how a man crumbles when he loses power? In the service of the court, father was tall and imposing and walked with long, confident strides. Weighted each word before parting with it. But the moment Bijjala threw him out, he shrank, like a piece of soaked cloth. Even his voice went shrill. It was loathsome” (TD 30).

Jagadeva who becomes an ardent and trusted disciple of Basavanna, in spite of his intimate proximity with Basavanna does not undergo the kind of ‘conversion’ that the saint aims at. Bhakti religious believed in proselytization unlike classical Hinduism. Conversion here is not to be mixed up with the narrow and restricted connotation that it has acquired in these days. Converts to Virasaivism were taught to give up the way of image-worship yajnas and animal sacrifices and instead strive for *anubhava*- the spiritual experience which was to be gained with help from the guru; the spiritual guide led the soul to Siva. Siva was the ultimate being, the formless God, since Virasaivas believed in the *nirguna* form of God.

Jagadeva as a convert presents a problem of a different kind from that of his fellow converts. Jagadeva lacks the humility that his guru possesses and takes his relationship with Basavanna to be a ladder by which he can climb to success. Having tasted of authoritative power over the sharanas, Jagadeva’s was a stray case of a Brahmin convert. The majority belonged to the lowest rung of the social structure that were naturally under his sway and misusing his ability for leadership, he falls a prey to his hunger for power. He tries to become a self-styled guru without the qualities.

Basavanna ignores his father’s serious illness to guard the Treasury, his unharnessed lust for power makes him bitter against the saint later, even in his presence, and the reader is shocked to read Jagadeva’s dialogues with Basavanna:

JAGADEVA. Do you know what you are? You are a manipulator. A clever, conniving trickster.

BASAVANNA.(Pained). Why do you say that?...

JAGADEVA: You and I must have been enemies through the last seven births. That's why, no matter what I say; you can turn me into a worm in the eyes of the people. (TD 31)

Jagadeva, blinded by burning ambition and demands of the ego, had expected to turn into a 'here of the sharanas' overnight by merely guarding the Treasury in the absence of Basavanna and to the 'taken out in procession, hoisted on the shoulders' of 'friends and companions', and this makes him spiteful about the 'hosannas to Basavanna's prime motive, like Gandhiji during the freedom struggle, was to lead his people to freedom, spiritual and social freedom in the latter case. But the irony is that the very cause which attracts mobs to a certain revolution is forgotten as soon as their ends are achieved and they revert to their old selves and mentality again. This results in a rejection and disregard of not only the ideals, but also the person behind them.

Basavanna had endeavoured to take the sharanas, the convert-devotees through the six phases of *bhakti* (the Life's way for the devotee) comprising of the *bhakta* phase, in which one engages in- devotion and worship (Bhakti), the mahesvara-phase, in which one practices-discipline (nishte), the prasadi-phase, in which one receives the Lord (avadhana), the pranalinga-phase in which one moves from avadhana to experiencing the Lord (anubhava), the sarana-phase, in which the devotee surrenders and suffers in the love of the Lord and feels the divine joy (ananda), and finally in the aikya-phase, one is ultimately united with the *linga* or the Lord and merges completely in Him (samrasa).

Basavanna himself in the process of the difficult spiritual ascent knew that he had a juggernaut task before him, particularly because it concerned common people who were caught in the quagmire of material life and for whom the lofty ideals of Virasaivism as of any religion were far-fetched and remote. Basavanna realised that he would have to translate his preachings in the people's language to make them comprehensible and palatable for them. When Gundanna, a sharana youth in his impulse about initiating some tribals into the sharana youth in his impulse about initiating some tribals into the sharana fold, approaches Basavanna along with Kalayya, another sharana youth, he tries to pacify them saying: "A roof over their heads first, and a piece of land to spread their mats on. We can minister to their spiritual needs later."(TD 34)

In a multi – cultural country like India it is difficult to erase the petty–mindedness regarding one’s original caste–identity, even it means lending a helping hand at the time of crisis. The play has a humanistic approach with an appeal for social justice. The sharanas lived a life of contradiction because of their mixed identity. On the one hand they treated King Bijjala with respect, as the King himself says:

In all my sixty-two years, the only people who have looked me in the eye without a reference to my lowly birth lurking deep in their eyes are the sharanas: Basavanna and his men. They treat me as- as what?... as a human being. (TD 15)

On the other hand, they could not rise above their petty mindedness when it came for discrimination against others from lower castes, even it meant lending a helping hand in times of crisis. The sharanas turn their prime concern of humanism upside down and Basavanna laments his inability to convert his people completely:

There’s a famine raging in Andhra. These poor souls have trecked for weeks in search of food and shelter. But our people won’t let them stray this side of the river because of their low caste. I tell you, for sheer inhumanity our people have no equal. (TD 35)

Moreover, Sharanas were not satisfied with their own religion and mentality that again results into division of superior Sharanas and inferior Non–Sharanas i.e. another hierarchy.

The current idea of religious conversion from one religion to another can also be derived from the happenings in *Tale-Danda*. Kalyana and Gundhanna inform Basavanna about the arrival of some tribals in the region. Kalyana suggests to Basavanna about their belief in idol worship and desires that they should be taken in their fold by the sharanas: “Basavanna, those tribal have brought their god with them. You should see that idol. Rolling eyes, a tongue lolling out. It’s very funny. I think- the sooner you initiate them into our fold the better!” (TD 35)

This view is important in the contemporary context where some communities in India are visualizing a threat to their existence as their people are converting into other

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communities such as Christianity. But our main interest, at present is to cater to the physical needs of the people and their spiritual concern should be put on a back burner, suggests Girish Karnad. Gangabhika, the wife of Basavanna, offers bags of paddy, textiles, salt and spices for the tribals who are coming from Andhra. The sufferings of these tribes who have tracked for weeks in search of food and shelter, hunger and starvation of the people on their way from Delhi to Daulatabad in Tughlaq, remind the sufferings of the poor in India.

Sharanas assemble at Basavanna's house. They propose a marriage between Brahmin girl and Dalit boy. Madhauvarasa, a Brahmin by birth and his wife Lalitamba decide to give their daughter Kalavati, aged about twelve in marriage to Sheelavanta, aged about fifteen, the son of Haralayya, a cobbler by birth and his wife Kalyani. They go to see Basavanna and his wife Gangambika to seek his blessings. Basavanna is shocked, thrilled and dumb-founded when he hears of the alliance. At the back of his mind is the hair-raising vision that the mystic Allama had once showed him- 'a pantomime' in which along with the holy, beautiful, he had seen the 'grotesque and the evil'. Basavanna remembers: "Filth beyond belief. As though a river full of spring blossoms also carried decaying flesh, rotten limbs, uprooted hair, a flood of pus- the stench inter-woven with the fragrance. I couldn't bear it." (TD 32)

This trance-vision coincides with the routine prophecy made by the goddess Dyamavva of the Banyan Tree to Haralayya's mother on a full moon day. She had prophesied that 'rivers of blood will flow if the marriage takes place', and 'human limbs will rot in the streets' (TD 41-42). Madhuvarasa notices Basavanna's reactions and remarks: "Naturally, we are gratified to notice that even you are taken by surprise. It's evident you did not anticipate that your efforts would bear fruit so soon..." (TD 37)

The parents of the to be bride and groom desired to gain publicity as epitomes of Virasaivism- true sharanas not namesake, whereas in reality it was just the reverse. Basavanna intervenes to explain the futility of the act.

Until now it was only a matter of theoretical speculation. But this- this is real. The orthodox will see this mingling of castes as a blow to the very roots of varnashrama dharma. Bigotry has not faced such a challenge in two thousand years. I need hardly describe what venom will gush out, what hatred will erupt once the news spreads. (TD 38)

The playwright has not only highlighted the orthodoxical and diplomatic nature of upper ruling class, but also makes careful examination of pride and self – righteousness of Sharanas, whom sole concern, was the propagation of their ideologies. At the prospect of an inter–caste marriage both the parents of Kalavati and Sheelavanta are unwilling to listen to their children, just to prove their sincere concern for the movement.

But Madhavarasa is in a heroic spirit and says that “Like Lord Shiva himself, we shall drink that venom and hold it blocked in our throats! ...It’s s question of life and death for these children. From tomorrow the wrath of the bigoted will pursue them like a swarm of snakes, to strike as they pause to put up a roof or light an oven. Who will protect them then?” (TD 38).

Madhuvarasa goes on to say “I shall not hesitate to sacrifice my daughter’s life to forward the cause of our great movement.” (TD 39) He behaves in the manner of a dogmatic typical father who dare not hesitate to sacrifice the life of his daughter in the name of Machiavellian ideologies like family, honour, religion, gotra, caste, etc.

India has come up as the host of Common Wealth Games on the platform of world. But is still circumscribed by hollow conventions and cherishes the family honour which depends on adherence to caste system. The murder of Delhi based journalist Nirupam Pathak, Kuldeep–Monika murder case, Sushma Tiwari–PrabhuNochil case, Monika–Rinku case, Manoj Banwala–Babli case and various such heinous crimes cover the headlines of daily news papers and tele–media that help to unveil the diehard and conventional thinking of our highly educated Indian society. Basavanna’s teaching that no one has a right to sacrifice anyone, not even himself, is soon turned down by Haralayya who says, “The word ‘sacrifice’ strikes terror in me. Too long have my people sacrificed our women to the greed of the upper castes, our sons to their cosmic theories of rebirth.”(TD 39)

The play deals with the issues related to the authority of parents imposed upon the decision making skills of their children. In our nation the judgment of parents is final irrespective of the views of their children. From the decision of career to marriage everything should be in accordance with their sole choice. When Sheelavata, the son of Haralayya, is

asked by Kakkayya for his take on marriage prospectus, the former is dumbfounded. He looks at his parents for their response and is confused a lot.

Basavanna tries to convince the ignorant and fanatic sharanas; “We are not prepared for the kind of revolution this wedding is. We haven’t worked long enough or hard enough!” (TD 44). When Bijjala comes to know about the marriage, he goes to meet Basavanna to request him to call it off, as a horde of chest-beating Brahmins had confronted him and created uproar. Basavanna informs him that the parents are adamant in their resolve regarding the marriage, in spite of his warning. At that same time not approving Bijjala’s step-treatment to the sharanas he says: “But who is being punished for those crimes? Are the birds to be penalized because the snakes resent their ability to fly?” (TD 48). When Basavanna hints that a mass exodus of the sharanas will follow if he quits the kingdom, Bijjala is brought to his sense and his admiration for Basavanna gives way to contempt:

You are a sly fox, I admit it. A hundred and ninety-six thousand *sharanas!*  
They only have to lay down their implements...Will any jack-ass of a king  
agree to place himself willingly in such a mess? (TD 48-49)

^Bijjala feels that the sharanas being the economic backbone of the state are blackmailing him by twisting his areas behind his back; he threatens Basavanna that he will stamp all of them ‘like a cushionful of bed-bugs’. And then announces indifferently:

If you and the Brahmins are bent on self-destruction, go ahead. I wish  
you luck. I shall take my army away and entertain myself with a little  
warfare. When you are done, I shall return home to count your corpses.  
(TD 50)

Bijjala is as ineffective in controlling his indulgent son Sovideva, the future king, who has a claim to the throne because he is the scion and not because he is capable. This situation also has echoes in modern Indian political history, where there are ample instances of children promoting politicians. Sovideva’s hollow pride is injured when he learns that his father has conceded with the demands of the sharanas and is enraged: “They could have had a quiet wedding in some village Instead they have to flaunt it here- in the capital.” (TD 55)

Damodra Bhatta rushes to Indrani's house in the courtesan's Quarter to talk to Sovideva about the marriage. Indrani, the courtesan, sees no reason in their going hysterical about it. So, Damodara explains her how the inter-caste marriage is a great sacrilege: "Indrani, the Rig Veda tells us that the four Varnas flowed out of the Primodal Man: the Brahmin from the head, the Shudra from the body of the purusha. Howhorrifying!" (TD 55) Indrani is not convinced and praises Basavanna and his followers: "But the sharanas have done so much for the downtrodden and the destitute" (TD 56). Damodra criticises Bijjala for protecting the *sharanas*. As Manchanna arrives with some courtiers, tradesmen, soldiers and citizens, he starts proclaiming the titles of Sovideva as if he had become the king of Kalyan.

Sovideva, Damodara and Manchanna hatch a plot against the king. They first get the loyal servants of Bijjala killed and then imprison him in his own palace. Basavanna knows this and requests *sharanas* to stand by the king. But most of them refuse to save him from Sovideva. So he himself, followed by a few sharanas, visits Bijjala who is greatly perturbed. He advises him to cling to Lord Shiva who alone can save him from danger. As he leaves for Kappadi, Bijjalafrenzily sobs and laughs.

In a disastrous conjunction, Sovideva joins with ManchannaKramita, Brahmin adviser to the king and Damadora Bhatta, the queen's priest and conspires to arrange for his own coronation under the pretext that the king no longer deserves to occupy the throne. Bijjala is pained to see Sovideva wearing his crown and repents: "I was blind, Rambha. Blind! Fool! Fool! I was on the watch against the worm's outside- while raising a snake inside the house. Imbecile! (TD 62)

Karnad, in the convention of problem playwrights like Galsworthy and Shaw, exhibits the corruption and disorder prevailing in the contemporary society. Sovideva's bribing Bijjala's men, Bijjala's forefathers' bribing Brahmins for their sole profits and Mallibomma paying Rachappa, the palace guard, five gold coins to show him the secret passage that lead into the palace bring out the hollow structure of modern sophisticated society. Corrupters are easily escaped by bribing some amount. They do not pay the taxes and keep hidden the black money in Swiss and other international banks; still they are not questioned, because they have political support. Common Wealth Games 2010 scandal is a fresh example where thousands

of crores were spent without any planning to bring shame and criticism on the global front. If a person dares to reform the society he is misinterpreted by the same.

Sovideva follows the advice of Damodara and Manchanna and persecutes the *sharanas* violently and mercilessly. As Basavanna is away, the *sharanas* lose heart and go helter-skelter. Damodara and Manchanna feel satisfied with it. But Manchanna is afraid of Basavanna: “The *sharanas* have lost their drive and in course of time are bound to revert to caste for sheer survival. Unfortunately Basavanna is alive and we can take nothing for granted” (TD 79). Damodara pleads with Sovideva for forgiveness and generosity. But Manchanna advises him to get all the *sharanas* decimated without any discrimination and pay a brief visit to his father-in-law for his safety. Sovideva therefore leaves with Damodara, keeping Manchanna in charge of the kingdom.

Basavanna hoping in vain that politics could be spiritualised asks the *sharanas* to stand by the king as gratitude for his sanction to the marriage. Basavanna is let down once again by his followers who are not willing to ‘sit and sway in the shadow of the throne’. Jagadeva and others cannot wait and they hound the king and attack him with swords and finally kill him at his own behest, as he tells them that if they fail the curse of Basavanna would fall upon their head. Bijjala takes on the capital punishment voluntarily. Just as the *sharanas* have got out of a Basavanna’s hands, Sovideva was beyond his father’s control. Sovideva orders the preparations for his own coronation and commands that the *sharanas* be made to pay for their defiance of the throne. Sovideva spews violent revenge and sees to it that the *sharanas*- the ‘tribe of snakes’ do not escape death:

Men women, children- cut them down. Set the hounds after them... burn the houses that gave them shelter, Burn their books. Yes, the books! Tear them into shreds and consign them to the wells. Their voices shall be stilled forever- (TD 90)

Towards the end of the play, Basavanna is intimated about Bijjala’s death and it is the last straw that he can take. Basavanna can do nothing but pray:

Whose name? And whose face? Whose wound and whose blood? This carcass is mine. And I am also the King’s slayer. So this is the last of

Allama’s tableaux. The festivities are over, the streets deserted. The night

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has departed and the world is silent. Lord of the Meeting Rivers, absorb this inner shrine into the fine tip of your flame. Until all becomes light within light. The great dawn of light. (TD 88)

Basavanna is completely depressed by this time and confines to his wife that 'nothingness' had begun 'to beckon him'. Unable to convert the extremists that the sharanas had turned into in spite of his commitment to non-violence as well as the growing dehumanization all around, Basavanna leaves Kalyan and retreats to Kappadisangama, the place where three rivers meet in search of ultimate refuge. From reverence for the sacred confluence of rivers 'then' to dividing a river into four 'now', we have surely come a long, long way.

The end of Basavanna at the climax marks a disgraceful failure of 'Sharana Movement'. The whole city reels into bloodbath. People rush through the streets howling, panting and screaming. No one console them. The fathers of the bride and groom are caught, their eyes are plucked out within iron rods, and they are tied to the legs of an elephant and are dragged through the streets of Kalyan. There are widespread riots, stampedes, destructions and murders. "Temples are sacked, trading houses torched. The city reels under gruesome tales of rape, murder and rioting." (TD 89) Sovideva orders to kill Sharanas wherever they are caught – "Pursue them. Don't let them escape. Men, women, children – cut them all down. Set the hounds after them... Burn the houses that give them shelter. Burn their books... Tear them into shreds and consign them to the wells." (TD 90) The bloodshed and chaos in the play is reminiscent of the atmosphere of uneasiness during the partition of India.

The play depicts a strong opposition and rejection of the social change, which triggers social and political restlessness because of handful authorities that persist to maintain the pre-set social order and system as a stigma of our society and culture. The new King Sovideva declares, "From this moment all sharanas, foreigners, and free thinkers are expelled from this land on pain of death. Women and the lower orders shall live within the norms prescribed by our ancient tradition, or else they'll suffer like dogs... For the King is God incarnate!" (TD 90). Vedic chants at the coronation of Sovideva that re-established the caste order in Kalyan. Thus, all the efforts to establish a casteless society become futile.

The play criticizes the heinous practice of child marriage system, which unfortunately is still in practice in some undeveloped and rural areas of U.P., Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Bihar, M.P., Rajasthan, Haryana, West Bengal and some other states of India. Savitri, the wife of Jagadeva, aged about fourteen, Kalavati, a Brahmin girl, aged about twelve and the daughter-in-law of Guddevva are shown as child brides. Madhuvarsa's concern regarding Kalavati is appropriate when she says, "our daughter isn't a woman yet. To send her with her husband now." (TD 46) The early marriage of young children snatches their childhood before they understand the real meaning of it. It pre-matures them affecting their psychological and physical growth. The girls have to pay with their lives.

The play questions the rooted traditional belief regarding having a son for the ultimate salvation. Bijjala ridicules this Hindu philosophy, "A son is the final goal of human existence! It may be that he drinks your blood and chews your bones to mash. But he is the one who'll keep your soul fed till eternity."(TD 20) In scene seven Bijjala is kicked off by his son Sovideva to be rolled on the ground. Jagadeva the only son of Amba and Shastri is unconcerned for his ailing parents. He only cares only about the treasury and his reputation among Sharanas. Amba expresses her grief, "I was alone here. You went off with the sharanas and didn't even bother to check if we were dead or alive here. How much can one ask of the neighbours? So embarrassing to." (TD 4)

*Tale- Danda* is a tragedy of an individual as well as the tragedy of a society. Caste system remains an integral part of Indian thinking. As such, inter- caste marriages are not a very common phenomenon. The play exposes this ugly deformity of the Hindu society. In this play, the movement against the social evil is launched by the Sharanas for whom sincerity of action and selfless service of humanity is a true religion in which all human beings are equal.

Karnad's *Tughlaq* includes numerous illustrations of deceit, atrocity and political strategy so the play may be labelled as a tale of brutality, political scheming and treachery. However, that is just one aspect of this political saga. On a profound level, the play proves to be a meditation upon man's frailties, dilemmas, intentions and inclinations that ultimately determine the fate and existence of mankind. Karnad's *Tughlaq* thus, brings home the

message that if a man wants to fulfil his ambition, he must be true to his thoughts, words and deeds.

*Tale-Danda* exploits history for the purpose of social change and amelioration of low caste people. The play successfully exposes the heinous outcomes of this undesirable system. The play deals with the theme of love, humanity and brotherhood to treat all the people alike irrespective of their colour, caste and creed that poisonously sweep in to destroy the harmony and peace structure within the country. So many times innocent people have been slaughtered in the name of religion and caste, but the fact remain the same and “Casteism” still exists. People like Basavanna are born in every era in the form of Siddhartha, Gandhi, Vardhamana, but the power – mongers, sectarian bigotry and religious fanatics weaken the secularism and multi – culturalism.

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## **Enhancing Effective Speaking Skills through Role Play and Tongue Twisters**

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**Dr. K. Ravindran, M.A., M. Ed., M.Phil., Ph.D.**

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### **Abstract**

This study focuses on enhancing effective speaking skills among undergraduate students by using effective tools of language learning through activities like role play and tongue twisters. The deficiency in communicative ability among the students is caused due to the students' lack of interest, inadequate practice in learning language and inappropriate environment for teaching EFL learning. Role play and tongue twisters can be quite simple and are good techniques to organize. Role play is highly flexible; it develops the initiative and imagination. It differentiates the individuality. Role play would train students to deal with the unpredictable nature of language. The English language teacher should focus on the factors that can contribute to a role-play and use tongue twisters to ensure greater success in learning English. They need to make sure that the language achievement demanded is well within the learners' capacity, their own enthusiasm, and careful and clear presentation and instructions.

**Key Words:** Importance of EFL, Role of Speaking, Role Play, Tongue Twisters

### **Introduction**

It is important to acquire speaking skills than all other skills. "We learnt our first language through speech". (As cited in the techniques of Language Teaching by F.L.Billows) In the same way, if we teach the second language it would be more effective and also creates interest among the learners. A child should not depend only on text books for learning language, instead by constant practice or by using the language intensively they can acquire speaking skills. The teacher can act as a facilitator to teach language in the classroom. Through

activities the teacher can kindle the interest of the students towards second language. “Dr. Wilder Penfield, of the Neurological Institute, Montreal, has shown the theoretical and practical justification for this, the child must be taught entirely through activity, the language being used as if it were the mother tongue of the child, regardless of whether it is understood or not” (as cited in The techniques of Language Teaching by F.L.Billows )

The teacher can stimulate the learner’s interest by providing the situations like real communication. This would reduce the intense stress of facilitator to conduct activities in the classroom. As a result, the learners can reduce their anxiety and make them comfortable to learn the language in a spontaneous manner.

The EFL through speech assist the learners to develop their confidence and also helps them to groom their personality. The learners has the responsibility to withhold their position as a good speaker, so that he has to maintain the quality of speech with proper pronunciation, appropriate stress, perfect pause and exact intonation.

### **Task Based Language Learning**

“Task requires participating to function primarily as ‘language users’ in the sense that they must employ the same kinds of communicative process as those involved in real world activities”. (As cited in Task-based language learning and Teaching by Ellis,R) Thus the task plays an important role in the process of speaking skills. The teacher can enable the learners by directing them through various exercises with the proper practice.

Crookes and Gass (1993a and 1993b), Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2001) suggest that tasks are directed at oral skills, particularly speaking. (Task-based language learning and Teaching)

Widdowson (1998) notes, there is a fundamental difference between ‘task’ and exercise according to whether linguistic skills are varied as developing through communicative activity or as a prerequisite for engaging in it. However, when learners engage in tasks they do not always focus on meaning and act as language users (Task-based language learning and Teaching)

Crookes (1986) suggests that there seems little sense in extending the team to include language free activities (Task-based language learning and Teaching)

Nunan (1989) suggests that a communicative task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. the task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right. (Task-based language learning and Teaching)

### **Role Play**

Role play is a communication based technique which increases the learner's exposure and the oral fluency of the participants. Role play promotes the learners identity in a unique manner. It enables the learners to learn different social context, different styles in different languages, various expressions and body language. Thus the result would be more effective in the use of communicative process.

Darroch and Steiner (1970) considered role plays would be more successful if role players only played themselves, hence avoiding difficulty of taking on another 'character'.(Role play: Theory and Practice)

Mixon (1971), Hamilton (1976) and Geller (1978) argued that role plays approximate reality more closely, and involve participants more directly and profoundly. . (Role play: Theory and Practice)

Geller (1978) clearly attributed replication failures to the technical inadequacy of such role play experiments, particularly with respect to subject involvement. (Role play: Theory and Practice)

Bem (1968) argued that role plays were not an adequate substitution for experiment but offered a valid replication methodology, provided that the experiment met the demands of functional equivalence with respect to the experiment replicated. That is, the behaviors of the stimulation need not necessarily be identical to those of the target experiment or situation, but

must provide an analogue that produces the same results or output. (Role play: Theory and Practice)

*Role play* as a term describes a range of activities characterized by involving participants in ‘as-if’ or ‘simulated’ actions and circumstances. It may range from very minimalist settings of short duration to highly complex extended situations such as the grindstone experiment, where a whole island was taken over and participant’s role played the aftermath of a nuclear disaster for several weeks (Olsen and Christiansen, 1966). (Role play: Theory and Practice)

In brief, role play or simulation technique are a way of deliberately constructing an approximation of aspects of a ‘real life’ episode or experience, but under ‘controlled’ conditions where much of the episode is initiated and/or defined by the experimenter or therapist. (Role play: Theory and Practice)

Children explore their words with play; they posit ‘as-if’ conditions; they exercise and practice powers and aspects of their identities, in both bizarre and banal make-believe settings. They ‘research’ each other’s reactions, powers, knowledge and identities when joining in make-believe play with other children. Researchers, therapists and educators are in a similar position but most frequently use little freedom with respect to the selection of tools and media of exploration. Some time ago Illich, in *Tools for Conviviality* (1973), pleaded for researches to become anarchic in their use of language and research tools, to open up the sterile epistemological grounding that characterized most research methodology. This plea has been little heard and even less acted upon. Role play could facilitate a less hampered approach, indeed could provide fun and real interest in a research or therapy collaboration with subjects and clients-experiences unimaginable within conventional paradigms. (Role play: Theory and Practice)

## **Tongue Twisters**

“Tongue Twisters are the perfect warm-up vehicle for the individuals to practice” (As cited in Hand book of African Educational Theories and Practices) It creates more curiosity in the midst of the learners. The exercise helps the learners to realize their actual oral fluency. The

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drill allows the learners to adapt complicated words to be pronounced easily and also permit the learners to differentiate the similar sounds of different words. Whereas the continuous practice makes the learners tiresome in repeating the same word or phrases, as a result of this the learner would be able to produce accurate sounds of the words unconsciously.

The teacher can make use of simple spoken tongue twisters to improve learner's pronunciation. The learners can improve the speech skills by practicing faster the twisters without slipping up the language. This would help them to strengthen the pronunciations with superior vocal habits. "People who have a word on the 'tip of their tongue' very often have intuitions about the word's beginning or end, and these intuitions are right more often than guesses about the middle of the word (Brown and Mc Neill 1966, Brown 1978)" (As cited in the Slips of the Tongue and Language Production)

The teacher can achieve the English speaking environment by avoiding the learners who speak their native language in the classroom. The learners can gradually improve their conversational speed from the level of normal to high. "Butterworth and Whittler (1980) report that impermissible constant clusters can quite easily be elicited in a tongue twister task "(The Slips of the Tongue and Language Production)

Stemberger's argument for an abstract phonological representation contrast sharply with Mowrey and Mackays' (1990) view, who deny the necessity of assuming abstract sub lexical units. They recorded speech motor activity during the production of tongue twisters, such as "Bob flew by Bligh Bay". They determined whether the patterns of muscles activity were normal. Many utterances were either normal or abnormal in both respects. However, there were also utterances that sounded perfectly normal but showed unusual patterns of muscle activity, which Mowrey and Mackay viewed as blends of the patterns of motor activity typical for different target segments. (Aspects of Language Production)

Mowrey and Mackay's conducted that their data represented a serious threat to the standard Model, which claims that during speech production discrete linguistic units are selected and combined before motor execution. They argued that on such a view, the motor patterns should always correspond to those typically found for particular linguistic units and should not be blends of such patterns. They note that "the only way to 'save' such models from the evidence

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is to postulate parallel but independent processing for the two structures which will contribute to the intermediate articulation right down to the level of motor specification, and then ‘allow’ for simultaneous and graded execution. Unfortunately, ‘saving’ a model is far cry from providing support for it”. (Aspects of Language Production)

Mowrey and Mackay’s study is important because it shows the abnormalities can rise during motor execution that cannot be perceived even by the most attentive listeners. (Nolan, Holst and Kuehnert 1996; Stevens, 1989) However the data do not present a serious challenge for the standard Model. First, it is unknown how often motor errors similar to those found by Mowrey and Mackay occur in natural speech situations in which speakers do not repeatedly produce tongue twisters but sequences of more dissimilar words, without EMG needles in their tongue and lips. . (Aspects of Language Production)

Second, as Flower (1995) has pointed out, Mowrey and Mackay only recorded speech motor activity at as small parts of the motor programs, as Mowrey and Mackay assume, or larger structures, which would imply that at least some of the alleged motor errors could be regarded as feature or segmental errors. Finally, though the EMG data indeed do not provide new support for the standard Model, they are perfectly compatible with in. the domain of the model is the generation of speech plans, and speech errors analyses have provide ample evidence that there plans can include errors. The speech plans must be executed and nothing in the model precludes that additional error can arise during this process. To exclude the existence of abstract linguistic speech plans, it must be shown that all of the evidence usually explained by reference to the properties of these plans can be explained solely by reference to motor variables. . (Aspects of Language Production)

## **Strategies**

The study focuses on the benefits of using Role play and tongue twisters, how it gives the learners the opportunity to practice by improving a range of real life spoken language in the class room, it is extremely effective technique if the students are confident and cooperative. To improve communication in the classroom, to add interest, relieve boredom and increase the

motivation of the students and to create an effective learning situation in the English language learning the benefits are listed as follows:

1. Role play develops participatory skills
2. It helps the learners to develop their decision making power
3. It allows the participants to overcome their fear and make them comfort zones
4. Feedback system facilitate the students to retrieve their mistakes immediately and also lend a hand to them to improve their knowledge in language learning
5. Tongue twisters helps the students to learn the simple phrases and phonetic structure of the language
6. Repetitive drills allow the students to differentiate the similar sound structure of the variety words
7. It would also create enthusiasm among learners
8. It allows the students to maintain clarity in their language.
9. The exercise allows the students to develop their vocal agility flexible
10. The use of tongue twisters as a fast, fun and effective vocal warm up challenges vocalists to improve pronunciation and technique in speaking skills.
11. By practicing tongue twisters, they can develop well-modulated voice, with right tone and pitch so that the level of volume required can be adjusted.
12. Articulate the words with clarity, precision and the correct rhythm.
13. The students can adapt the immediate settings-time, place and audience.
14. The individual personality of speakers can be developed
15. The students can express their thoughts in a spontaneous fashion, also will develop the flow in their dialogue.

## **Conclusion**

The level of language needed for a discussion should be lower than that used in intensive language-learning activities in the same class. It should be easily recalled and produced by the participants, so that they can speak fluently with the minimum of hesitation. The task helps the learners to express their ideas. The use of role play and tongue twisters increases the learner's interest and allow the students to involve in a communicative task. It also promotes social

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interaction skills. Finally, with communicative tasks the learner's speech has a definite aim, which may have to be achieved with in a time limit. This makes it easier to recall the attention of the whole class at the given time, in order to report and compare their achievements.

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## **Pragmatic Skills in Children with Different Types of Learning Disability: A Comparative Study**

**Shruti Kumari, BASLP**  
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**Bushaira Afreen K., BASLP**  
**Pallavi S. Paithankar, MASLP**

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### **Abstract**

The study aimed to evaluate and compare pragmatic skills in children with Learning disability who had dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyslexia & dysgraphia and mixed type (dyslexia + dysgraphia + dyscalculia) with typical developing age matched children. A total of 40 children within the age range of 11-13 years participated in the study. The participants were divided into five groups with eight each. To assess pragmatic skills Pragmatic Protocol by Prutting and Kischner (1987) was used. The test consisted of 3 subtasks i.e. verbal, paralinguistic and non-verbal aspects. Each child was engaged in conversation with clinician for 20-30 minutes. The responses were scored and subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS (version 16.0) software. The study results indicated poorer performance for verbal aspects and better performance for paralinguistic aspects in all children with Learning disability. The children with mixed type of learning disability had poorer performance on verbal and non-verbal aspects of pragmatics compared to all other groups of children with and without learning disability. Hence, it can be concluded that not only children with learning disability have poorer pragmatic competence but also within them there are large variability's.

**Key words:** Learning disability, Pragmatic skills, Dyslexia, Dysgraphia, Dyscalculia.

### **Introduction**

All humans are born with a natural ability to learn language (Troike, 2006). Language is a complex system which can be best explained by breaking it down into its functional components form, content and use (Bloom & Lahey, 1978). Form is a component that connects sounds and symbols in order i.e. phonology, morphology and syntax. Content

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encompasses meaning or semantics and use is also termed as pragmatics. These five components phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics are the basic rule systems of the language. Pragmatics is the ability to use language appropriately within a social, situational and communicative context (Lahey, 1988). Pragmatic ability depends on social knowledge and skill as well as linguistic knowledge and skill. Typically pragmatic skills develop within first 8 years of life (Ibertsson, et al., 2009).

Learning disability (LD) is a neurologically based processing problem that interferes with learning basic skills such as reading, writing and/or math. They can also interfere with higher level skills such as organization, time planning, abstract reasoning, long/short term memory and attention. On review of literature on LD it's a known fact that children with LD not only face academic problems but also present with problems in language acquisition. Children with LD have particularly difficulty with pragmatics (Wallach and Liebergott 1984).

There are different types of LD i.e. Dyslexia, Dysgraphia, Dyscalculia and Mixed. Dyslexia is a type of reading disorder in which the student fails to recognize and comprehend written words. Dyslexia is a severe impairment in the ability to read, despite normal intelligence, normal opportunities to read, and an adequate home environment. It is a problem resulting from difficulties with phonological awareness that is a lack of understanding of the rules that govern the correspondence between specific sounds and certain letters that make up words (Lyon & Moats, 1997). Dysgraphia is the inability to perform motor movement, i.e. extremely poor handwriting. Dysgraphia is associated with written expression, which entails writing skills that fall substantially below those expected given the individual's age, intelligence, and education, such that academic achievement or activities of daily living are significantly impaired (Birsch, 1999). Dyscalculia is defined as developmental arithmetic disorder, which refers to selective impairment in mathematical thinking or in calculation skills (Fletcher & Forman, 1994). Arithmetic involves recognizing numbers and symbols, memorizing facts, aligning numbers, and understanding abstract concepts such as place, value and fraction.

Researchers documented 8-15% of school population with LD having writing problems, approximately 6% having arithmetic difficulties and 80% having reading difficulties. It is also noted that 43% of the LD students with arithmetic difficulties also have reading problems (Robinson, Manchetti, and Torgeson 2002). Lapadat (1991) did a meta-analytic review of 33 studies on pragmatic language skills of students with LD in the age range of 3-12 years. The author concluded that children with LD presented with a consistent pervasive pragmatic deficits in which are attributed more over to insufficient social knowledge.

Patricia and et al (1993) attempted a study on social communication skills in two children with LD and two without LD. A pragmatic analysis of each child's language production resulted in fewer code switching in children with LD compared to children without LD. Each child appeared to possess his own particular conversational style. As a group, the LD children made more personal and fewer imaginative statements when talking with nondisabled peers.

Troia (2011) attempted a review study to evaluate the influence of pragmatic language deficits on writing skills of students with language learning disabilities. The study results indicated various aspects of writing skills being affected in the children with LD due to poorer pragmatic language skills. Hence, the author recommended explicit instruction on some pragmatic issues in the writing of children and adolescent with LD.

Presently in Indian context there are many studies which have delineated different language aspects in children with LD. However, there are very few studies which have focused on pragmatic language competence in different types of learning disabled children i.e. children with dyslexia, dysgraphia and dyscalculia compared to typical developing. To evaluate whether pragmatics skills can differ in various types of LD the study was attempted.

### **Aim of the Study**

To evaluate and compare pragmatic skills in children with LD who had dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyslexia & dysgraphia and mixed (dyslexia + dysgraphia + dyscalculia) type with typically developing age matched children.

### **Methodology**

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A Comparative Study

## **Participants**

A total of 40 children within the age range of 12.4 years participated in the study. The participants were divided into five groups with eight each i.e. Group 1 children with dyslexia (LD1), Group 2 children with dysgraphia (LD2), Group 3 children with both dyslexia & dysgraphia (LD3), Group 4 children with mixed type with dyslexia, dysgraphia and dyscalculia (LD4) and Group 5 typically developing children (TD).

## **Tool Used**

To assess pragmatic skills 'Pragmatic Protocol' by Prutting and Kischner (1987) was used. The test consisted of 3 subtasks i.e. verbal aspects (Task 1) with 18 subparts, paralinguistic aspects (Task 2) with 5 subparts and non-verbal aspects (Task 3) with 7 subparts.

## **Procedure**

Initially the parents of the participants were explained about the purpose and procedure of the study and consent was obtained. Each participant were made to sit comfortably in a well-lit and ventilated room and the clinician formed a rapport. The clinician further started conversation with the participant in which they were asked to say about themselves, their school, hobbies etc. the duration of the conversation was up to 30 minutes approximately for each participant. The conversation was recorded and played later for analysis. The scoring of the speech sample was done using a 2 point rating scale where '0' stood for inappropriate responses and '1' for contextually appropriate response and '2' for no opportunities. The scores were tabulated for each subtask and subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS (version 16.0) software. Descriptive statistics was done to find out the mean and standard deviation values for each group and also within the groups. As a part of inferential statistics, one-way ANOVA was performed and as there was statistical significant difference post hoc test LSD was applied.

## **Results and Discussion**

The findings of pragmatic skills are described as following.

**Verbal aspects:** The mean value for verbal aspects of group LD1 was 10 (SD = 0.75), LD2 was 10.625 (SD= 0.916), LD3 was 10.625 (SD= 1.187), LD4 was 7.625 (SD= 0.517) and TD was 14.125 (SD= 1.457) indicating a statistical significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between LD1, LD2, LD3 compared to LD4 and TD. The findings are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1: Verbal aspects mean and SD all across five groups.**

GROUP	N	MEAN	SD	F Value	P Value
LD1	8	10.000	0.755	41.545	0.000
LD2	8	10.625	0.916		
LD3	8	10.625	1.187		
LD4	8	7.625	0.517		
TD	8	14.125	1.457		

### Paralinguistic Aspects

The mean value of paralinguistic aspects for group LD1 was 5 (SD = 0), LD2 was 4.75 (SD= 0.7), LD3 was 5 (SD= 0), LD4 was 5 (SD= 0) and TD was 5 (SD = 0) indicating that there was no statistical significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between all five groups. The findings are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2: Paralinguistic aspects of Mean and SD across five groups.**

GROUP	N	MEAN	SD	F Value	P Value
LD1	8	5.00	0.00	1.020	0.100
LD2	8	4.75	0.70		
LD3	8	5.00	0.00		

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<b>LD4</b>	8	5.00	0.00		
<b>TD</b>	8	5.00	0.00		

### Nonverbal Aspects

The mean value of non-verbal aspects for group LD1 was 5.75 (SD = 1.164), LD2 was 6.25 (SD = 0.707), LD3 was 5.875 (SD = 0.834), LD4 was 3.625 (SD = 0.517) and TD was 6.75 (SD = 0.377) indicating a statistical significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between LD4 compared to LD1, LD2, LD3, and TD. The findings are presented in Table 3.

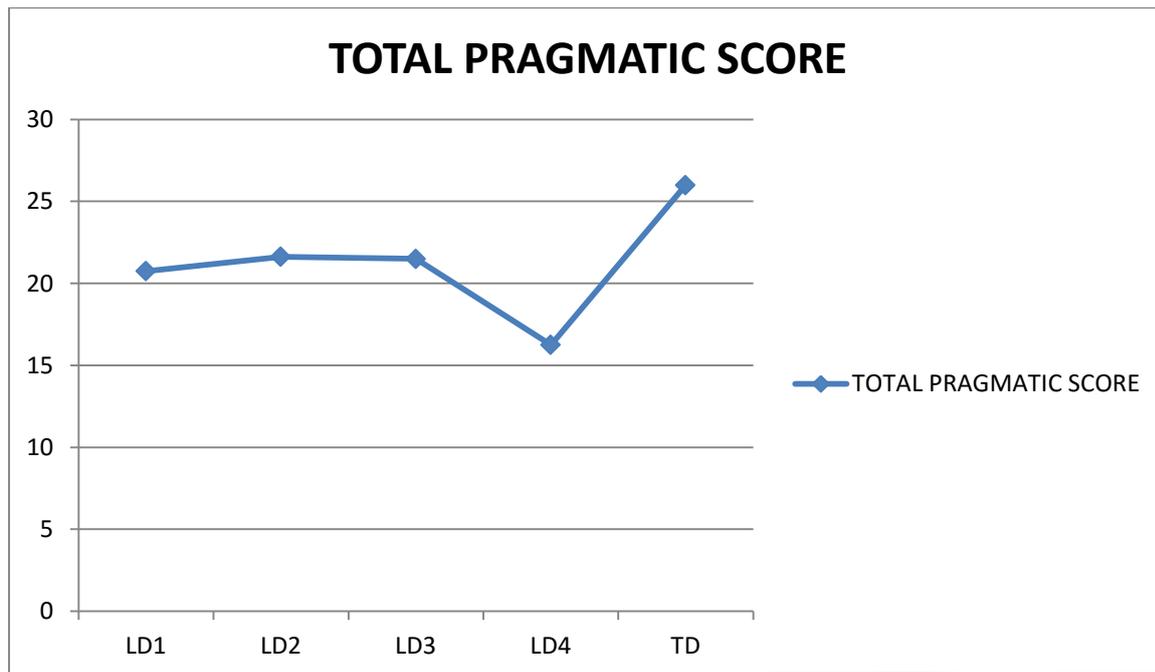
**Table 3: Nonverbal aspects of mean and SD across five groups.**

<b>GROUP</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>MEAN</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>F Value</b>	<b>P Value</b>
<b>LD1</b>	8	5.750	1.164	19.364	0.000
<b>LD2</b>	8	6.250	0.707		
<b>LD3</b>	8	5.875	0.834		
<b>LD4</b>	8	3.625	0.517		
<b>TD</b>	8	6.750	0.377		

### Total Pragmatic Score

The mean of total pragmatic scores for LD1 was 20.75 (SD = 1.752), LD2 was 21.625 (SD = 1.06), LD3 was 21.5 (SD = 1.069), LD4 was 16.25 (SD = 0.707) and TD was 26 (SD = 1.511) indicating statistical significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between LD1, LD2 LD3 compared to LD4 and TD. The findings are displayed in Figure 1.

**Figure 1: Mean of total pragmatic scores across five groups**



## Discussion

As per the results of the study the findings of Total pragmatic scores of all the five groups indicated that children with mixed type of learning disability performed poorer followed by Group 1 i.e. dyslexia, Group 3 i.e. dyslexia and dysgraphia and Group 2 i.e. dysgraphia compared to typically developing children. These results are in convergence with findings of Wallach and Liebergott (1984) study.

Secondly, on examination of verbal aspects in all five groups it is observed that all the children with learning disability had poorer scores compared to typical developing children. The item analysis of verbal aspects of conversation indicated that the poorer performance was mainly due to lesser use of speech acts, inadequate topic maintenance, turn taking, limited use of conversational repair strategies and reduced cohesion and contingency in children with LD. These findings are correlating with findings of Bryan et al, (1983) study on pragmatic skills of children with learning disability.

Thirdly, on examination of non-verbal aspects only children with LD with mixed type i.e. having dyslexia, dysgraphia and dyscalculia had poorer scores compared to typical developing children. On item analysis it is observed that these children presented with inadequate body posture, physical proximity, eye gaze and unnecessary body movements

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while conversation. This also indicates that children with LD other than mixed type are less or not affected at all in nonverbal aspects of pragmatics.

Fourthly, on examination of paralinguistic aspects among all the five groups of children, it was observed that there was no problem in paralinguistic aspects in all the groups. This sub task consisted of intelligibility, voice quality and fluency aspects of speech which could be least affected due to presence or absence of LD in children.

### Summary and Conclusion

With the study findings it can be concluded that not only children with learning disability have poorer pragmatic competence but within them there are large differences. Hence, while assessing and planning intervention programs for language one should focus on different types of learning disability and consider more on verbal and non-verbal aspect of pragmatic competence.

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## **Recruiters' Perceptions on Teaching Writing Skill for the MBA Students of Anna University Affiliated Colleges in Tamilnadu**

**P. Sivakiri. M.A., M.Phil., B.Ed.  
Dr. V. Thiyagarajan, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D.**

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### **Abstract**

In the wake of global economy, communication skill in the world of business in English is considered the first and foremost asset of an organisation. Employability of an individual is determined not only by the knowledge in his field but by a set of communication skills including written communication in English as well. Business writing is a highly required skill for all the organisations around the globe. Companies seek employees with good communication skill especially in Business English. This paper focuses on the recruiters' perceptions on teaching writing skill for the MBA students of Anna University affiliated colleges in Tamilnadu. The paper hypothesises that there is a gap between the expectations of the organisations and the outcomes of the written communication course offered by Anna University for the MBA students of its affiliated colleges.

The study consists of 10 recruiters of different organisations who are engaged in recruiting the MBA graduates for their organisations. A set of questionnaire has been given to seek their responses on their perceptions, the collected data has been statistically analysed and the outcome is projected in detail.

**Keywords:** MBA- Master of Business Administration, BE- Business English, BEC- Business English Certificate

### **1. Introduction**

As a consequence of globalisation, every organisation faces tough competition in its functions both internally and externally. Powerful business strategies are being planned and implemented to achieve the business objectives and to sustain their growth. The success of

the organisational strategies, to a great extent, depends upon expressive, persuasive, and informative communication. An individual needs efficient and effective language skill particularly written communication to implement these strategies. Written communication remains more formal medium of language skill than the remaining language skills. Business writing is a rudimentary element of all the organisational activities. Writing business correspondences is one of the primary competencies for the strength of the organisational communication.

In the present situation, an MBA graduate is expected to possess good writing skill to get a job in an organisation. Recent researches state that the traditional approach to business education used by most universities and colleges does not prepare the students to be successful or at least survive in the business environments (Bailey, Sass, Swiercz, Seal, & Kayes, 2005; Olian et al., 2002). Anna University framed a curriculum and syllabus for written communication course in MBA programme that reflects more conventional way of teaching Business English and different genres of written communication. Organisations recruit MBA graduates with effective organisational communication ability especially in written communication. MBA graduates should develop their written communication skill in areas such as writing business correspondence, memos, reports, letters, emails, etc.

Learning to write in business context is an essential component in written communication. Recruiters feel frustrated because the MBA graduates' competence in written communication is not appreciable. Many MBA graduates fail in placement and recruitment examinations because of inadequate competency in written communication. Further, recruiters have added that MBA graduates do not have adequate knowledge in writing business correspondence in workplace. This paper aims to investigate the recruiters' perceptions on the written communication expected of MBA graduates.

## **2. Nature of Study**

Writing is an indispensable skill for an MBA graduate to be placed and to be effective in his/ her works in an organisation. Though the written communication course incorporates different strategies to teach various skills and components of writing, the MBA graduates' competence to perform these skills is not sufficient. The main reason for the inadequacy is that they lack business communication skill especially in business vocabulary, lexical

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competency, constructing small and long sentences and so on. Moreover, they are not able to overcome their mother tongue influence on the second language. Hence, the study is essential to know the perceptions of the recruiters involved in recruiting MBA graduates to identify the effectiveness of the written communication course offered to MBA graduates.

### **3. Formulation of Hypothesis**

Today, it is accepted that written communication, including writing business correspondence play very important role in securing employment in reputed organisations for an individual. Possession of good written communication skill in a workplace leads to success. Many MBA graduates fail to get employed because of lack of written communication skill in business. Recruiters opine that there is a dearth of skill in written communication especially in writing business correspondences, presentation, logic, clarity, grammar, tone, body language, style, etc.

### **4. Research Methodology**

The study concentrates on recruiters' perceptions on teaching writing skill for MBA students of Anna University affiliated colleges in Salem region. The data have been collected from recruiters who are engaged in recruiting MBA graduates from Salem region, Tamilnadu. As it is an empirical study, a questionnaire has been set to seek the response from the recruiters and the primary data has been collected using the questions (Types: dichotomous, Likert's 5 point scale, etc.) analysed with appropriate statistical tools and the outcomes have been discussed in detail.

### **5. Limitations of the Study**

The paper focuses only on the perceptions and responses of the recruiters who are engaged to recruit the MBA graduates. 10 recruiters from various organisations have been selected as respondents and a questionnaire has been prepared with the topics of language skills, communication skills and writing skills and given to them. The responses have been tabulated and analysed statistically.

### **6. Data Analyses and Interpretations**

#### **6.1 Importance to Communication Skills**

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When the recruiters look for a candidate with an MBA degree, communication skill of the candidate tops the list followed by teamwork, technical, leadership, and managerial skills. The following table depicts the responses rated by recruiters on the importance of communication skill in a recruitment process.

SI No	Importance to Communication Skills	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	Yes	8	80
2	No	2	20
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

The above table depicts the details for the question, ‘do you give importance to the communication skill?’. Recruiters give more importance to all skills such as attitude, aptitude, reasoning ability, problem solving, etc. This has been included to check their importance in communication skills. A majority of recruiters (80%) have responded that they give more importance to communication skill, whereas 20% recruiters have stated that they do not give that much importance to it.

## 6.2 Satisfaction on Students’ Language Skills

A strong proficiency in language skills is an asset that promotes an individual throughout his/ her lifespan. Recent research has revealed that many of the students are not qualified to be employed. Recruiters are not fully satisfied with the students’ language skills. The table below presents the information on the recruiters’ level of satisfaction on the MBA students’ language skills.

SI No	Satisfaction on Students’ Language Skills	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	Yes	2	20
2	No	8	80
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

The result presented in the above table relates to the recruiters' level of satisfaction on the language competence of the MBA students. 80% of the recruiters have stated that they are not satisfied with the level of competence of the students. Only 20% recruiters feel satisfied with the competence level of the students in language skills.

### 6.3 Rank the Linguistic Skills

Recruiters have been asked to rank the language skills according to the importance which they attach to them and their responses are given below in detail.

#### 7.3.1 Listening

Listening is an active and essential skill required for the business. It is involved in recognizing the sounds of speech and processing them into meaningful words and sentences.

Sl No	Listening	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	1	0	0
2	2	0	0
3	3	4	40
4	4	6	60
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

As far as listening skill is concerned, 60% of the recruiters have allotted listening skill to 'rank 4', whereas 40% recruiter to 'rank 3'.

#### 6.3.2 Speaking

Speaking is a productive and more complicated skill than other language skills, and it involves more than just producing some oral sounds. It supports an individual to verbalise his opinions, thoughts, feelings, etc. The following table gives the details as follows:

Sl No	Speaking	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	1	5	50
2	2	5	50
3	3	0	0
4	4	0	0

<b>Total</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>
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As speaking is one of the prominent skills in any language, a mixed response has been given by all the recruiters. 50/50 responses have been given to 'rank 1' and 'rank 2'.

### 7.3.3 Reading

Reading skill is a challenging one because it introduces new vocabulary and complex sentences to comprehend. An active reader could recognize the simple sentences and understand the organizational structure of a piece of writing with ease.

SI No	Reading	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	1	0	0
2	2	0	0
3	3	6	60
4	4	4	40
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

As far as reading skill is concerned, it is a receptive skill and it required active listeners to reach the highest level of competence. The above table shows that 60% recruiters have given 'rank 3' and 40% recruiters 'rank 4' to reading skill.

### 6.3.4 Writing

Writing skill is an important part of communication. Good writing skill helps an individual to transcode his messages with lucidity and simplicity to a set of far larger readers. It is very important as this profession involves more writing procedures like memo, email, reports, letters, etc. The following table gives the responses of the recruiters on writing skill:

SI No	Writing	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	1	5	50
2	2	5	50
3	3	0	0
4	4	0	0
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

As writing skill is a productive skill, it requires an active reader to read and understand its objectives. A mixed response has been given by the recruiters, 50% of the recruiters have allotted it to 'rank 1' and 50% to 'rank 2'. From this it becomes clear that writing skill along with speaking skill has been placed at the top position as recruiters ranked them very high.

#### 6.4 Importance of Writing Skill

The following table reveals the details of responses given by recruiters on the importance of writing skills.

SI No	Do you give Importance of Writing Skill?	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	Yes	10	100
2	No	0	0
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

From the above table, it is clear that all the recruiters agree that writing is more important in Business Communication.

#### 6.5 Rating the Writing Skill

Recruiters have been requested to rate the following aspects of writing skill exercises and the results have been tabulated and described in detail.

##### 6.5.1 English Grammar

Sticking to grammar is an important feature in any communication to avoid misapprehensions. It would slow down one's communication process if one uses incorrect grammar in conversation or in any form of communication. The following table reveals the details of rating given by recruiters for this.

SI No	Rating	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	Excellent	0	0
2	Good	0	0

3	Average	3	30
4	Poor	5	50
5	Very poor	2	20
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

The highest positive response of the recruiters (30%) on English Grammar is 'average', whereas 50% of the recruiters have responded that when the students write something, their grammar is 'poor', 20% of the recruiters are not satisfied with the students' ability in English grammar and they have rated it as 'very poor'.

### 6.5.2 Business Vocabulary

Sufficient vocabulary is the basic need of every interaction. Since Business English is used as the language of communication in organizations, strong vocabulary is equally important for workers from different organizations. The table below presents the details of recruiters' rating on the importance of business vocabulary.

Sl No	Rating	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	Excellent	0	0
2	Good	0	0
3	Average	3	30
4	Poor	5	50
5	Very poor	2	20
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

From the above table it becomes clear that 30% of the recruiters have said that the students' level of competence in business vocabulary is 'average', 50% percentage of recruiters have rated the students' level of competence as 'poor', but 20% of the recruiters have accepted that the students' ability in business vocabulary is 'very poor'.

### 6.5.3 Sentence Construction

It is very important that the students are able to compose sentences of different structures. It helps to highlight different ideas or thoughts elegantly. The following table gives details on the importance of sentence structure as rated by the recruiters.

SI No	Rating	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	Excellent	0	0
2	Good	0	0
3	Average	4	40
4	Poor	4	40
5	Very poor	2	20
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

40% of recruiters have rated the ability of the students to construct sentences as ‘average’ and the same percentage of recruiters have rated it as ‘poor’, whereas 20% recruiters have rated it ‘very poor’.

#### 6.5.4 Writing Paragraphs and Essays

Arranging our thoughts in paragraphs is an art of writing and effective paragraphs are essential in all types of writing. Paragraphs guide the readers through explanations, substantiations, and support the statement or argument. The data related to the importance of writing paragraphs and essays as perceived by the recruiters are presented below.

SI No	Rating	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	Excellent	0	0
2	Good	0	0
3	Average	3	30
4	Poor	6	60
5	Very poor	1	10
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

Above table describes the recruiters’ view on the students’ ability in writing essays and paragraphs. A majority of the recruiters (60%) have said their opinion as ‘poor’, whereas 30% recruiters admit the level of students’ ability in writing essays and paragraphs as ‘average’. And 10% recruiters have responded that the students ability is ‘very poor’ in this particular exercise.

#### 6.5.6 Business Correspondence

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Business correspondence is a type of communication that is used in almost all organizations. Poor business correspondence leads to disastrous results in business. Hence it is important to have good correspondence skill. The following table presents the details on its importance as responded by the recruiters.

SI No	Rating	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	Excellent	0	0
2	Good	0	0
3	Average	2	20
4	Poor	4	40
5	Very poor	4	40
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

Though writing business correspondence has been at the highest place in learning written communication skill course, the recruiters are not much satisfied with the outcomes. 80% of the recruiters have rated the students' ability to write business correspondence as 'poor' (40%) and 'very poor' (40%) and 20% of recruiters rated that the students' ability is 'average' in writing business correspondences.

#### 6.5.7 Overall Rating on Students' Writing Skill

The following data reveals the overall rating given by the recruiters on the importance of the writing skills.

SI No	Rating	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	Excellent	0	0
2	Good	0	0
3	Average	2	20
4	Poor	4	40
5	Very poor	4	40
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

The above table shows the responses of the recruiters in overall writing skill competence. Only 20% recruiters have responded that the students' overall ability is

‘average’, whereas 40% recruiters have rated the students’ ability as ‘poor’ and the same percentage of recruiters have rated it as ‘very poor’. None of the recruiters has rated it as ‘excellent’ or ‘good’.

## 6.6 Percentage on Students’ Employability Skills

Enhancing the employability skill is an important goal of all management institutions. A recent article which appeared in Deccan Chronicle (dated 29<sup>th</sup> April 2016), states that only seven percent students of management programme have the employability skills. The employability percentage of the students as given by the recruiters is presented below in the table.

SI No	Percentage on Students’ Employability Skills	No. of Recruiters	Percentage
1	20	3	30
2	15	3	30
3	14	1	10
4	10	3	30
<b>Total</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

30% of the recruiters have stated that 20% of students may have the employability skills followed by the same percentage of recruiters who have said that 15% of students have the skills for employment. 30% recruiters have said that 10% of the students having skills to employment and 10% recruiters have responded that only 14% students have the employability skills required for the workplace.

## 8. Findings and Conclusion

It is seen from this study that the recruiters are not satisfied with the performance level of students in written communication. All the aspects of written communication have to be taught in an effective manner so that the MBA graduates are able not only to get placed and also survive in good business houses and go up in the ladder of their career. The teachers of BE should concentrate more on imparting sentence construction skill and paragraph building skills to their students and help their students excel in drafting business

correspondences and shine in their field.

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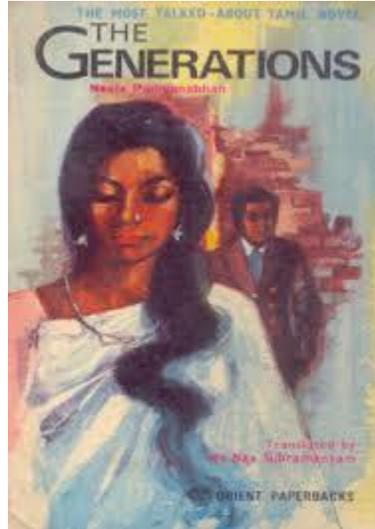
P. Sivakiri. M.A., M.Phil., B.Ed. and Dr. V. Thiyagarajan, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D.  
Recruiters' Perceptions on Teaching Writing Skill for the MBA Students of  
Anna University Affiliated Colleges in Tamilnadu

**Subjugation of Women for Generations - Portrayed in  
*The Generations and in Blood Ties***

**Dr. N. Sowmia Kumar, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D.**

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**Abstract**

We know very well that a society cannot develop without the development of its womenfolk. Hindu scriptures also accord due respect to women and assert that God lives where women are worshipped.

The Indian society practices an extreme form of patriarchy from time immemorial. It is based on male predominance and female subordination. In such a male dominated society, women do not occupy an enviable position. With regard to the position of women in Indian history and culture, no nation is supposed to have held their women in higher esteem than the Hindus. But this notion has been proved to be a fallacy, a complete myth!

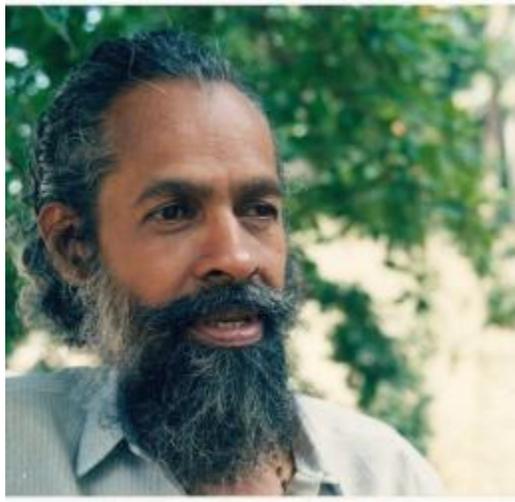
Indian society praises the wife-mother role of woman, but treats her no better than the economic and sexual property of her husband. The novels taken up for the study portray in detail how men and women are treated differently according to the prevailing social norms. The men

oppress the women, and they are not allowed to lead their lives as they want, since men rule over them.

Women, who are oppressed, are forced to forfeit their freedom; therefore, they adjust themselves to life as the 'Other', while men can claim subjectivity for themselves. The novels deal with the treatment of women by society, including all the oppression meted out to them.

**Keywords:** Oppression of women, patriarchal society, gender inequality, male dominance, divorce and remarriage, dowry system

### *The Generations*



**Neela Padmanabhan**

Courtesy: <http://www.pustakalibrary.in/neela-padmanabhan>

*The Generations* is set in the 1940's. The plot of the novel revolves around the Tamil-speaking Eranial Chettiyar community of Kanyakumari District, on the border between Tamil Nadu and Kerala. It tells the story of this community taking as its time-span almost twenty five years.

Diravi grows up essentially as a person who would rather restrain himself than blow up, in the face of the worst provocation. As he matures, he begins to ask questions that generally

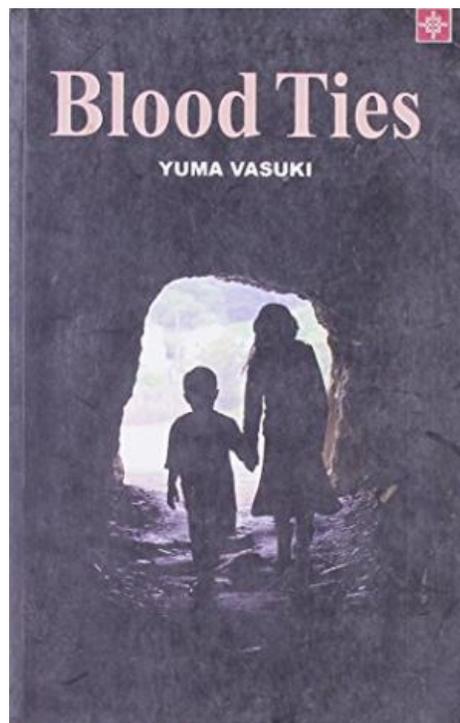
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elicit no answers from his community elders. It is clear that the apparent homogeneity and infallibility of the community voice is but a chimera. The single most important event in Diravi's life is the plight of his sister Nagammal who is condemned to a life of rejection by an impotent husband and his scheming mother. Nagu's mute grief and the community's lack of courage and power to set right a palpable wrong weighs heavily upon his mind. In this society, a barren woman is a curse and even when the doctor assures Nagu and Diravi that she is not barren, Nagu's husband, Sevantha Perumal refuses to take her back. This impels Diravi towards the bold step of planning a second marriage for his sister, which alone can comfort his heart that has been slowly turning into a dreary desert. Though the young Kuttalam is ready to marry the deserted girl, the wicked Sevantha Perumal manages to kill Kuttalam, for how can he face the society if Nagu goes around with a child in her arms sired by her new husband Kuttalam. Diravi makes the singular error of not judging the forces that work against him. He is left with no choice but to leave the village once and for all with his ageing parents and sister for a new beginning.

### **Blood Ties**



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Yuma Vasuki's *Blood Ties* (2000) is a Tamil novel which appeared under the title *Ratha Uravu* which was later translated into English by Gita Subramanian. It is a domestic novel, which portrays the everyday life of the family of three brothers, sternly presided over by their widowed mother. The story is about the family of Dinakaran which is destroyed by alcoholism and domestic violence of the most brutal kind. The story is narrated through the eyes of the six-year old *Thambi*, the story of the daily life of their family, which was filled with fear, terror and uncertainty of the children. It also brings out the domestic violence that the children experienced everyday in their house and the miserable lives of *amma*, *akka*, *thambi* and *anna* — the four hapless victims of Dinakaran's violence. Dinakaran abuses his position as head of the family, betraying his daughter and his young sons again and again, terrorising his wife. The characters of *akka*, *thambi* and *Perianna* are vividly drawn. For them, being at the receiving end of violence is perfectly normal. That is the only life they know. Matured beyond her years, one may be amazed, *akka*, who has traded her childhood for her family, tugs at our heart strings. She is tender towards her brothers whom she protects with all her fragile might and the generosity of her spirit, which extends even to her father.

We learn from the novels that the women - Nagammal and Unnamalai Achi in *The Generations*, Amma and Akka from *Blood Ties*, who live in a patriarchal society, are repressed and are denied even the basic amenities, since they are women.

### **First Generation Women**

The treatment of women in the first generation is a period before India's Independence, the characters belonging to this period are Achi in *The Generations*, Patti in *Blood Ties*. The women belonging to this generation are older women, steeped in traditions and widows who do not have any status in society like *achi* in *The Generations*, and Patti in *Blood Ties* respectively.

In *The Generations*, Neela Padmanaban portrays the character of Unnamalai Achi as she lives in the world of the past and is ignorant of her position either in her own house or in society.

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Neela Padmanaban portrays the character of Unnamalai Achi similar to Mammachi. Achi is very traditional and she lives her life without being aware of her suppression in her own house and in society. She lives her life within the limits of her code of living and she never comes out of that limit. It is the limit derived from her ancestors, she infuses the same on every woman not only of her generation, but also transfers it to the next generation as well. She is a typical traditional, conservative woman as her life confines only,

to get up early before dawn and to sweep the street before the house, sprinkle cow dung water on it, and draw the *kolam* auspiciously before the man of the house gets up and leaves the house... (19)

She believes this is what a woman is for and she considers that she is born for none other than to serve the male of the house.

Achi is the one who instigates the marriage of Nagammal to Sevantha Perumal, she strictly adheres to the traditional norms, and transactions of the marriage like dowry and other household things. She has enormous faith in her generation's belief in superstitions and proverbs; she expects others to follow in the footsteps of the current generation. As a result of this it is not only the family of Diravi, but the entire community that suffers. In this strict adherence to the worn out values, Diravi is the worst affected victim because Achi moulds him with the stories of the past and the glories of her community right from his formative stage, which eventually impedes his progress.

Achi is too superstitious because she was brought up in such a way by her parents and community. *Achi*, being a woman steeped in tradition cannot accept Nagu's return from her husband's house and she blames it on fate as she says,

‘... What sin you committed in your last birth – who knows?  
As a result of that sin you are this way now...’. (25)

This is all the outcome of her ignorance which results from being superstitious and bearing day after day the sufferings and oppressions she had been subjected to in a male dominated society.

In the same manner, we see that Patti in *Blood Ties* is also a sufferer of the male dominance during her formative years and it has dwarfed her and molded her into a person adhering to the slavish mentality. And she cannot tolerate the modern generation of girls and she always curses Vasuki; she is even of the opinion that girls should not be given more education.

### **Women in the Second Generation**

The treatment of women in the second generation is the post independent era and the characters of this period are Nagammal in *The Generations* and Amma in *Blood Ties*. The treatment of women of the second generation is one of the most important parts of the novels, which defies patriarchy, and deals with the dominant sexual norms of the time.

There is a great need for the awakening of women socially. Without social advancement, political rights have no value. There is a visible gap between the law as it stands and the law as it operates. The need is to bridge the gap. It is one thing to declare, and another to enforce.

The same kind of treatment is also seen in *Blood Ties*, as society demands a girl child should not be educated beyond a limit. This shows the difference between the old and the modern generations' attitudes in a society regarding the notion of educating a girl child; at the same time many modern women still remain subordinate to men. Now the women insist on equality with men in all matters including education, the right to property inheritance and in the matter of securing different kinds of jobs.

### **Gender discrimination and the Institution of Marriage**

Gender discrimination is also one of the most important themes common in the select novels and the writers have given it much importance in their respective novels.

In *The Generations* this gender discrimination arises right from the birth of a girl child. Achi asks ‘Is it Matan Pillai? Has Bhomu delivered?’ and the reply ‘Yes, she has delivered – a female’. Padmanaban explains here the condition of how a girl – child is an unwanted one, as ‘His tone implied that the female child was an unwanted addition to the family, an uninvited guest’. (15)

It is a steady trend among modern women towards increasing consciousness of their rights, seeking liberty from gender discrimination and finding an independent identity and economic independence. Women now certainly have a status in society.

The most significant social issue that the writers focus on is the theme of the institution of marriage – as in *The Generations* and the practice of dowry system in India. Marriage as an institution has sealed the fate of women down the generations, making them play a secondary or a subservient role. Instead of making women happy, it forces them to play stereotype set roles, within the family, uncomplainingly. Regarding marriage, Simone de Beauvoir rightly observes in her *Second Sex*:

The tragedy of marriage is not that it fails to assure woman regarding the promised happiness...but that it mutilates her; it dooms her to repetition and routine. (496)

When a woman is caught in the trap of marriage, she has only one way left for her to go, and that is to languish in misery. Somehow, she reveals an evident lack of trust in marriage and marital relationships. Every attempt the woman makes to redefine herself inevitably ends up in lack of communication. This leads to the theme of alienation.

In *The Generations*, we see the prosperous mercantile Chettiyar community, have fallen into poverty due to generations of adherence to expensive marriages running into several days and the dowry claims make the women a liability to their parents in particular and to society in general. Neela Padmanaban exposes how the gifts given by the parents of the brides at the time of their daughters’ weddings at a huge cost, and the dowry claims of the bridegrooms and the debts incurred as a result of it, had put the brides’ families to untold miseries.

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Neela Padmanaban being fully aware of the evils that traditional practices produce, opposes them. He advocates a simple and inexpensive marriage and declares that there should be no sex discrimination against women as both men and women are equal in every respect. To earn public sympathy for the distressed plight of such women and their families, the author through his character Nagammal, depicts women who are suffering and are tortured due to dowry claims by the men folk.

Neela Padmanaban here brings out the evils of the dowry system that prevail in society and how women are oppressed by the demand of dowry. Nagammal gets married to Sevantha Perumal because he is rich and asks for her hand. We see the mother of Sevantha Perumal asks, What dowry can you give? What wedding gifts? Jewels for how much? ... Apart from this the wedding expenses should all be borne by the girl's family. (41- 42)

The above observation brings out the many evils born of the dowry system, which if not paid, all the said things the girl should suffer from, the various tortures which might often result in death either by means of suicide or outright murder.

In *Blood Ties*, Amma, at the time of her marriage was provided,

Thirty sovereign of gold jewellery ...

Every time I took the children home, he eagerly made more jewellery. (43)

What is significant is that the girl's parents give her money and gifts not only at the time of her wedding but they continue to give gifts to her husband's family throughout their life. This is further explained by Yuma Vasuki through Thambi's uncle:

'As the only daughter of the family, we sent her well-endowed with a sumptuous dowry including thirty sovereigns of gold. (108)

We come across the same situation when Nagammal was sent to her father's house by her husband on the false grounds that she is barren. Like many other societies, in Indian society also a barren woman is an anathema.

In order to hide his impotence he throws the blame on his wife, since he is a man, all the community elders are also men, and they easily believe in what he says. Even when the doctor assures them that she is not barren, Nagammal's husband Sevantha Perumal will not take her back and there is no end to a woman's sorrow.

Social systems, religious laws and legal structures have all along worked against women, making separation, divorce and single life difficult and humiliating for them. In many cases, women have no real choice but marriage, however demeaning and degrading it may be, for survival, self-respect and security. So, women who escape from stifling relationships live the rest of their lives with dignity and purpose. This is what Neela Padmanaban portrays in his novel even though the young Kuttalam is ready to marry the deserted girl. The malignant Sevantha Perumal manages to kill him, for he cannot face society if Nagammal goes around with a child in her arms sired by marrying Kuttalam. Patriarchy is an exploitative structure reinforced by governments, religions and social practices. The oppressive nature of patriarchy has its manifestation in sexism.

Through the representation of Nagammal in *The Generations*, the author encourages widow-remarriage and the need for increasing women's marriageable age and he advocates women's right to divorce. Neela Padmanaban is not satisfied with the existing system of marriages, and he aspires for a total change in the system and performance of marriage in society.

Diravi the protagonist of *The Generations* grows up essentially as a person in the face of the worst provocation. As he matures and begins to ask questions that generally elicit no answers from his community elders, it is clear that the apparent homogeneity and infallibility of the community voice is a chimera. Diravi is much affected by the plight of his sister, Nagammal's

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life, who is rejected by an impotent husband and his scheming mother. Nagammal's mute grief and the society's lack of courage and authority to set right a palpable wrong, lie heavily in his mind. He is also a witness to any number of transgressions of the accepted code of honour and civility by his community, which convinces him that social norms are observed more in their violation than observance.

Diravi finds a more humane bridegroom, than the so-called 'correct' kinsmen, in the lesser born and declared blacksheep Kuttalam. Diravi takes a bold step of planning a second marriage for his sister. Through this, he likes to change the system from within.

Vinayaka Perumal warns that Diravi's family will be excommunicated, but Diravi is firm and busies himself with the wedding preparations, as he wants his sister to marry again and start a new life.

The novelists insist on giving equal rights to women like men to inherit or possess property as that would make them economically independent. Properties of families should be equally distributed between men and women without any sex discrimination. This is common in all the novels.

The third generation deals with the oppression of Vasuki in *Blood Ties*. The treatment of this generation is to show rebellion against the patriarchal society. Modern women do not accept the age old status of being oppressed by the men folk.

### **Family Violence and Wife Battering**

Another important oppression in *Blood Ties* is the theme of family violence. The common theme seen in the novel is the theme of wife battering.

*Blood Ties* is a strong protest against wife battering, which the Indian society has hitherto accepted with complacency. Domestic violence persists, as women have not protested against them. Amma in *Blood Ties* is the battered woman who must learn to bear their husband's brutality.

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In patriarchal culture, mothers are deified and motherhood glorified in story and mythology, but real life mothers are exploited. The right way of looking at a mother is neither as an angel nor as a monster but as a human being with desires and needs as well as limitations. Patriarchal societies hold mothers responsible for the life of their children, but ironically deny them the power. It is the women alone who can comprehend this neglected issue and bring justice into mothers' lives.

In *Blood Ties* Amma, Akka, Thambi and Anna are the four hapless victims of Dinakaran's violence. Dinakaran abuses his position as head of the family, betraying his daughter and his young sons repeatedly, and terrorising his wife. The terror Dinakaran unleashes against his family is unbelievably brutal and sadistic, beyond all imagination, matched only by his emotional poverty.

From the beginning, of the story we come across the terror in the family of Dinakaran infused by him towards the family. Whenever Amma hears the horrible screech of his rustic bicycle as it approached home, Amma's fear makes her cower and hide in a corner (10). Since she gets married to him, she has never lived a happy life and in the novel there is no reference at all that Amma spoke even a single word to her husband. Dinakaran is a typical male chauvinist that he never allows women to speak, especially his wife. He considers her only as a "thing" meant for battering. Owing to his intoxication, he does not know what he is doing and at the same time, he shows his superiority that there is no one else to question him.

It is not only that Dinakaran's wife suffers from this assault but his daughter Vasuki is also a victim of battering. Whenever he beats Amma, Akka will also be the receiver and one of the incidents is when, his elder son runs away due to fear of his father, Amma goes out in search of her son. It is considered that a woman should not go out of her house without the knowledge of her husband; even if she does so, it is against the norms of the house, society, and she will be punished. When Dinakaran comes to know of his wife's actions, his

‘... mad rage exploded on them when the brass-lamp landed with a loud thud, hitting Amma in the ribs... Before Amma could stand, Appa leaped on to her and sat on her back. Her hair was entirely caught in his fist. He repeatedly banged Amma’s head on the ground.

She had no time to even shout or cry’. (140)

Akka tries to persuade her father,

Don’t beat Amma, Appa, please, Appa! Have pity on her Appa!,

Akka begged and cried, wringing her hands in supplication.

Appa spat a mouthful of liquor-mixed spittle on Akka’s face.

Akka persisted and went closer. Appa’s kick made her recoil and

she sat against the wall, bent down and holding her stomach, (140)

and we can see there is no end to this brutality.

The most significant scene follows when her husband kicks his daughter, Amma could not tolerate this, gains her strength and she

‘shakes him off and gets up in a fury. But looking back,

seeing her husband on the floor, she was beset by guilt’. (140)

This clearly shows the stereotype of conservative mother and woman in Amma.

The story emphasizes the harm of alcoholism, which destroys family and culture. It is this alcoholism, which slowly and perniciously ruins Dinakaran’s ability to think and reason, to feel any true affection.

## Conclusion

Thus, the novels state the issues of gender discrimination, and the subjugation of women on various grounds. The role and idea of women depicted by the novelists give us an insight into the cultural values, changes and the concepts of tradition in Indian society. The different ways of behaviour of the women, reveal the significant cultural aspects of the society. Women express

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cultural values such as being husband–focused, family-oriented, submissive, upholding religious traditions, capable of sacrifices. Only now, they have started to protest against the exploitation and oppression in a male-dominated society.

The housewives and mothers are submissive, docile and obedient, focus on their husbands and families, like Amma in *Blood Ties* and Nagammal in *The Generations*, managing their households and having their own norms for private and public behaviour.

Women in the novels, *The Generations* and *Blood Ties* are presented as passive beings struggling against the odds of life silently. When we look at the predominant stereotypes of a housewife and mother in the novels, womanhood emerges to be a rational concept. No woman exists independently of a man or a woman’s influence. Women are always considered in relation to their husband and children. The novelist challenges this stereotype in different ways - the submissiveness and the unquestioning obedience, passivity of a woman is seriously questioned when they present modern women in their private and public behaviour, as protestors and idealists, under the influence of western and urban values.

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## **Diffidence as the Intruder of Communication in English among Students of Vernacular Medium in Tamil Nadu**

**Dr. B. Sreela, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. and Ms. R. Hema, M.A., M.Phil.**

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### **Abstract**

It is impossible to question the all-pervasive role of English language in India. English is the lingua franca and most importantly the official language of our country where the legislation is framed in English. In such a scenario, it is good for everyone in India to have some knowledge of English in order to understand and convey at least basic day-to-day communication. Student-Centered Learning strengthens student motivation, advocates peer communication, reduces disruptive behaviour, builds student-teacher relationships, and promotes active learning and responsibility for one's own learning. This paper aims at identifying the inhibitions that students from vernacular medium of education encounter at collegiate level education and also proposes solutions for the same using different types of teaching methods.

**Key Words:** Diffidence, result focused education, lack of opportunities, vernacular medium education, student inhibitions, student-centered learning

### **Introduction**

Lack of familiarity with English Language from the young age hinders the Indian students from articulation of the same. English has become a part of the syllabus in almost every school in India. Therefore, English is not an alien language to people in India as it is the part and parcel of the society. Language learning ability is inversely proportional to the age of a learner. According to John Locke, language is acquired through sensory perception. Therefore, the senses are highly receptive when the age of the learner is between 2 and 10.

A major role of sensory receptors is to help us learn about the environment around us, or about the state of our internal environment. Stimuli from varying sources,

and of different types, are received and changed into the electrochemical signals of the nervous system. This occurs when a stimulus changes the cell membrane potential of a sensory neuron. The stimulus causes the sensory cell to produce an action potential that is relayed to the central nervous system (CNS), where it is integrated with other sensory information—or sometimes higher cognitive functions—to become a conscious perception of that stimulus. The central integration may then lead to a motor response” (Sensory Perception, n.p.).

The character and personality of the learner exerts insurmountable influence in the development of oral skills. Many learners are either introverted or anxious, and fear that they could be laughed at by others for their mistakes. Despite possessing deep thoughts and ideas to share, students of vernacular medium couldn't express themselves due to psychological constraint. Therefore motivation and cooperation are the factors that would promulgate confidence among these learners. Students who have gained worldly experience show better progress in language learning in comparison to students who lead a compartmentalized life. Therefore cognition becomes vital in language learning process.

### **Educational Influence**

The major hurdle in English language learning is the methodology of starting with the reading and writing of the language components. Listening is neglected and its invaluable role is undermined and similarly there is very little scope for speaking. Even if they are made to speak it is only the reiteration of topics included in the syllabus.

“The field of language and development is complex, with numerous interconnections and links. This is a further challenge: to recognize complexity and to avoid simplistic solutions to problems, but also to try to manage solutions out of the chaos that lead in some way towards a positive beneficial outcome for participants”. (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008).

**Activity-based teaching and Learning for non-native speakers of English** focuses on the ways to improve self-confidence, Interpersonal skills, willingness to participate in group activities, on intellectual improvement, on enhancing students' understanding to communicate

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quantitative ideas orally and in writing, and a scope for creativity. This method aids in battling shyness and reticence among learners. This mode of teaching involves students in many activities whereby they get a chance to interact with other students, which in turn opens room for friendliness among learners. In this type of learning process, the learner role is transformed from that of a passive listener to an active participant.

**Communicative teaching method** is another effective method to promote language learning. Students of vernacular medium feel inhibited to express their thoughts and ideas due to lack of vocabulary. In such cases, interaction among students aids in exchange of ideas and also vocabulary. There is room for unconscious learning in communicative teaching method. Introducing different types of activity such as role-play, solving puzzles, creating stories and retelling stories are some that are dealt with in communicative language method. These classes are interactive where learners are the participants rather than listeners. These classes also provide platform for learners to bond with each other and thereby facilitate in the language development of each other.

### **Conclusion**

The conclusion of the paper exhibits an evident thought that the teachers have more duty in the improvement of abilities of students and to lead them to higher execution level. Preparing teachers to embrace student focused instructing/learning and rule based evaluation is a critical method for enhancing student execution, since students seem to lean toward these parts of the educating/learning/appraisal process so as to enhance their general execution. Students can make, through such exercises, connections that estimated regular utilization of the dialect. The exercises can furnish them with a lot of appropriate chances to hone the abilities important to convey easily, all things considered like association. Subject based exercises can in any case make open doors for various sorts of dialect practice by learners, for example, building up a capacity to take longer swings to convey what needs be. These exercises of the students endeavor to find what collective practices were shown by learners in a general timetabled classroom session, as opposed to in a more fake exploratory setting.

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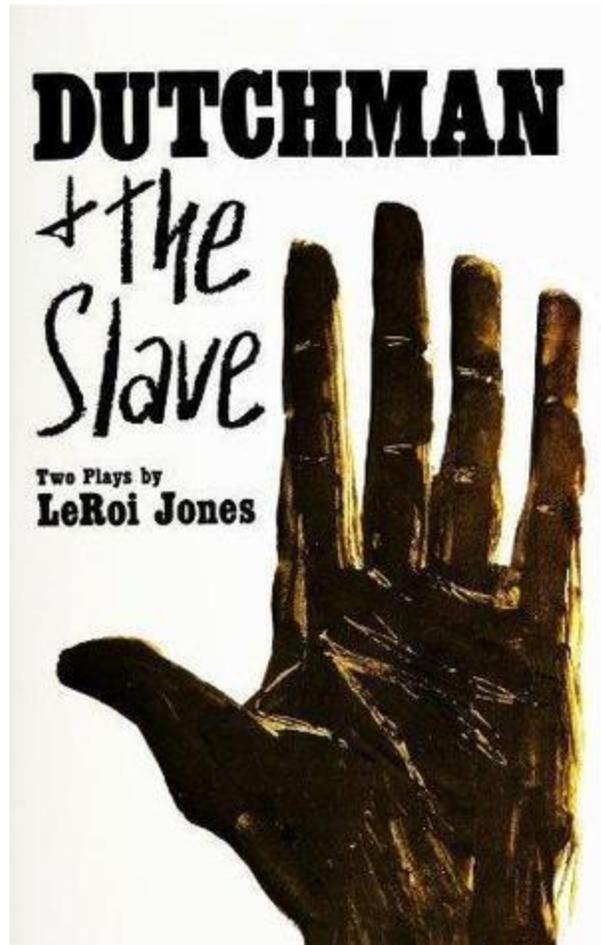
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## Racial Tensions in Amiri Baraka's *Dutchman*

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### Abstract

African American literature focuses on the role of African American within the larger American society and what it means to be an American. It explores the issues of freedom and equality long denied to blacks in the United States, along with further themes such as African American culture, racism, religion, slavery and diaspora. The survival of the Blackman in America, is predicated upon his ability to keep his thoughts and his true identity hidden. Many African- American writers have explored this metaphor of double-consciousness. This paper

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focuses on racial tensions depicted in Amiri Baraka's novel *Dutchman*. The Metaphor of Double Consciousness and Amiri Baraka are discussed.

**Key words:** Racial tension, Black Man, Amiri Baraka, *Dutchman*, the Metaphor of Double Consciousness and Amiri Baraka.

### **Amiri Baraka (LeRoy Jones)**

Amiri Baraka (LeRoy Jones), a contemporary playwright, poet, essayist, novelist and critic has explored it extensively. He uses his writings to explore the experience and anger of the African American people against racism and advocates socialism to reverse the political power structure that ends the age-old suffering of his community- the black people. Double consciousness in his work emerges as a kind of masochism, for his attraction to both black and white culture is laced with pain. The life of African American had always been relentlessly unreal and their problems remain unsolved. This concept is reflected in his plays. He also reflects violence and social tensions of race relations in contemporary America through his plays.

### ***Dutchman***

Although Baraka wrote a number of plays during this period, *Dutchman* (1964) is widely considered as his masterpiece. The play spoke lucidly to black Americans of the savage destruction of their cultural identity, should they continue to imitate or to flirt with an alien, though dominant, white lifestyle. The play illustrates the persistence of racial violence in the United States that prevailed in the 1960s and represented an emerging militant attitude on the part of American blacks, and on the part of black American playwrights.

### **Tendency of Assimilation**

This article aims at tracing the assimilation tendency of Clay, the protagonist and at the same time the revelation of his black self or black identity. At the literary level, *Dutchman* is concerned with two people, a Negro male, Clay, and a white female, Lula, who strike up a chance acquaintance on a subway train. To Clay, Lula is a white liberal, a bohemian type, a bit flirty; to Lula, Clay is a typical middle-class, intellectual young Negro anxious to achieve

success in white America, the type who should feel honored or pleased and so she offers him company.

### **Clay and Lula**

The two engage themselves in flirtatious small talk. Then Lula teases Clay about compromising himself in order to get along with the white society. Clay becomes resentful. Lula criticizes him for avoiding his identity as a black man. Pursued to the point where he loses his composure, he angrily rebuffs Lula, declaring that it is his right to be whatever he is or wants to be regardless of whether she approves of it or not. Indeed his manner of living is a way of controlling his violence. He continues to talk until Lula, enraged, rather reflexively stabs Clay to death while other subway riders look on passively. She orders them to throw Clay's body off the train, and they do so, silently. Then when a similar young Negro boards the subway train at the next stop, Lula begins what apparently is going to be a similar temptation routine.

### **Sexual, Racial, and Economic Implication of Black-White Relation**

The play is concerned with the sexual, racial, and economic implication of black-white relation. Racial oppression and violence lie at the heart of *Dutchman*. The play is a sharply focused indictment of those African Americans who desire to assimilate into mainstream American society. The life of African American even after the proclamation of emancipation is characterized by racial discrimination, segregation in social life and widespread insecurity. The search for identity and the realization of black nationalism soon found an explicit outlet in the rejection of everything of the white civilizations and an enthusiastic acceptance of everything black. Thus they soon rejected the white way of life and the white history of the black men.

### **Common Goal**

Baraka strives at a common goal – establishing self-awareness and self-confidence in blacks. Although, our society on a superficial level puts great emphasis on diversity inclusion and equal rights but it is not embedded in the fabrics of society. Minorities are still viewed with hatred and contempt. By exposing the horror of race relations in America, Baraka diagnoses the problem of white dominance in American society and prescribes his cure – race revolution and murder.

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The article thus analyses Amir Baraka's concerns such as cultural alienation, racial tension and conflict, and the necessity for social change through revolutionary means. He used drama to teach people, opening their eyes to reality as he saw it. He illuminated the plight of all human beings in the confrontation between dream and reality, light and darkness, injured psyche and adopted personae. It contained profound treatment of abiding human values which demand synthesis and not analysis of different races. He advocated socialism as a viable solution to the problems in America resulting in goodwill and harmony.

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## A Contrastive Analysis of English Language Teaching Methods

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### Abstract

The present paper investigates two important teaching methods of English in a second language classroom setting i.e., Grammar Translation Method and Communicative Language Teaching. This close-ended study was carried out to compare and analyze Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The study basically looks at both teaching methods from the perspective of English language teachers show they prioritize either GMT or CLT methods as to be more effective tools of teaching at college level in three districts of Sindh. For data collection, a questionnaire was designed containing twenty queries favoring GTM in first ten and CLT in next ten queries in sequence in order to find out which teaching method is more effective. The questionnaire was close-ended with a Likert Scale range of five: strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree and strongly disagree. The participating subjects were randomly recruited from three districts of Sindh e.g., Jamshoro, Shikarpur and Jacobabad. The findings of the study show sixty percentage of the subjects favored GTM while, forty percentage language teachers favored CLT method as an effective method.

**Keywords:** Grammar Translation Method (GTM), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Language Teaching (LT), Second Language Acquisitions (SLA)

### Introduction

The present paper is based on the analysis of twenty statements in questionnaire along with the responses of English language teachers, interview protocols and the authors' observations regarding GTM and CLT methods. It has always been a problem for language teachers to choose the most effective way of teaching a foreign or second language. Therefore, the field of language teaching has witnessed a number of trends and movements.

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Murcia (2001) argued this as 'the field of second language or foreign language has undergone many fluctuations and swifts over the years'. Many methods and approaches were developed, applied and discarded in order to try out for the most effective teaching language method.

In addition, language teachers have proposed various language teaching methods. For instance, linguists in twentieth-century proposed nine methods of language teaching e.g., grammar translation method, direct method, reading method, audio-lingual, oral situational, cognitive method, affective-humanistic, comprehension-based and communicative language teaching. This paper presents the old grammar translation method versus the modern communicative language teaching method.

## **Literature review**

### **Grammar Translation Method**

Grammar translation method is also known as translation method and Classical Method of Language Teaching (Elizabeth, 2004). Grammar translation Method was popular in the past, even today it enjoys the profound popularity among the language teachers (Elizabeth, 2004). It focuses on teaching grammar in a language class (Murcia, 2001), it was used to teach the target language by translating the passages of target language into the mother tongue (Elizabeth, 2004). The selection of words were taken from the texts used for translation, and the meaning of the vocabulary was taught through bilingual word list or dictionaries and memorization (Richards& Rodgers, 2001).The rules of grammar are taught explicitly and clearly explained by giving texts for translation. Grammar translation method is still one of the most important and effective way of teaching a foreign or second language (Elizabeth, 2004) and is also being used in many parts of the world including Pakistan.

It is widely used in the language teaching institutes of Pakistan as compared to the Communicative Language Teaching which has not replaced Grammar Translation Method in Pakistan yet.

GTM was originally developed to teach dead languages such as Latin and Greek (Elizabeth, 2004) where no or less importance was given to spoken communications (Murcia,

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2001).GTM dominated European countries and foreign language teaching from 1840s to 1940s (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Early linguists believed that the language can be taught and learnt properly or effectively through the translation method (Elizabeth, 2004) therefore GTM stressed the form and memorizing conjugations (Murcia, 2001). The primary skills for GTM are reading and writing, little or no systematic attention is paid to listening and speaking (Richards, &Rodgers, 2001). Elizabeth (2004) says that GTM was also assumed to be enabling non-native learners to enhance their skills in getting more familiar with the grammar of their mother language. Elizabeth presents the following principles on which the grammar translation method was based:

- ‘Teaching of a foreign language through translation is easy, quick and economical.
- The structural patterns of two languages are compared and this comparison makes learning more clear and firm.
- The fundamental principle of proceeding from known to unknown is followed throughout.
- The knowledge of rules helps learners to avoid type of mistake’.

Richards et al. (2001) argued that GTM was first known in the States as Prussian method and some of its first users called it the creation of German scholars. In the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, GTM was opposed in many of the European countries. This opposition paved the way for the development of new ways of teaching English language. According to one of the critics of GTM, the method aimed to know “everything about something rather than the thing itself” (Richards& Rodgers, 2001). The proponents of GTM claimed that the second language learners, through it, were able to read the literature of target language properly and they could easily translate from one language to another which ultimately enabled these learners to develop and excel their writing and reading skills (ibid).

According to Murcia (2001), the key points of GTM are as follows:

- ‘Instruction is given in the native language of the students.
- There is little use of the target language for the communication

- Focus is on grammatical parsing. i.e., the form and identification of words.
- There is early reading of difficult texts.
- A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue or vice versa.
- The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the learner to use the language for communication.
- The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language.
- Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
- Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
- Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.'

In addition, Richards et al. (2001) stated that GTM is the way of teaching and studying language through the teaching of grammar rules in detail followed by the application of knowledge of the target language. It focuses on the memorization of few rules and their understanding to manipulate the sentence structure of the target language.

Elizabeth (2004) explains merits and demerits of GTM in context of English language teaching as follows:

### **Merits of GTM**

- 'This method is very successful in the present day class-rooms, where there are a large number of students in each section.
- By telling the meaning of a word or sentence in mother tongue, the teacher can at once make the students understand. Thus it is less time consuming.
- It is very reliable for giving the students practice of reading with understanding.
- In this method, the teachers as well as the learners are able to facilitate the teaching-learning process.
- Teaching English by using this method does not require lot of labor on the part of the teacher. Thus many teachers who are not habitual of working hard feel happy.
- By using this method, the comprehension of the students can be tested very easily.

- The learners are able to learn many items of English by comparison with mother tongue. That makes learning more clearly and firm’.

### **Demerits of GTM**

- ‘This method ignores the practice of oral work to the students which is the most important aspect in the teaching of any language.
- In this method, reading comes first and speaking afterwards. That is very unnatural.
- This method wastes a lot of time of student because everything has to be translated compulsorily.
- The translation work is always approximate. So the learner is not able to learn things accurately.
- Through translation work, the real spirit of meanings contained in the sentence is missed.
- It does not provide opportunity for silent reading.
- It lays more emphasis on the rules of grammar which is not very sound in teaching-learning of a language.
- This method makes the students think in mother tongue and then translate the same into English. In many cases, it may lead to funny expressions.
- It is dull and mechanical method because the learner remains passive mostly.
- It does not help the students to learn correct pronunciation of English.
- The learners can remain absent minded while being taught by this method. Many a time they just try to show their teacher that they are listening to him.
- This method does not help students to learn the language.’

Although the GTM has many drawbacks and there were only a few advantages but even then it was popularly adopted and utilized until the advent of direct method which gained the attention of linguists (Elizabeth, 2004). GTM is still one of the popular ways of teaching English in many parts of the country (Chang, 2011).

## Communicative Language Teaching

Among the different language teaching methods, as discussed above, communicative language Teaching (CLT) is one of the most recent, effective and widely adopted method of teaching language specially English. CLT is the approach that is being used in almost all the European countries, eastern and also some of the gulf countries. CLT was adopted as a reaction to grammar based methods (Richards & Renendya, 2002). This is also called a “new” and “innovative” way of teaching English language as a second or foreign language (Murcia, 2001).

According to Murcia (2001) the CLT was developed in order to fulfill the needs of increasing groups of immigrants and guest workers. In addition, a very rich British linguistic tradition led the linguists to develop a syllabus for students based on notional-functional concepts of language use (Murcia, 2001). CLT was derived from neo-Firthian system of linguists (Halliday, 1973; Hymes, 1972). These linguists analyzed the language ability for all the major languages of Europe in order to describe what the basic function of a language were (Murcia, 2001). The supporters of CLT began operating the language in terms of Communicative Competence and wanted to introduce it at all the levels of teaching language (Richards & Renendya, 2002). According to Murcia, (2001) the term communicative was attached to all the levels or programs of language teaching which was used as notional-functional syllabus and it was often called as '*principled approach*' (Murcia 2001).

CLT is based on some special tasks assigned to learners (Mukalel, 1998). It provides simulations or such type of situations in or outside the classroom, which also provides opportunities to the language learners to make their communication meaning-based (Mukalel, 1998).

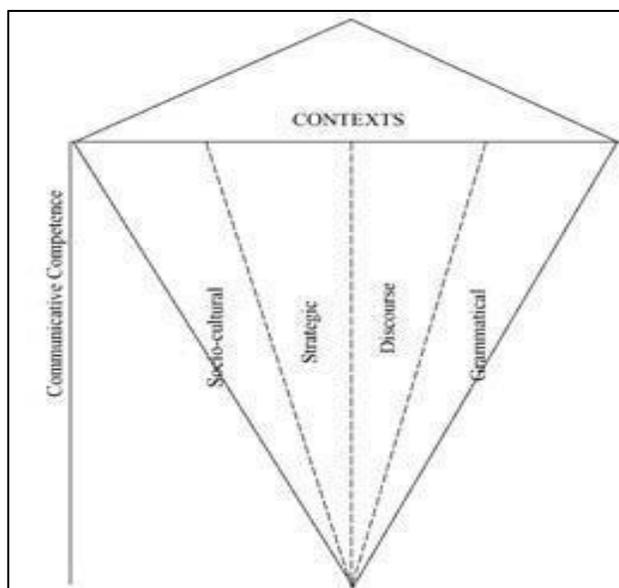
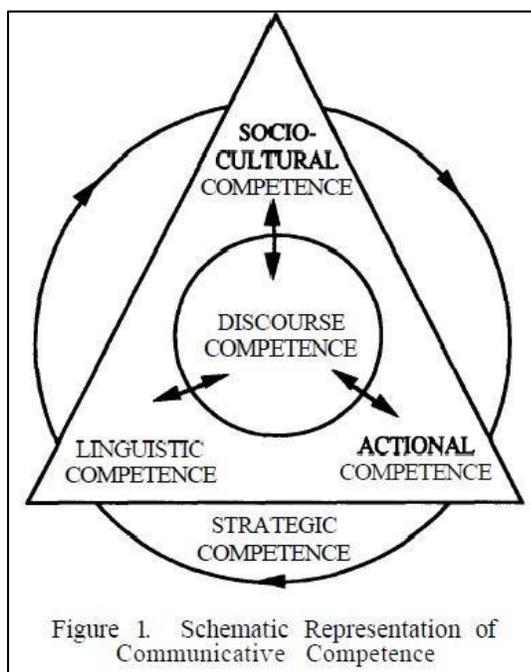
According to Murcia (2001) the assumptions behind CLT are as follows:

- 'It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is learner ability to communicate in the target language.
- It is assumed that the content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions not just linguistic structures.

- Students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer meaning in situation in which one has information that the others lack
- Students often engage in role play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts.
- Classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real life situations and demands.
- Skills are intergraded from the beginning; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening and also writing.
- The teachers' role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors.
- The teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately'.

Richards & Rodgers (2001) state: 'communicative language teaching is a kind of vehicle which conveys the meaning involving two parts of it which are speaker and listener', the knowledge is transferred using these two parts and other two which are writer and reader, the desired goal of communicative language teaching is "Communication Competence", and the competence which is achieved through CLT.

Savignon (1983) introduced his famous classroom model to tell the linguistic learning level of the learners based on the term 'Communication Competence', this term was coined by Dell Hymes in 1960s. Mukalel (1998) shows it into "inverted pyramid" which is the integration of four major components: 'socio-cultural competence, grammatical competence, discourse competence and strategic competence' (Murcia, 2001). This model shows that how thoroughly the wide range of practice and experience of communicative contexts and events; the learners slowly and gradually gain and expand their communicative competence (Richards& Rodgers, 2001). According to Murcia (2001) these all four components are interrelated and one depends on another, she asserts 'rather an increase in one component interacts with other components to produce a corresponding increase in overall communicative competence' as illustrated in Figure 1-2.



Some of the disadvantages or demerits of Communicative Language Teaching are mentioned by Richards & Rodgers, (2001):

- ‘CLT gives very little guidance about how to handle the vocabulary; however it gives more guidance to the functional and practical communication.
- CLT gives stress to only single concept of “Communication”, other all varieties of language teaching have almost been unnoticed while unnecessary expansion is given to Communication only.
- Critics of CLT sometimes criticize that it focus on learner centered approach, while in some case it is considered that learners bring preconception of what teaching and learning should be like.
- CLT does not provide much focus on EFL while its origin was teaching English as foreign language.
- The most difficult problem in CLT is the absence of native speakers, which does not provide the learners the exposure of English language through native speakers.
- CLT cannot be seen as a panacea for the problems that have been isn’t a fix framework of CLT’.

## **Research Question**

1. Which of the two methods i.e., GMT and CLT is more effective teaching method in the three districts of Sindh?

## **Methodology**

This close-ended study was carried out in order to have the first-hand information about two English language teaching methods in question in the context of three districts of Sindh. There are various methods of teaching English language in vogue for instance the modern communicative language teaching (CLT) and the old grammar translation method (GTM) which are widely being adapted and used all over the world. This research was carried out to investigate which of these two methods is more effective in target area. The research queries are as follows:

## **Material**

A questionnaire was developed in light of the activities of these teaching methods in order to collect data as a tool of this research paper. The questionnaire contained twenty items based on Likert Scale range five: Strongly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree nor Disagree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree. These items were related to the classroom activities and situations, asking the participating subjects about their understanding of English teaching methods. The questionnaire was also divided into two parts: first ten items contained the queries in favor of GTM, whereas, the next ten items contained the queries in favor of CLT.

## **Population**

The present study recruited ten English language teachers from three districts of Sindh. These English language teachers had a teaching experience of five to ten years at college level. Their age ranged between 30 to 40 years. Two teachers were approached in the district of Shikarpur, three teachers were from Jacobabad district while five English language teachers were from district Jamshoro (Cadet College Petaro).

## Data Analysis

A close-ended study was conducted in order to find out which method is more effective relatively in light of responses taken through questionnaire from the respondents. The questionnaire contained first ten questions in favor of GTM whereas; the other ten queries were in favor of CLT. After the collection of data, the following results were analyzed in light of queries through questionnaire as follows:

Q1. A teacher should be able to speak the target language in the classroom.

Analysis	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Respondents	2	5	0	2	1
Percentage	20%	50%	0	20%	10%
Results	GTM = 70%		0	CLT = 30%	

Q2. Teacher at first teaches grammar rules to the students in the class.

Analysis	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Respondents	1	4	0	3	2
Percentage	10%	40%	0	30%	20%
Results	GTM = 50%		0	CLT = 50%	

Q3. The best way of teaching English is to teach tenses at the initial stage.

Analysis	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Respondents	3	5	1	1	1

Percentage	30%	50%	10%	10%	10%
Results	GTM = 80%		10%	CLT = 20%	

Q4. The effective way of teaching English is to ask the student to translate the sentences from native language to target language.

Analysis	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Respondents	2	3	1	2	2
Percentage	20%	30%	10%	20%	20%
Results	GTM = 50%		10%	CLT = 40%	

Q5. Teacher may give learners difficult passages from text to translate into target language in the class.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	3	3	0	2	2
Percentage	30%	30%	0	20%	20%
Results	GTM = 60%		0	CLT = 40%	

Q6. Teacher gives instruction in native language for the better understanding in the class.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	3	2	0	2	3
Percentage	30%	20%	0	20%	30%
Results	GTM = 50%		0	CLT = 50%	

Q7. Teacher may avoid speaking target language in the class while teaching.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	4	4	0	2	0
Percentage	40%	40%	0	20%	0%
Results	GTM = 80%		0	CLT = 20%	

Q8. Learners should master grammatical structures for better language learning outcomes in class.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	1	6	0	2	1
Percentage	10%	60%	0	20%	10%
Results	GTM = 70%		0	CLT = 30%	

Q9. A teacher can effectively teach English language by teaching rules of the grammar rather than getting accuracy in the target language.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	1	2	0	4	3
Percentage	10%	20%	0	40%	30%
Results	GTM = 30%		0	CLT = 70%	

Q10. The ultimate goal of teaching language is to get accuracy in the target language rather than to have mastery over the fluency of the learners.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	4	2	2	1	1
Percentage	40%	20%	20%	10%	10%
Results	GTM = 60%		20%	CLT = 20%	

Next ten questions in the Questionnaire contains the questions in the favor of Communicative Language Teaching, the data collected through the responses in the questionnaire is as follows:

Q11. A teacher should pinpoint the mistakes and correct them while language teaching.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	3	2	0	4	1
Percentage	30%	20%	0	40%	10%
Results	CLT = 50%		0	GTM = 50%	

Q12. A teacher facilitates learners to speak in the target language freely in the class.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	1	3	0	3	3
Percentage	10%	30%	0	30%	30%
Results	CLT = 40%		0	GTM = 60%	

Q13. Teacher creates situations in the class for interaction among the learners in the target language.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	2	3	0	2	3
Percentage	20%	30%	0	20%	30%
Results	CLT = 50%		0	GTM = 50%	

Q14. Grammatical structures are not necessary to teach at the initial level of language teaching.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	1	3	2	2	2
Percentage	10%	30%	20%	20%	20%
Results	CLT = 40%		20%	GTM = 40%	

Q15. Teacher provides language learning activities in the class for meaningful negotiations among the language learners.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	2	1	0	4	3
Percentage	20%	10%	0	40%	30%
Results	CLT = 30%		0	GTM = 70%	

Q16. Teacher should make the learners involve in role playing or dramatization to adjust their use of target language in social contexts.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	2	2	1	3	2
Percentage	20%	20%	10%	30%	20%
Results	CLT = 40%		10%	GTM = 50%	

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Q17. All four skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing) should be taught at early level for better English language teaching.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	1	5	0	1	3
Percentage	10%	50%	0	10%	30%
Results	CLT = 60%		0	GTM = 40%	

Q18. Learners should be given maximum opportunity to interact and communicate in the target language in the class while teaching.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	3	3	0	1	3
Percentage	30%	30%	0	10%	30%
Results	CLT = 60%		0	GTM = 40%	

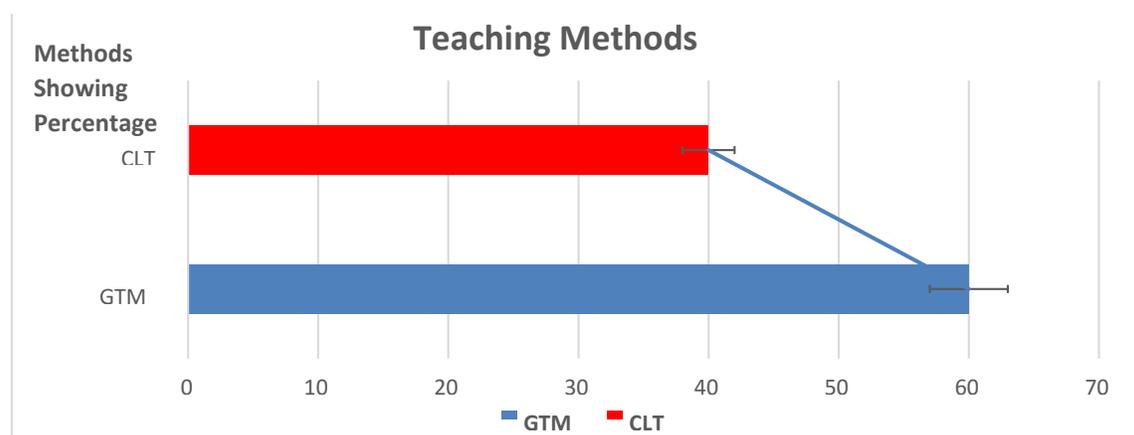
Q19. Learners should be free to communicate on the situations created by the teacher in the class.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	1	1	1	4	3
Percentage	10%	10%	10	40%	30%
Results	CLT = 30%		10%	GTM = 70%	

Q20. The goal of language teaching should be the ability of learner to communicate in the target language.

Analysis	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	3	1	0	4	2
Percentage	30%	10%	0	40%	20%
Results	CLT = 40%		0	GTM = 60%	

Data analysis shows that grammar translation method is still considered as an effective method of teaching English in Sindh since many English language teachers apply this method in their classrooms. Figure 2 illustrates that 60 % English language teachers apply GTM method whereas, 40% teachers apply Communicative language teaching method.



**Figure 1.** Graph shows percentage of GTM vs CLT methods applied by ELT teachers

### Discussion/Suggestion/Conclusion

The findings of the data report that 60% of the target teachers still relied on GTM; however, 40% teachers applied CLT method which, they argued, was a reliable and more effective method of English language teaching. Some of the language teachers did not view CLT to be more effective as compared to GTM. GMT method is very old, but it is still gaining ground in three districts of Sindh despite the emergence of several modern methods. In addition, CLT is quite effective on account of its natural way of teaching and bringing

updated authentic material in the class. However, some teachers considered that it is very difficult even now to teach through CLT since language teachers have still not developed their language teaching skills as prescribed by CLT. Therefore, the teachers seemed to be more inclined to apply the strategies and techniques applied in GTM which they considered that the need of teaching English language could be fulfilled. Teaching of English in these districts should be promoted by training teachers from the districts of Sindh. However, a few institutes are promoting English language teaching, i.e., private sector colleges and universities. English language teachers in Sindh still need more trainings, workshops, seminars, vigorous and consistent development in order to have up-to-date skills to teach English.

The present study was conducted in order to find out which method either GTM or CLT was more effective. Thus, the present study discovered that grammar translation method is more effective in comparison to communicative language teaching method, in three districts of Sindh in view of the responses collected from English language teachers.

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### Questionnaire

Name _____ Qualification _____ Profession _____										
City/Town _____ School/College _____										
<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">25-30</td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">30-35</td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">35-40</td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;">40-45</td> </tr> </table>							25-30	30-35	35-40	40-45
25-30	30-35	35-40	40-45							
Gender <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female		Age								
<b>S N</b>	<b>QUESTIONS</b>	Str on gly Ag ree	Ag ree	Nei the r Dis agr ee nor Ag ree	Dis agr ee	Str on gly Dis agr ee				
1	A teacher should be able to speak the target language in the classroom.									

2	Teacher at first teaches grammar rules to the students in the class.					
3	The best way of teaching English to teach tenses at the initial stage.					
4	The effective way of teaching English is to ask the student to translate the sentences from native language to target language.					
5	Teacher may give learners difficult passages from text to translate into target language in the class.					
6	Teacher gives instruction in native language for the better understanding in the class.					
7	Teacher may avoid speaking target language in the class while teaching.					
8	Learners should master the grammatical structures for better language learning outcomes in the class.					
9	A teacher can effectively teach English language by teaching rules of the grammar rather than getting accuracy in the target language.					
10	The ultimate goal of teaching language is to get accuracy in the target language rather than to have mastery over the fluency of the learners.					
11	A teacher should pinpoint the mistakes and correct them while language teaching.					
12	A teacher facilitates learners to speak in the target language freely in the class.					
13	Teacher creates situations in the class for interaction among the learners in the target language.					
14	Grammatical structures are not necessary to teach at the initial level of language teaching.					
15	Teacher provides language learning activities in the class for meaningful negotiations among the language learners.					
16	Teacher should make the learners involve in role playing or dramatization to adjust their use of target language in social contexts.					
17	All four skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing) should be taught at early level for better English language teaching.					
18	Learners should be given maximum opportunity to interact and communicate in the target language in the class while teaching.					
19	Learners should be free to communicate on the situations created by the teacher in the class.					

20	The goal of language teaching should be the ability of learner to communicate in the target language.					
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Thank you very much for being the part of this research survey

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**Washback of the Public Examination on Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh**



*A thesis submitted to the Department of English, Faculty of Arts and Humanities of Jahangirnagar University for the degree of*

**Doctor of Philosophy  
in English (Applied Linguistics and ELT)**

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September 2011

**Dedicated to my parents**

## ABSTRACT

The way in which public examinations influence teaching and learning is commonly described as washback in applied linguistics. Washback influences a variety of teaching and learning areas directly and indirectly, either positively or negatively, or both. The key objectives of the study were to examine washback as a phenomenon relating to those areas that were most likely to be directly affected by the HSC examination in English. The study set out a number of research questions, and answered them to achieve the objectives of the study. The whole study is presented in this thesis divided into six chapters, each chapter incorporating specific issues of the present study.

Chapter One outlines the background information on the general context of the research and identifies the various components of the problem to be studied such as relationship between teaching and testing, statement of the problem, significance of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, definition of terms, limitations of the study, structure of the thesis, etc. Chapter Two covers the theoretical framework of washback relating to the significant areas of the present study. The central issues include the philosophical and empirical bases of testing and washback. Chapter Three presents the literature review of a number of empirical studies carried out on washback in different countries and cultures. The review reveals that washback is a complex phenomenon and has negative or positive relations to teaching and learning EFL. The findings of those studies have shown that, in most of the cases, tests narrow down the syllabus and curriculum, influence the selection of lesson contents, alter teaching methods and materials, but some have indicated that tests have limited or no impact on those areas. Chapter Four discusses the research design and methodology employed in this study. It focuses on how the different types of data were collected, analysed, and presented. A mixed methods (MM) approach was used for data collection and data analysis. The questionnaire (quantitative method), in-depth interview, classroom observation (qualitative method), and analysis of documents were used to collect data. Five-Grade Likert Scale (1932) was used in the questionnaire to elicit responses from the respondents. The subjects, 500 HSC students and 125 English language teachers, were selected

from 20 higher secondary colleges by using the simple random sampling method. Chapter Five presents the findings, and their interpretation. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 18.0) was used for quantitative data analysis. Qualitative analysis involved the use of the constant comparative method and inductive logic while quantitative analysis in this study involved descriptive statistics (e.g., frequency counts, means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, median, mode, etc.). The results are sectioned and discussed with reference to the research questions. Chapter Six presents the answers to all the research questions, the findings of the study in brief, recommendations and implications, and the conclusion.

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 were 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. Based upon the findings, this study put forwards some recommendations for promoting positive washback on EFL teaching and learning at the HSC level. Some of the major recommendations are to: (1) provide testers, examiners, curriculum designers and teachers with extensive professional development opportunities, (2) monitor the teaching and learning activities in the classroom, and check the test related materials whether they enhance EFL learning, (3) align the curriculum and syllabus with the content of the test to assure that students have studied the required contents of the syllabus before taking the tests, and (4) discourage commercially produced clone tests materials.

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.

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

<b>AILA</b>	- Association internationale de linguistique appliquée <i>or</i> International Association of Applied Linguistics
<b>ANOVA</b>	- Analysis of Variance
<b>ASL</b>	- Arabic as a second language
<b>ATESL</b>	- Administrators and Teachers of English as a Second Language
<b>BAK</b>	- Beliefs, Assumptions, Knowledge
<b>BAKE</b>	- Beliefs, Assumptions, Knowledge, Experience
<b>BISE</b>	- Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education
<b>CEELT</b>	- Cambridge Examination in English for Language Teachers. Tests the English competency of non-native teachers of English
<b>CET</b>	- College English Test
<b>CEIBT</b>	- Certificate in English for International Business and Trade for advanced levels.
<b>CPE</b>	- Certificate of Proficiency in English
<b>CLA</b>	- Communicative Language Ability
<b>CLT</b>	- Communicative Language Teaching, a teaching approach of second and foreign languages that emphasizes communication and interaction as both the means and the goal of learning a language.
<b>COLT</b>	- Communicative Orientation to Language Teaching
<b>DA</b>	- Discourse Analysis
<b>DELNA</b>	- Diagnostic English Language Needs Assessment
<b>DSHE</b>	- Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education
<b>EAL</b>	- English as an Additional Language
<b>EAP</b>	- English for Academic Purposes
<b>EFL</b>	- English as a Foreign Language
<b>ECCE</b>	- Examination for the Certificate of Competency in English (Michigan University) - lower level.
<b>ECPE</b>	- Exam for the Certificate of Proficiency in English (Michigan University) - higher level.
<b>EFT</b>	- English For Today
<b>EGP</b>	- English for general purposes
<b>ELD</b>	- English Language Development

<b>ELP</b>	- English Language Portfolio
<b>ELT</b>	- English language training or teaching
<b>EIP</b>	- English as an International Language
<b>ELTIP</b>	- English language Teaching Improvement Project
<b>EPTB</b>	- English Proficiency Test Battery
<b>ELTS</b>	- English Language Testing Service
<b>ESL</b>	- English as a Second Language
<b>ESAP</b>	- English for Specific Academic Purposes
<b>ESP</b>	- English for Specific Purposes
<b>ESOL</b>	- English for Speakers of Other Languages
<b>ETS</b>	- Educational Testing Service
<b>FCE</b>	- First Certificate of English
<b>FFPS</b>	- Full-fee Paying Students
<b>FL</b>	- Foreign Language
<b>FLA</b>	- Foreign Language Acquisition
<b>GPA</b>	- Grade Point Average
<b>GMAT</b>	- Graduate Management Admission Test.
<b>GPA</b>	- Grade Point Average
<b>HSC</b>	- Higher Secondary Certificate
<b>IELTS</b>	- International English Language Testing System
<b>IATEFL</b>	- International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language
<b>IDP</b>	- International Development Program
<b>L1</b>	- Language 1 - native language
<b>L2</b>	- Language 2 - the language we are learning
<b>LL</b>	- Language Learning
<b>LSP</b>	- Language for Specific Purposes
<b>M</b>	- Mean Score
<b>MCQ</b>	- Multiple Choice Question
<b>MDI</b>	- Measurement Driven Instruction
<b>MANOVA</b>	- Multivariate Analysis of Variance
<b>MoE</b>	- Ministry of Education
<b>MSE</b>	- Mean Squared Error
<b>MT</b>	- Mother Tongue
<b>MTELP</b>	- Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency

<b>NCTB</b>	- National Curriculum and Textbook Board
<b>NNL</b>	- Non-Native Language
<b>NNS</b>	- Non Native Speaker
<b>NS</b>	- Native Speaker
<b>OET</b>	- Occupational English Test
<b>S</b>	- Student
<b>SL</b>	- Second Language
<b>SLA</b>	- Second Language Acquisition
<b>SSC</b>	- Secondary School Certificate
<b>STDV</b>	- Standard Deviation
<b>T</b>	- Teacher
<b>TEFL</b>	- Teaching English as a Foreign Language
<b>TEIL</b>	- Teaching English as an International Language
<b>TESOL</b>	- Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
<b>TOEFL</b>	- Test of English as a Foreign Language
<b>TOEIC</b>	- Test of English for International Communication
<b>TESL</b>	- Teaching English as a Second Language
<b>TLU</b>	- Tasks in the Language Use
<b>UCLES</b>	- University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate
<b>UCOS</b>	- The University of Cambridge Classroom Observation Schedule
<b>UEE.</b>	- University Entrance Examination
<b>VE</b>	- Vocational English

# Chapter One

## Introduction

The first chapter offers an introduction to the context of the whole study by giving a brief account of the underlying problems that generated this research study. This chapter consists of nine sections and provides an overall introduction to the study. It incorporates a number of issues, and identifies various components of the problem to be studied including the background information on the general context of the research, relationship between testing, teaching and learning, testing at the higher secondary level in Bangladesh, importance of studying washback, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, research questions, definition of terms, limitations of the study, structure of the thesis, and a conclusion.

### 1.1 The General Context of the Research

The Bangladesh education system is characterised as being examination-driven. Under this system, examinations are of exaggerated importance. At various levels of education, be they secondary, higher secondary or tertiary, it is a common practice that teachers teach to the test. Not only are most courses tailored to examinations, but the teachers' and students' attention is also correspondingly directed at the skills which will be tested in the examination. Furthermore, test scores are viewed both as a marker of students' academic success and as the premise to their future career. Testing is generally accepted as an integral part of teaching and learning. It is one of the basic components of any curriculum, and plays a pivotal role in determining what learners learn. Tests also play a central role in deciding on what to teach, and how to teach. Candlin and Edelhoff (1982) assert that learners learn most when they are quite precisely aware of how their efforts are to be judged and evaluated.

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. 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). 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 this study, the terms *assessment* and *test* are used interchangeably with *examination*, as has also been done in educational literature. Although assessment has also come to include the evaluation of schools or education systems, this aspect will not form a part of the following discussion. Here, the primary focus of the discussion will be on what is commonly termed, “high-stakes examinations”. Assessment is often called “high-stakes” if it has real or perceived effects on the life or academic opportunities of students and consequences for teachers and schools. 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).

Generally, public examinations are held at the state level at the end of academic years, and controlled and administered by external examining boards. These are academic achievement tests. Examination boards are designated for conducting the examinations and issuing certificates through assessment of answer scripts. Education boards are formed with the main objectives of maintaining standards of education. The Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) examination in Bangladesh, the subject of the present study, is a high-stakes test. It is an external test because it is administered by an external body, an education board. It can also be termed as a standardized test because of its nature; it is a criterion-reference test in characteristics as well.

Traditionally, the HSC examination can be termed as an achievement test. The relationship between testing and teaching has long been a matter of interest in both educational and applied linguistics. In applied linguistics, the influence of testing on teaching and learning has been referred to as *washback*. 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.

High-stakes tests influence the contents and methodology of teaching programmes, attitudes towards the value of certain educational objectives and activities, the academic employment options that are open to individuals, and may have significant long-term implications for education systems and the societies in which they are used. In Bangladesh, English language is taught compulsorily as a study subject in the higher secondary education. It 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.

### **1.1.1 Teaching and Testing EFL 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 course is supposed to prepare students for real-life situations in which they may be required to use English. The selection of the course content has been determined in the light of students' present and future academic, social, and professional needs. 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. Many students think that so long as they can pass the test it does not matter whether they attend the regular classes or not; this results in students' high rate of absence from classes in some colleges, especially in the rural areas.

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” (Alderson et al., 2001, p.45). This encourages both teachers and students to work over test skills and countermeasures in preparing for the test, which interferes in regular classroom teaching, leads to test-oriented teaching, 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. Examination questions are repeated in at least every two or three years, and hence questions can be predicted. 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.

In the twenty-first century, many countries are increasingly confronted with rapid social, economic and political changes that take place in their societies as a result of technological innovations and the process of globalisation. These nations often turn to their educational system to help prepare their youth and citizens for the challenges that they must face. As a result, the authorities are becoming increasingly aware of the needs to reform educational practices to bring them in line with the realities and demands of a new age. In Bangladesh, education is regarded as a vital tool in the task of social advancement, preparation of human resources and social engineering.

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

developed in 1990 had been under serious criticism for not providing an adequate level of basic oral-aural communication competences for the higher secondary students though they had studied English for twelve years. The government, therefore, undertook initiatives for the revision of the old HSC English syllabus and curriculum, and initiated for the writing of new textbooks with communicative view of teaching and learning.

The new curriculum for the HSC EFL education was introduced in 2000, following by the issuance of the new textbooks to be used by the students from 2001. Under the present syllabus and curriculum, the first HSC examination in EFL was held in 2003. English *second paper* was modified in 2007 (examination was first held nationally in 2009) introducing more grammar, composition (subjective question) and some textual items based on the new requirements. However, the idea that the reform can encourage student learning in a qualitative way has yet to be attested empirically. The foreign language test was designed to replace the old elective test that was mainly oriented towards the evaluation of grammatical aspects of the foreign language education. The new test seeks to evaluate the communicative competence of the students, which means observing those aspects in which they can use the knowledge they possess of that foreign language to act in specific situations which demand their making use of that knowledge. 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 Littlewood (1981), Widdowson (1978), Brumfit and Johnson (1979), Halliday (1970), Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980), and Canale (1983) among others.

It is widely believed that when designing a language test or evaluating its potential usefulness, two critical measurement qualities are needed to give consideration to: reliability and validity. Validity relates to the extent to which meaningful inferences can be drawn from test scores (Bachman, 1990). In contrast, reliability concerns the consistency of measurement. Of the validity considerations for a language test, construct validity is viewed as pivotal. It is often used to refer to the extent to which one can interpret a given test score as an indicator of a test takers' language ability. The term can be interpreted to mean that if a test has good construct validity, it is a good indicator of test takers' language ability and vice-

versa. Bachman and Palmer (1996) place special emphasis on test tasks claiming that they should be carefully selected and their characteristics should be adequately described. Construct definition is given by Chapelle (1998) as a theoretical description of the capacity that a test is supposed to measure. Bachman and Palmer (ibid.) seem to suggest that the more the test tasks reflect the construct definition, the higher the construct validity. From their perspective, construct validity is affected to some extent by the characteristics and content of the test tasks. In this regard, there is an obvious need to examine the task characteristics of the HSC examination in English. 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, teachers of English consider teaching listening and speaking simply waste of time. The contents of the HSC examination in English can hardly assess students' communicative competence. Therefore, the validity of the HSC examination in English is doubtful in term of testing communicative competence.

Eight general secondary and higher secondary education boards are designated to administer the examinations and issue certificates. Different education boards conduct the examination with separate sets of question papers under the same syllabus and textbook. The question format, pattern, contents of test, and the distribution of marks for the tasks and items are same in nature in all boards. In the field of communicative language testing research and practice, the framework proposed by Bachman and Palmer (1996) is often taken as a theoretically grounded guideline for analysing the characteristics of a test.

The HSC examination in English does not correspond to the curriculum objectives. They contain little reference to the knowledge and skills that students need in their everyday life outside the class, and they tend to measure achievement at a low taxonomic level. As can be seen from the discussion above on the purposes for which examinations are used in educational systems and the support or critique surrounding it, this is an issue that is still widely debated. Be that as it may, as Cheng (2004) points out, teaching and testing will probably become more closely linked in more complex manners in the future. In Hong Kong, Andrews et al. (2002) have found that during the last four years of secondary schooling, the focus is still on preparing students to pass the mandatory public examinations; in fact, the

developmental work on the new English Language syllabi in Hong Kong deliberately targets a positive washback effect of the examination on classroom teaching. Therefore, it is important to conduct studies that examine what is actually happening in schools and classrooms, because, as mentioned in Wall (1997) and Bailey (1996), the claims about test consequences are sometimes based more on assumptions than on empirical evidence. As such, studies which provide empirical evidence showing how innovations in exams or testing affect teaching and learning in classroom are crucial to validating these claims.

While HSC examinations have promoted the college English teaching, they have also led to the test-oriented teaching in colleges and hindered the development of students' communicative competence. To eliminate the negative washback effect of the HSC examination in English, subjective questions are increased. However, it is found that teachers still mainly adopt traditional methods to teach writing and tend to ignore the intention of reform. Teachers' beliefs and experiences in language teaching are found to be one of the contributing factors. Another factor is that the status of teachers in Bangladesh is very much related to the test scores achieved by their students. Teachers' perceptions of an examination can be as significant as the test itself. It was a pressing need to examine how the HSC examination in English influenced the academic behaviours of both the teachers and the students. Therefore, the present study attempted to investigate the influence of the HSC examination on EFL teaching and learning.

### **1.1.2 Importance of Studying Washback**

The strong influence of high-stakes tests on teaching and learning processes has long been accepted in the field of education. 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; Elder & Wigglesworth, 1996; Wall, 2000). The term *washback* became used in the field to refer to the power that high-stakes tests could have on language teaching and learning, although *impact* or *consequences* are more commonly used in the field of education (Rea-Dickins & Scott, 2007). While the concept of washback was earlier only asserted based on anecdotal evidence (Burrows, 2004), the pioneer evidence-based washback research was carried out by

Alderson and Wall (1993). They investigated the effects of the introduction of new tests in Sri Lanka on the teaching of English as a foreign language by secondary school teachers. Implementing the tests was expected to reinforce innovations in teaching materials and to encourage communicative language teaching while discouraging traditional grammar focused teaching. They found, however, that teachers' lessons remained teacher-centred over the period of two years and students still had little chance to use English in a practical way – although language learning activities and the design of classroom tests were influenced by the new textbooks. They concluded that the effects of the implementation of new tests were much more limited than expected and that the mechanism of washback was not as straightforward as previously thought.

When studying washback, it is also possible to focus on participants (teachers, students, material developers, publishers), process (actions by participants towards learning), and products (what is learned and the quality of learning), as suggested in Hughes's trichotomy model (Hughes, 1993 as cited in Bailey, 1996). Watanabe (2004) proposes disentangling the complexity of washback by conceptualizing it in terms of: Dimension (specificity, intensity, length, intentionality and value of the washback), aspects of learning and teaching that may be influenced by the examination, and the factors mediating the process of washback being generated (test factors, prestige factors, personal factors, macro-context-factors). Usually researchers focus on one aspect or type of washback. In Alderson and Wall's study in Sri Lanka (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Wall, 1996), the introduction of a test of English as a foreign language proved to produce faster changes in the content of teaching than changes in teaching methodology. Cheng (1997), in the preliminary results of a study of the washback effect of the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination in English in Hong Kong secondary schools, reports that washback effect "works quickly and efficiently in bringing about changes in teaching materials [...] and slowly and reluctantly and with difficulties in the methodology teachers employ" (p.1). Cheng introduces the term 'washback intensity' to refer to the "degree of washback effect in an area or a number of areas that an examination affects most" (p.7).

Andrews et al. (2002) finds out in their study that the impact of a test can be immediate or delayed. According to these researchers, washback seems to be

associated primarily with ‘high–stakes’ tests, that is, tests used for making important decisions that affect different sectors., for example, determining who receives admission into further education or employment opportunities (Chapman and Snyder, 2000). Madaus (1990 in Shohami, Donitza-Schmitdt & Ferman, 1996) identifies as ‘high’ such situations when admission, promotion, placement and graduation are dependent on the test. Cheng (2000) reports on how tests are often introduced into the education system to improve teaching and learning, especially in centralised countries including China, Taiwan, Japan, and Hong Kong where tests are considered an efficient tool for introducing changes into an educational system without having to change other educational components. In some countries these tests can be considered “the engine for implementing educational policy” (Cheng, 2000, p. 6).

In recent years, researchers have been making significant inroads into investigating this phenomenon in different social and educational contexts. As a result, the definition as well as the nature and scope of washback have been extensively discussed, and a number of different perspectives have emerged in language testing and ELT research area. Despite the strong link between testing, teaching and learning discussed in the field of education, the assertion that a test influences what teachers and students do in the classroom is often based on anecdotal evidence, and did not receive much attention from researchers until the early 1990s in the field of applied linguistics.

Of the various patterns or themes that have emerged from studies on washback, the most prominent one is the gap that exists between teachers’ beliefs about innovation and the beliefs held by innovators. There is sufficient evidence indicating that teachers’ perceptions of washback seldom overlap the perceptions of test designers or policy. Though some research studies have been carried out on washback studies in different countries, no formal research has been carried out in Bangladesh to investigate how the HSC examination has been influencing EFL teachers and students. So, it was important to carry out a study in Bangladesh on this topic. Furthermore, though a good number of washback studies have been carried out during recent years in different countries, the washback effect is still to be adequately defined and analysed.

### **1.1.3 Relations of Testing to Teaching and Learning**

There is an in-depth relation between testing, teaching and learning. Test objectives determine the teaching objectives. Testing strongly influences the classroom activities. Tests are assumed to be powerful determiners of what happens in classrooms; and it is commonly claimed that tests affect teaching and learning activities both directly and indirectly. As mentioned earlier, washback, a term commonly used in applied linguistics, refers to the influence of language testing on 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.

A high-stakes test is a type of test whose results are seen- rightly or wrongly by students, teachers, administrators, parents, or the general public as the basis upon which important decisions that immediately and directly affect the students are made. A test can be considered as high-stakes if the test results are perceived by stakeholders (e.g., teachers, students, parents and schools) to have serious consequences, such as graduation, comparison or placement of students, the evaluation of teachers or schools, and/or the allocation of resources to schools (Madaus, 1988). High-stakes tests can be norm or criterion-referenced, and internal and external in origin. They offer future academic and employment opportunities based upon the results. They are usually public examinations or large-scale standardized tests. The HSC public examination, the subject of the study, is such a high-stake test. It is given to the students at the end of their 12<sup>th</sup> year of education. Students either proceed to further studies or leave school, and seek employment after passing the HSC examination.

Washback is the power of examinations over what takes place in the classroom (Alderson and Wall, 1993, p.115). Numerous explanations of the term 'washback' can be found throughout the published research and literature on language testing. One of the most common definitions sees the concept referred to as the influence of testing on teaching and learning (e.g. Alderson & Wall, 1993; Gates 1995; Cheng & Curtis 2004). Brown (2000) defines washback as "the connection between testing and learning" (p.298). Gates (1995) explains washback simply as "the influence of testing on teaching and learning" (p.101). Messick (1996) refers to

washback as "... the extent to which the introduction and use of a test influences language teachers and learners to do things they would not otherwise do that promote or inhibit language learning" (p. 241).

Pierce (1992) states that the washback effect is sometimes referred to as the systemic validity of a test. Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.29-35) 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; Morrow, 1986; Pearson, 1988; Hughes, 1989; Morris, 1990). As tests have the power to select, motivate and reward, so too can they de-motivate and punish.

Language tests have become a pervasive part of education system and civilization. They play a significant socio-economic role in modern societies. A test is an experience that the teacher creates to serve as a basis for grading a learner in order to group them according to a laid down standard by a government or an institution. A test is a method that generally requires some performance or activity on the part of either the testee or the tester, or both. There is a set of techniques, procedures, test items that constitutes an instrument of some sort. Such a type of external test is commonly believed to have an impact on teaching and learning. Every test does not carry the same weight and importance. High stakes tests influence the way students and teachers behave, the content and methodology of teaching programmes, attitudes towards the value of certain educational objectives and activities, the academic employment options that are open to individuals, and may have significant long-term implications for education systems and for the societies in which they are used.

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, 1999). 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).

In recent years, there has been growing interest among the testers in the field of education, in the effects, both desirable and undesirable, of tests and the concepts of ‘test impact’ and ‘test washback’. Impact is the consequence of a test on individuals, on educational systems and on society in general. The term ‘washback’ or ‘backwash’ as it is sometimes refers to, can be broadly defined as the effect of testing on teaching and learning, and is therefore a form of impact. It is then a concept which includes several specialised areas in the field of applied linguistics such as communicative language teaching and testing.

The term “Communicative language teaching and testing” has emerged as a much-talked issue in the worldwide English language education arena. In communicative language teaching, the purpose of testing is to evaluate how far learning and teaching are taking place, or in other words, how far the students have attained the ability to use the language in certain span of time. Testing communicative competence means testing the ability to use language for communication. This also includes the testing of four basic skills of language — listening, speaking, reading, and writing. There are some distinctions between the traditional examination and the communicative language test. The purpose, in traditional examination, is that of promoting or detaining a student, or awarding degree. In language tests, how far the learners have attained language proficiency has to be measured.

There is a natural tendency for both teachers and learners to tailor their classroom activities to the demands of the test, especially when the test is very important for the future of the learners, and the pass rates are used as a measure of teachers’ success. There is a consensus among the educators that the contents of classroom instruction should be decided on the basis of clearly understood educational goals, and examinations should try to ascertain whether these goals have been achieved. The influence of examinations on second/foreign language (SL/FL) teaching and learning has become an area of significant interest for testers and

teachers alike. 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.

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.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Examinations play an important social and educational role in Bangladesh; the promotion of an effective English testing system has thus been of great importance. It is now widely believed that the phenomenon of how external tests/public examinations influence teaching and learning is commonly described as "washback" in language instruction. Literature indicates that testing washback is a complex concept that becomes even more complex under a variety of interpretations of the washback phenomenon on teaching and learning. Some studies conclude that no simple washback effect occurs (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Watanabe, 1996), whereas others find powerful determiners of language testing towards classroom teaching (Hughes, 1988; Khaniya, 1990; Herman and Golan, 1991).

Testing and teaching are strongly correlated; testing determines the teaching and the learning. Testing objective is determined by teaching objectives. Teaching and learning in Bangladesh are test-driven. The classroom activities are overwhelmingly guided by the contents of the examination. The teachers remain very selective to the classroom activities. They teach those items which are likely to be tested, and ignore the ones that may not be tested. They narrow down the syllabus

for the benefit of the test. They directly teach to the test to attain the immediate goal of scoring high in the examination. There exist mismatches between the curriculum objectives and examination objectives. There is strong disagreement on whether all the skills of English language are properly tested in the public examinations. These are all problems to be addressed in the present study.

Most recently, policy makers, educators and researchers in Bangladesh have devoted much effort to the nature and outcomes of the examination and its washback on EFL teaching and learning. Though considerable amounts of washback studies have been conducted in various contexts of English language teaching and learning through out the world during the last decade, a little research has been carried out within Bangladesh context. Therefore, the present study was designed to examine the washback of the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) examination on EFL teaching and learning.

The present study may be taken as a pioneer formal research on the washback of the public examination on EFL teaching and learning at all levels in general, and the HSC in particular. The study investigated the relationships between the EFL curriculum and examination, the textbook materials and EFL test, teaching method and EFL examination, classroom activities and test, etc. Then the study examined whether any washback of the HSC examination existed, and how much and in what way teaching and learning English were influenced by the HSC examination.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

The present study entitled *Washback of the Public Examination on Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh* was designed to examine whether the washback of the HSC public examination influenced teaching and learning English as a foreign language as a whole. The study investigated the phenomenon of the washback effect in the light of measurement driven instruction. The present study tried to understand how the main participants in the Bangladesh educational context react to the HSC examination– a major public examination. It attempted to explore the nature and scope of the washback effect on the aspects of institutional policies, teachers' and students'

perceptions, and teachers' behaviours, within the context of the HSC examination in English.

Testing and standards appear to be a permanent part of today's educational arena; and, since teachers are obliged to work under these guidelines, it is important for educational research to examine if testing and standards influence teachers' activities in the classroom. Teachers are at the center of this debate, and have a vested interest in its outcomes. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine the existence and the degree of this influence. The study hoped to learn whether testing changed the teachers' teaching methods; whether the teachers were influenced to change their beliefs, strategies and activities to align the test.

The present study explored the possible answers to all the research questions posed in the present study. This study attempted to find out whether the EFL teachers are truly teaching to the test and the potential reasons involved. The broad purpose of this study was to investigate how those were involved, directly and indirectly, in teaching and learning English. The purpose of this study was also to determine in what ways the teachers followed the syllabus and curriculum and teaching method to impact test results, to what degree, and in what specific way it was done. On the whole, all the conclusions were drawn based on what the teachers, the students, and the other participants said in the present study. Thus, the objectives of the present study can be summarised as follow:

### ***General objective***

The study was designed to generally investigate how the HSC examination in English directly and indirectly influenced teaching and learning English as a foreign language (EFL).

### ***Specific objectives***

The study specifically:

- a. explored the nature and scope of the washback effect on the aspects of teachers' and students' perceptions and behaviours within the context of the HSC examination in English;
- b. tried to understand how the main participants (e.g. students, teachers, examiners, curriculum specialists and materials writers, and the like) within the Bangladesh education context react to the examination in EFL;

c. intended to determine the ways teachers and students follow the syllabus and curriculum, textbook, materials, etc;

d. attempted to investigate whether the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum are achieved through classroom teaching and learning; and

e. endeavoured to learn whether the examination influence changes teachers' teaching methods, teaching strategies and activities to align the test or curriculum.

## **1.4 Significance of the Study**

The strong influence of high-stakes tests, such as the HSC examination, on teaching and learning process has long been accepted in the field of education. The study proved to be highly significant in many respects: the study examined the influence of public examination on teaching and learning English as a foreign language; the findings of this study would provide educational parties involved in English language education with important information to help improve the policy, practice and implementation of English language teaching and learning. Most importantly, the study highlighted the voices of teachers and students, the very people at the centre of the teaching and learning process.

Despite testing being a very important activity in the teaching learning situation, a little formal research (e. g. Maniruzzaman and Hoque, 2010; Maniruzzaman, 2011) has been carried out in the field of washback effect till today in Bangladesh. Though some research studies have been carried out on washback studies in different countries, to my knowledge, no research has been carried out in Bangladesh to investigate how the HSC examination has been influencing EFL teachers and students. So, there were ample scope of study in this filed. It was expected that the study would bring a quality change in the present examination system at the higher secondary level in Bangladesh. The study may help teachers and students consider the examination as 'servant' to the learning, not the 'master', 'lever', not the 'barrier'.

One of the main strengths of this study is its research design. The study used a mixed- methods (MM) approach to both data collection and analysis. The results were relatively greater in breadth and depth, not only in terms of the data collection but also in terms of the interpretation. Therefore, the results may be considered

reliable. This was an empirical study; and it was one of the few washback studies that employed both quantitative and qualitative data to explore the washback effect on teaching and learning. Based on both quantitative and qualitative data, this study provided solid research evidence to describe and explain the washback effect of the HSC examination in English subject on various aspects of teaching and learning, and on the Bangladesh education system as a whole. Although this investigation provided data on and evidence of the washback effect in a specific educational context, it should also contribute to the understanding of education in Bangladesh, in general.

The questions asked in the various instruments- questionnaires, interviews and the classroom observation scheme, have drawn on theoretical considerations in the areas of language teaching and learning along with interviews with relevant stakeholders in Bangladesh. The instruments are, therefore, easily applicable to future studies conducted at other levels of education in Bangladesh. It is believed that the study provides a starting point for future researchers to find the most appropriate method for their own contexts. It would facilitate further research on washback, and allow easier comparison of the results between the studies.

The study was potentially significant as it offers educators and policymakers insights into English language teaching and learning at the HSC level. The study, first, investigated the relationships among the curriculum, the textbooks and materials, the EFL teaching and learning, and the HSC examination in English; the study then tried to explore whether the HSC examination exerted any washback on the EFL teaching and learning. This study further discerned the nature of washback and the variable(s) influenced by the washback effect. The findings of this study may provide important information to help the educational parties involved in English language education modify the policy, practice and implementation of any innovations for the improvement of English language teaching and learning.

The results of the study may enormously contribute to the area of marking and grading of the students in the examination. The findings of the study may contribute to the literature on general education, EFL teacher education, and cognitive psychology.

## 1.5 Research Questions

Washback is a very complex notion. It does not only refer to the effect of an examination in the classroom, but also in the school, in the educational system and in the society. It is simplistic to believe that a test can result in all desired changes in teaching and learning. In the public examination system in Bangladesh, some language elements (vocabulary, grammar, etc.) and the two literacy skills: writing and reading comprehension are tested in the examinations, while the other two language skills: listening and speaking remain entirely untested. It is now a proven belief that activities in schools are dictated by examinations (Wong et. al. 2000). When examinations are high-stakes tests, their impact is maximised. Moreover, changes in education, particularly in teaching can be facilitated by tests (Davies, 1985).

Based on the research purposes, the study looked at the washback effect of the HSC examination on EFL teaching and learning both at the macro level with respect to major parties within the Bangladesh educational context and at the micro level with regard to different facets of classroom teaching and learning. It is important to emphasise that both teaching and learning were studied in this project, as both of these constructs occur interactively in the classroom. Therefore, the teachers and the students were included in the study. However, aspects of learning and learners were studied only when they related to classroom teaching. Washback researchers in the field of applied linguistics have rarely communicated with those in the field of education, although the power that a test has on teaching and learning is now well recognised and has been extensively investigated in both fields (Rea-Dickins, 2004). Therefore, the current research aimed to incorporate theories of test impact or washback available in the two fields (education and applied linguistics). It can be argued that identifying the role of contexts and beliefs can contribute to a model of washback which shows further understanding of its mechanism.

The study focuses on observing what happens in language classes for preparing the students for the HSC examination. Due to the scarcity of similar studies of washback, the objectives of the study were methodological as well as substantive. Students tend to be influenced by their teachers in terms of the relationships between teaching and learning; nevertheless, students' views may be different from, or independent of, their teachers'. For this reason, the present

researcher focused on both teacher and student perception, and compared both of them in order to look at how differently they think and feel about the influence of the HSC examination on teaching and learning. Therefore, the study posed the following research questions:

**RQ<sub>1</sub>.** Does washback of the HSC examination influence EFL teaching and learning?

**RQ<sub>2</sub>.** Does the HSC examination have any washback effect on the syllabus and curriculum?

**RQ<sub>3</sub>.** To what extent does the test content influence teaching methodology?

**RQ<sub>4</sub>.** What are the nature and scope of testing the EFL skills of the students at the higher secondary level?

**RQ<sub>5</sub>.** What are the effects that an examination preparation process can have on what teachers and learners actually do?

**RQ<sub>6</sub>.** What is the effect of the HSC examination on the academic behaviour, feelings, perception and attitudes of teachers and students?

## 1.6 Definition of Terms

A number of key terms are defined as follows in order to establish a consistent and common meaning for them as they are used in this thesis.

**Achievement Test:** An achievement test measures what a learner knows from what he/she has been taught. This type of test is typically given by the teacher at a particular time throughout the course covering a certain amount of material.

**Alternative Assessment:** Alternative assessment refers to a non-conventional way of evaluating what students know and can do with the language. It is informal and usually administered in the class. Examples of this type of assessment include self-assessment and portfolio assessment.

**Analytical scale:** Analytical scale is a type of rating scale that requires teachers to allot separate ratings for the different components of language ability such as content, grammar, vocabulary, etc.

**Assessment:** Assessment is a term that refers to a thorough but constant appraisal, judgement and analysis of students' performance through meticulous collection of information. Assessment is a systematic method of obtaining information from tests and other sources, used to draw inferences about characteristics of people, objects, or programmes; the process of gathering, describing, or quantifying information about performance; an exercise such as a written test, portfolio, or experiment that seeks to measure a student's skills or knowledge in a subject area.

**Authenticity:** Authenticity refers to evaluation based mainly on real-life experiences; students show what they have learned by performing tasks similar to those required in real-life contexts.

**Communicative Language Teaching (CLT):** In this research, the definition of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) correlates with that provided by western ELT theorists (e.g. Breen & Candlin, 1980; Ellis, 1990; Savignon, 1991, 2003, 2005; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Stern, 1992; Brown, 1994; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Wesche & Skehan, 2002). It refers to a teaching methodology or an approach that focuses primarily on communicative competence comprising both receptive and productive skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing).

**Computer-based testing (CBT):** Computer-based testing (CBT) is programmed, and then administered to students on computer; question formats are frequently objective, discrete-point items. This type of test is subsequently scored electronically.

**Computer-adaptive testing (CAT):** Computer-adaptive testing (CAT) presents language items to the learner via computer; subsequent questions on the examination are "adapted" based on a student's response(s) to a previous question(s).

**Content validity:** When the test accurately reflects the syllabus on which it is based, it can be termed as having content validity. This kind of validity depends on a careful analysis of the language being tested and of the particular course objectives.

**Construct validity:** Construct validity is the degree to which an instrument measures the construct it was designed to measure; how well an instrument can be interpreted as a meaningful measure of some characteristic or quality.

**Cornerstones of good testing practice:** Cornerstones of good testing practice are the guidelines of effective test writers. They include the concepts of validity, reliability, practicality, transparency, authenticity, security and washback.

**Criterion-referenced Tests:** Criterion-referenced tests are often referred to as standards-referenced tests or proficiency tests. These tests measure how well a student measures up to a certain criterion or standard. Scores tell the test taker how close he or she is to meeting the standard in a given subject.

**Curriculum:** A curriculum refers to a formal course of study. It is a focus on study consisting of various courses all designed to reach a particular proficiency or qualification. Curriculum is designed to prepare a student for the rigors of a study. The term "curriculum" in this study is seen to include "the entire teaching/learning process, including materials, equipment, examinations, and the training of teachers.

**Descriptive statistics:** Descriptive statistics describe the population taking the test. The most common descriptive statistics include mean, mode, medium, standard deviation and range; they are also known as the measures of central tendency.

**Discrete-point test:** A discrete-point test is an objective test that measures students' ability to answer questions on a particular aspect of language. Discrete-point items are very popular with teachers because they are quick to write and easy to score.

**Diagnostic test:** Diagnostic test is a type of formative evaluation that attempts to diagnose students' strengths and weaknesses vis- a -vis the course materials. Students receive no grades on diagnostic instruments.

**Evaluation:** Evaluation is described as an overall but regular judgment and analysis of teaching, learning, as well as curriculum through systematic collection of data. Assessment looks at the individual language learners, but evaluation checks the whole language-learning programme. In assessment data is collected by concentrating on students' moment-by-moment performance in the classrooms, "emanating from alternative activities" (Genesee, 2001, p.149) while evaluation involves the gathering of data by focusing on teaching performance and learning outcomes.

**High-stakes tests:** A high-stakes test is one of such quantitative measures that “occasionally pepper” the subjectivity of school organizations to generate objectivity in education. It has four interrelated components: (1) goals, (2) measures, (3) targets, and (4) incentives (Hamilton et al., 2002).

**Holistic scoring:** Holistic scoring is based on an impressionistic method of scoring. An example of this is the scoring used with the TOEFL of Written English (TWE).

**Face validity:** Face validity refers to the overall appearance of the test. It is the extent to which a test appeals to test takers.

**Feedback:** Feedback helps students reflect on the process of learning as well as the product of that process, and provides specific comments on and specific suggestions for improvement, and encourages students to focus their attention on understanding the task rather than producing a product.

**Formative Assessment:** Formative assessment is assessment that provides feedback into an on-going academic programme to be used to modify the programme to improve student learning. Assessment is formative when the evidence of learning is actually used to adapt to learning to meet the needs of students, or by students themselves to change the way they work at their own learning. Formative assessment improves learning.

**Integrative testing:** Integrative testing goes beyond discrete-point test items and contextualized language ability.

**Inter-rater reliability:** Inter-rater reliability attempts to standardize the consistency of marks between raters. It is established through rater training and calibration.

**Item Analysis:** Item analysis is a procedure whereby test items and distractor are examined based on the level of difficulty of the item; and the extent to which they discriminate between high-achieving and low-achieving students. Results of item analyses are used in the upkeep and revision of item banks.

**Likert Scale:** It is a semantic differential scale that requires subjects to respond to the statements by using a numerical indication of the strength of their feeling towards the object or position described in the statement.

**Low-stakes schools:** Low – stakes school refers to a school with high-test scores each year.

**Mean:** Mean is known as the arithmetic average. To obtain mean, scores are added together, and then divided by the number of students who took the test. The mean is a descriptive statistic. In the present study, mean score is expressed as M.

**Mode:** Mode is the most frequently received score in a distribution.

**Norm-referenced tests:** A norm-referenced test indicates how the pupil's performance compares with that of other pupils in some appropriate reference group. A test is considered norm-referenced if the test scores are compared with the scores of a "norming group," which is a representative cross-section of all those taking the test, for example, all eighth-graders taking an eighth-grade math test.

**Objective test:** An objective test can be scored solely on the basis of an answer key. It requires no expert judgment on the part of the scorer.

**Outcomes-based assessment:** Outcomes-based assessment focuses on what the student knows and can show. Students compare the outcomes with their learning goals and reflect on the processes that might be changed so that more learning results.

**Performance-based test:** A performance-based test requires students to show what they can do with the language as opposed to what they know about the language. They are often referred to be task-based tests.

**Piloting:** Piloting is a common practice among language testers. Piloting is a practice whereby an item or a format is administered to a small random or representative selection of the population to be tested. Information from piloting is commonly used to revise items and improve them. It is also known as field-testing.

**Portfolio assessment:** Portfolio assessment is one type of alternative assessment. They are a representative collection of a student's work throughout an extended period of time. The aim is to document the student's progress in language learning via the completion of such tasks as reports, projects, artwork and essays.

**Practicality:** Practicality is one of the cornerstones of good testing practice. It refers to the practical issues teachers and administrators must keep in mind when developing and administering tests, such as time, and available resources.

**Proficiency test:** A proficiency test is not specific to a particular curriculum, and it assesses a student's general ability level in the language as compared to all other students who study that language. An example of the proficiency test is the TOEFL.

**Range:** Range is one of the descriptive statistics or measures of central tendency. The range or min/max is the lowest and highest score in a distribution.

**Rating scales:** Rating scales are instruments that are used for the evaluation of writing and speaking. They are either analytical or holistic.

**Reliability:** Reliability is one of the cornerstones of good testing practice. It refers to the consistency of examination results over repeated administrations.

**Rubric:** Used in the context of assessment, rubric (often scoring rubric) refers to a scoring guide for some demonstration of student learning. It comes from Latin *rubrica* meaning red earth and Middle English *rubrike* red ocher, heading in red letters of part of a book. It is a set of scoring guidelines (criteria) for assessment work and for giving feedback.

**Self-assessment:** Self-assessment asks students to judge their own ability level in a language. It is a type of alternative assessment.

**Standard Deviation:** Standard Deviation is a generally used measurement of variability or diversity used in statistics and probability theory. It shows how much variation or "dispersion" there is from the average (mean or expected value). A low standard deviation indicates that the data points tend to be very close to the mean, whereas high standard deviation indicates that the data are spread out over a large range of values. In the present study, standard deviation is expressed as STDV.

**Standardized test:** A standardized test measures language ability against a norm or standard. It is a test that is constructed in accord with detailed specifications, one for which the items are selected after tryout for appropriateness in difficulty and discriminating power, one which is accompanied by a manual giving definite directions for uniform administration and scoring, and one which is provided with relevant and dependable norms for score interpretation.

**Subjective test:** A subjective test requires knowledge of the content area being tested. It frequently depends on impression and opinion at the time of the scoring.

**Syllabus:** A syllabus is simply an outline and time line of a particular course. It typically gives a brief overview of the course objectives, course expectations, a list of reading assignments, and examination dates. The purpose of the syllabus is to allow the student to work their schedule for their own maximum efficiency and effectiveness.

Institutional curricula and syllabi, generally seen as indispensable units of second/foreign language programmes, can take various forms, can represent various theories of learning, and can be realised in various ways. It is necessary to address confusion in the literature between the terms 'curriculum' and 'syllabus', since these can at times be very close in meaning, depending on the context in which they are used (Nunan 1988, p.3).

In the present study, the HSC English syllabus and curriculum are used as a “single” term because the HSC English syllabus corresponds and represents the HSC English curriculum, and they are inseparable in the Bangladesh context.

**Summative test:** A summative test refers to a test that is given at the end of a course. The aim of summative evaluation is to give the student a grade that represents his/her mastery of the course content.

**Teachers' beliefs:** The term here refers to teachers' pedagogic beliefs (Borg 2001), which are related to convictions about language and the teaching and learning of it. These beliefs are manifested in teachers' teaching approaches, selection of materials, activities, judgments, assessment and behaviours in the classroom.

**Testing:** Test and assessment are both forms of measuring student's language learning ability, but differ in many respects. Tests refer to specific instruments that measure the achievement and proficiency of students whereas assessment refers to a more general concept of scrutinizing students' learning progress.

**Validity:** Validity is one of the cornerstones of good testing practice. It refers to the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure.

**Washback:** Washback refers to the influence of testing on the curriculum, teaching, learning, etc. For the purposes of this study, the definition of washback offered by Cheng, Watanabe, and Curtis (2004) in the preface to their book *Washback in Language Testing*, served as the foundation. They state, “Washback (...) refers to the influence of language testing on teaching and learning” (Ibid. p. xiii).

## 1.7 Limitations of the Study

A limitation identifies the potential weaknesses of a study. The present study has some limitations with regard to available relevant data in the Bangladesh context. Since no intensive study in this particular area had been carried out in Bangladesh before, the present study suffered from the lack of necessary guidelines and clues that might help it. Another limitation of the study was that it dealt with only the EFL test at the higher secondary level in Bangladesh. It concentrated on investigating how the washback of the HSC examination worked on teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) including the syllabi, teaching materials, teaching methods, contents, tasks and activities, and classroom assessment. Since the respondents involved in the investigation were mainly confined to the English teachers and the HSC level students in Bangladesh, this study had no attempt to investigate washback caused by a different types of examination in a different context.

The number of subjects was limited to students, teachers, some examiners and a few curriculum specialists who voluntarily participated in answering and completing the research instruments. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be generalized to a larger population. Data collected in this study was only adequate for describing perceptions of the washback effect of the HSC examination on EFL teaching and learning. Thus, the results would be inappropriate to be generalized to other contexts or other examinations and for other subject areas. Moreover, as the findings in the conclusion were based on the respondents' opinions, further empirical data (e.g., classroom observations), especially from longitudinal studies, should eventually be collected and analysed to add up insight into the nature of this phenomenon, i.e., the HSC examination washback.

Shohamy et al. (1996) reported that washback can evolve over time, so a longitudinal study would perhaps be better able to capture and monitor the ebb and flow of the test impact. However, this would have been impossible in view of the time limitations associated with the current research. Even so, the findings would have been more interesting if the same number of students from different study years had been involved in the study. As it was, only HSC second year students were able to participate. The data for this study were collected over just in nearly 10 months, so follow-up studies are indispensable for observance of long-term washback.

## 1.8 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is constituted of six chapters as follows:

**Chapter One** “Introduction” offers an introduction to the context of the whole study by giving a brief account of the underlying problems that generated this research study. The chapter incorporates a number of issues, and identifies various components of the problem to be studied including the background information on the general context of the research, relationship between testing and teaching, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, research questions, definition of terms, limitations of the study, structure of the thesis, and a conclusion of this chapter.

**Chapter Two** “Washback of Public Examinations: Theoretical Framework” incorporates concepts and definitions of washback, its background and origin, its influences on teaching and learning, its connection to impact, its positive and negative connotations, strategies of promoting positive washback and avoiding negative washback, and possible models of the washback process.

**Chapter Three** “Literature Review” sets out to review of related literature that provides with background knowledge and research insight. This chapter reviews and summarises a good number of washback related research studies with emphasis on the washback effects of tests.

**Chapter Four** “Research Methodology” deals with the research methods used in the study. It delineates the sampling procedure, development of instruments including the procedures for validating the instruments and building reliability of the instruments, data collection procedures, and analysis of data. This chapter also describes the observation schedule used for classroom observation.

**Chapter Five** “Presentation and Discussion of the Findings” presents the findings yielded by document analysis, informant interviews, classroom observations, and survey questionnaires. It includes the discussion and interpretation of the findings by synthesizing, integrating, and triangulating the results from different data sets. The findings in this chapter are organised and outlined by themes and patterns.

**Chapter Six** “Conclusion” is the last chapter of this dissertation. It summarises the findings, answers the research questions, provides theoretical

implications for the study, proposes a washback model, and suggests some possible directions and recommendations for future research. This chapter presents the findings from both research instruments organised into the pattern established in the previous chapter. It reviews the whole study bringing together themes and results from the earlier chapters. It revisits the concept of washback of the HSC examination in light of the findings of the research. The final section draws conclusion of the thesis based on the findings of the study.

## **1.9 Conclusion**

‘Teaching to the test’ has become one of the biggest indictments facing the education system at present. It has always been heresy to educators and linguists. Teaching to the test puts too much emphasis on standardized tests that are poorly constructed and largely irrelevant. It stifles creativity and encourages cheating. But today, a new perspective is emerging; it is called curriculum alignment, and means teaching knowledge and skills that are assessed by tests designed largely around academic standards set by the country. Although educators frequently claim that they do not want to teach to a test, the reality is that every educator wants his/her students to be successful with quantitatively high scores. Decision makers, teachers and students equate this success in large part with high-test scores, resulting in classroom instruction that is reflective of test practices and/or expectations.

In this chapter, first, the general context and research problem of this study have been explained. Following that, the significance of and the rationale for the study are presented; the objectives of the study are articulated and some terms are clarified. Then, the organization of the thesis is outlined and the research questions are focused. The following chapter (Chapter Two) clarifies the basic concepts, and explores the theoretical and methodological advances pertaining to washback research. An extensive discussion of the studies in other research areas that influence and shape the present study is also included in the next chapter.

## **Chapter Two**

# **Washback of Public Examinations: Theoretical Framework**

This chapter focuses on the theoretical underpinnings that shaped and guided this study. It begins with an exploration of the concept of washback by discussing various terms that have been used to describe this educational phenomenon. It then illustrates the mechanism of washback followed by a discussion of the washback phenomenon in different educational contexts such as teaching, learning, syllabus and curriculum, materials, etc. The sections explore how and why washback works to influence other components within the language educational system, trace the rationale behind the use of tests, and examine their power to change teaching and learning. The chapter also presents a review of washback models of teaching and learning in the context of the theoretical and practical considerations of washback. This chapter will guide the research in designing the upcoming chapters.

### **2.1 Public Examinations: Definitions and Concepts**

As defined in the first chapter, public examinations are synonymous with external tests which are administered and scored by external agencies or forces to evaluate learning outcomes or results with a decisive consequence or influence on test-takers. Public exams are often used as instruments to select students as well as a means to control a school system, especially when the educational system is driven by tests or exams (Cheng and Falvey, 2000; Herman, 1992; Smith et al, 1991). That is, public examinations 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.

The origin of public examinations is to be found in the school entrance and civil service examinations of China, which go back at least to the period of the Sui emperors (589-618) (with a prehistory going back much further) and which achieved their most complex form towards the end of the Ch'ing dynasty (1644-1911) (Miyazaki, 1976). Inspired by the Chinese systems, examinations in written format

began to appear in European schools in the 16th century, though it was not until some two hundred years later that public examinations of the type found in China were instituted in Europe for selection to universities, the civil service, and the professions. Public examinations are now a major feature of the educational systems of most European countries, which, in turn, passed them on to their former colonies in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean, where they still flourish (Kellaghan 1992). The United States, with some exceptions (e.g. the Regents' examinations in New York), has so far not adopted a public examination system. However, during the 1980s and 1990s, a number of proposals contained in reform reports, policy statements, and legislation have advocated a national system or systems of examinations for the country (Madaus & Kellaghan, 1991).

Although there is considerable variation in the form and administration of examinations from country to country (Madaus & Kellaghan 1991; Noah & Eckstein, 1992), they generally share a number of characteristics (Kellaghan 1993). First, the examinations are controlled to varying degrees at national or regional level (and sometimes also administered) by an agency or agencies outside the school (i.e. education board), usually a state department of education, an examinations council closely related to the state department, or regional examining boards. Second, the examinations are geared to syllabi which are usually defined by an agency outside the school, sometimes the same agency as administers the examinations. Third, examinations are usually provided in the traditional areas of the curriculum (such as science, languages). Fourth, examinations are often formal terminal procedures, taken on fixed days under controlled conditions by all candidates taking the examination in a country or region at the end of a course of study. There is a little teacher involvement in assessing students for public examination certification in developing countries. Fifth, examinations are largely written, very often using the essay format, but sometimes making use of multiple-choice items, either in conjunction with other formats or on their own.

There may also be provision for oral and practical assessments in different countries. Finally, as a result of performance on the examination, the student is awarded a grade or mark in each subject examined. Public examinations normally are intended to serve a number of functions. The most obvious is to assess the competence of students' learning relative to some agreed standards. The results are

then frequently used to discriminate among students with regard to their preferred futures: further education, admission to professional preparation, or employment. While certification is important, particularly for students who are leaving the educational system, there is often a danger of losing sight of this function because of the strong emphasis on selection. Examination results are also often used, formally or informally, to provide evidence of school effectiveness, and schools and teachers may be held accountable for their students' achievements as reflected in examination performance. This use becomes more obvious when results for individual schools are published.

In Bangladesh, examination is the only method used for educational measurement. The British Administration imported the public examination here from England. Final External Examination, named Entrance Examination, was started in British India. It was conducted under the rules and regulations of the London University. A student could appear in this examination after completing high school education. This public examination was fit for getting a job under the British Administration. Afterwards, in 1857, the management and controls of this examination was handed over to three universities, i.e., University of Calcutta, University of Bombay, and University of Madras. The system got its full momentum under the Calcutta University up to 1947. Subsequently, it was entrusted to the East Bengal Secondary Education Board at Dhaka and the Dhaka University in respect of the SSC and the HSC examination respectively which were earlier called the Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations.

In 1961, as per the National Education Commission, the then Government of Bangladesh transferred the management and controlling of these two examinations to the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education of East Bangladesh, from the Dhaka University. The number of education boards was increased in 1963 to cope with the increase in number of schools, colleges and students. At present, ten general education boards, one Madrasha Board, and one Technical Education Board are conducting the public examinations up to XII Grade. Graduate and Postgraduate levels public examinations are being conducted by the National University. Other public and private universities offer undergraduate and postgraduate courses, and conduct examination under the rules and regulations set by the government. The Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education conduct these examinations.

Students of public, most private, schools sit for these exams. There also exist a different system of public examination at parallel grade levels run by Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) and Edexcel International London Examinations for O' Level (Ordinary level) and A' Level (Advanced level).

In these days, with the widespread adoption of communicative language teaching (CLT) principles, language tests tend to include more practical tasks predicting the real-world settings. During the 1960s and 1970s, language testing techniques were heavily influenced by structural linguistics (Chew, 2005). The analysis of language favoured by behaviourist approaches (e.g. Skinner) led to discrete point testing, that is to say, tests were designed to assess learners' mastery of different areas of the linguistic system in isolation [e.g. grammatical knowledge, vocabulary, pronunciation etc.]. Although language testing has been influenced by social changes, there are certain fundamental aspects which remain widely accepted.

Language tests have been used to measure students' achievement for many years. The first book-length discussion of testing English as a foreign language was found in Robert Lado's *Language Testing* in 1961. Language tests from the distant past to the present are important historical documents. They can help inform researchers about attitudes to language, language testing and language teaching when little alternative evidence of what went on in the bygone language classroom remains. In recent years, there has been a trend towards improving subject matter teaching through the implementation of examinations, especially those defined as "high-stakes" assessment. These efforts are usually part of attempts to introduce changes into the educational system by putting novel pedagogical theories and practices in place; they are related to educational innovation and contribute to building theories on how such innovation occurs. Spolsky (1975) identifies three periods of language testing: the pre-scientific, the psychometric-structuralist and the psycholinguistic-sociolinguistic.

Traditionally, most language tests aim at testing knowledge about the language, such as testing knowledge about vocabulary and grammar. However, according to Brown (2003), "By the mid-1980s, the language testing field had begun to focus on designing communicative language-testing tasks" (p. 10). This means that the need for communicative language test has been recognized, and much research on communicative language tests has been done since then. It was

Chomsky (1965) who first rejected such approaches and proposed an underlying rule-based knowledge system.

From the early 1970s, however, communicative theories were widely adopted among linguistics and they began to focus on "communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures" in language teaching (Richards 2001, p.153). This trend significantly influenced the methods of language teaching and roles of language testing, although it is highly possible to assume that some social changes induced new theories at first, and then the theories might be modified to support practice more closely. Hymes takes Chomsky's work further, but also reacts against some aspects of it. For Hymes (1972), the social context of language is considered essential and appropriateness was viewed as important as grammatical correctness. Discrete-point teaching and testing models were gradually replaced by models which aimed to integrate the various elements of language learning. A theory of communicative competence has been developed further by Canale and Swain (1980). They also raise two controversial issues related to second language teaching and testing which is explored later:

1. whether communicative competence and linguistic competence are mutually inclusive or separate,
2. whether one can usually distinguish between communicative competence and performance (Spolsky 1985, p.183)

According to the new trends mentioned above, since the 1970s language testers have been seeking more pragmatic and integrative questions for assessment, such as cloze tests and dictations. McNamara (2000) points out the need by stating that the necessity of assessing the practical language skills of foreign students led to a demand for language tests which involved an integrated performance on the part of the language user. The discrete point tradition of testing was seen as focusing too exclusively on knowledge of the formal linguistic system for its own sake rather than the way such knowledge is used to achieve communication.

## 2.2 Washback: Background and Origin

Washback is a new but very complex phenomenon in the field of education research. It is rarely found in the dictionaries published before 1990s. However, the word 'backwash' can be found in certain dictionaries and is defined as "the unwelcome repercussions of some social action" by the New Webster's Dictionaries, and "unpleasant after-effects of an event or situation" by the Collins Cobuild Dictionary. However, before 1982, no washback study can be traced out either in the field of general education or in the applied linguistics. Washback or backwash, as it is sometimes called, is now a term that is commonly used in the assessment in applied linguistics literature. Although washback is a relatively common term in our field, it is rarely found in dictionaries (Cheng & Curtis, 2004). Because of the importance of the study of Alderson and Wall (1993), as a landmark and milestone in the field of washback research, their study may be considered as an unavoidable work in the washback history.

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 Wesdorp (1982) and Hughes (1988).

It should be pointed out that the former (Kellaghan, et al., 1982) was a general education study and not specific to language education. In their ensuing discussion, it is clear that evidence of either beneficial or harmful was often tenuous remaining unproven or, at best, inconclusive. For example, the study of Kellaghan et al. (1982) looks at the impact of introducing standardised tests in Irish schools as a case in point. As early as 1984, Frederiksen publishes a paper called "The Real Test Bias", in which he suggests that because test information is important in attempting to hold schools accountable, the influence of tests on what is taught is potentially great (Gipps, 1994). Nearly 20 years ago, Alderson (1986) identified washback as a distinct and emerging area within the field of language testing. Around the same time, earlier to Alderson, Davies (1985) asked whether tests should necessarily

follow the curriculum. He suggested that perhaps tests ought to lead and influence the curriculum.

Although Alderson (1986) first recognises the potential use of language tests as a tool to bring about positive effects on language teaching and learning about two decades ago, it took almost another 10 years for the concept of tests influencing teaching and learning to become an established research topic. McNamara (2000) argues that this is because applied linguists tend to focus heavily on investigating individuals' language skills and abilities, rather than on the consequences of tests. Wigglesworth and Elder (1996) also point out that the concept of tests influencing teaching and learning is under-researched probably because the huge number of variables involved have made it very difficult for researchers to identify a causal relationship between the test and what went on in the classroom.

Afterwards, Washback on learners was a topic seldom discussed in 1990s, and has gotten more attention from the researchers since the 21st century. The Sri Lankan Impact Study, the first empirical research on washback conducted by Alderson and Wall (1993) is often cited as a landmark study in the investigation of washback. They conducted a two-year investigation of the effects of the implementation of the revised O-Level English examination in Sri Lanka on teaching methodology. The revision of the examination was made to reinforce the innovations in textbooks and teacher training, which were intended to promote communicative English language teaching with its emphasis on practical speaking, reading and writing skills, while discouraging traditional teacher-dominant, grammar focused lessons. The observations of English lessons in 14 secondary schools before and after the implementation of the revised examination revealed that language learning activities and the design of classroom tests were influenced by the new textbooks or tests. However, Alderson and Wall (1993) found that there was basically no difference in the way the teachers taught over the two years of the study as the English lessons remained teacher-centred with little chance for the students to use English in a practical way. They concluded that the positive and desired washback effects were much more limited than expected.

Much of the literature on this subject has been speculative rather than empirically based. The first scholars to suggest that the washback effects of language tests were not as straightforward as had been assumed by Alderson and

Wall (1993). It was Alderson and Wall who pointed out the problematic nature of the concept of washback and the need for carefully designed research. In their article “Does Washback Exist?”, they questioned existing notions of washback and proposed a series of washback hypotheses. Within this article they identified 15 hypotheses which may potentially play a role in the washback effect, and must therefore be considered in any investigation (1993, p. 120-121).

Since the publication of the seminal work of Alderson and Wall in 1993, a number of researchers have sought to obtain evidence as to whether washback exists by means of empirical research in language classrooms. With regard to length and duration, the washback studies can be classified in two broad terms: the first kinds have been by definition longitudinal in nature, since they have required the collection of data over a period of time – perhaps two or three school years in the case of revisions to secondary school examinations; and by contrast, studies of the second type have been cross-sectional involving comparisons of teachers, classes, courses and/or schools over a short period of time. Let us look at each kind of research in turn.

### **2.3 Washback: Definition and Scope**

The term ‘washback’ is commonly used in applied linguistics to refer to the influence of language testing on teaching and learning. In the literature (both in applied linguistics and in general education), the terms ‘backwash’ and ‘washback’, are used, and invariably considered as interchangeable. The way standardized tests affect teaching and learning is usually called backwash in educational arena and washback in Applied Linguistics (Karabulut, Aliye, 2007). It has long been affirmed that tests exert a powerful influence on language learners who are preparing to take examinations, and on the teachers who try to help them prepare. It is common to claim the existence of washback (the impact of a test on teaching) and to declare that tests can be powerful determiners, both positively and negatively, of what happens in classrooms (Alderson and Wall, 1993, p. 41). The various influences of tests are often referred to as washback (or backwash). “Washback is the power of examinations over what takes place in the classroom” (Alderson and Wall, 1993, p. 115). Swain (1985, p. 43) succinctly states the prevailing opinion: "It has frequently been noted that teachers will teach to a test: that is, if they know the content of a test

and/or the format of a test, they will teach their students accordingly". Washback can have an individual (micro-level) impact and a social (macro-level) impact. It involves actions and perceptions, influences learners and programmes.

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; Biggs, 1995, 1996; Cheng, 2004). It can generally be understood as the effect of an examination on teaching and learning (Cheng, 2003, Chen, 2002, Hughes, 2003), but all scholars have not agreed to its definition. Alderson and Wall (1993) restrict the use of the term 'washback' to "classroom behaviors of teachers and learners rather than the nature of printed and other pedagogic material" (p. 118). They also consider washback as what teachers and learners do that "they would not necessarily otherwise do" (p. 117). Messick (1996) states that in order to be considered washback, good or bad teaching has to be "evidentially linked to the introduction and use of the test" (p. 16).

Moreover, Wall (1997 in Cheng and Curtis, 2004) makes a clear distinction between washback and test impact. The latter refers to the effect of a test on "individuals, policies or practices, within the classroom, the school, the educational system or society as a whole. Other researchers (Andrews et al., 2002) do not make that distinction, and consider that narrow and wider effects can be included under the term washback. For the purposes of this study, washback was understood in the wider sense including what some scholars call 'impact'. Although being universally used for various purposes, testing is considered by scholars and researchers to induce mostly detrimental washback on teaching.

Tests are often perceived as exerting a conservative force which impedes progress. Andrews and Fullilove point out, "Not only have many tests failed to change, but they have continued to exert a powerful negative washback effect on teaching" (Andrews and Fullilove, 1994, p. 57). These authors also note that "educationalists often decry the 'negative' washback effects of examinations and regard washback as an impediment to educational reform or 'progressive' innovation in schools" (ibid., p. 59-60). Heyneman (1987) has commented, "It's true that teachers teach to an examination. National officials have three choices with regard to this 'backwash effect': they can fight it, ignore it, or use it" (p. 260).

Pierce (1992) states “the washback effect, sometimes referred to as the systemic validity of a test (p.687). In recent years, washback has become a very hot topic among many linguistic and educational experts, and who admit that washback does exist and plays an importance role in language teaching and learning. “There is a natural tendency for both teachers and students to tailor their classroom activities to the demands of the test, especially when the test is very important to the future of the students, and pass rates are used as a measure of teacher success. This influence of the test on the classroom (referred to as washback by language testers) is, of course, very important; this washback effect can be either beneficial or harmful” (Buck, 1988). Bachman and Palmer (1996) consider washback to be a subset of a test’s impact on society, educational systems and individuals. They believe that test impact operates at two levels: the micro level, that is, the effect of the test on individual students and teachers; and the macro level or the impact of the test on society and the educational system.

Cohen (1994) describes washback in terms of “how assessment instruments affect educational practices and beliefs” (p. 41). The problem is that while washback is widely perceived to exist, there is little data to confirm or deny these perceptions. This is neatly summarized by Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) in the rationale for their study of TOEFL preparation classes in the United States: “Much has been written about the influence of testing on teaching; however, little empirical evidence is available to support the assertions of either positive or negative washback” (p. 281). Andrews (1994) concurs: “Although a great deal has been said and written about washback, there is in fact relatively little empirical evidence for its existence” (p. 44). Similarly, Shohamy (1993) acknowledges, “while the connection between testing and learning is commonly made, it is not known whether it really exists and, if it does, what the nature of its effect is”(p. 4).

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. This influence of the test on the classroom (referred to as washback by language testers) is, of course, very important; this washback effect

can be either beneficial or harmful. Thus Buck's definition stresses the impact of a test on what teachers and students do in classrooms (p.17). Washback is the extent to which the test influences language teachers and learners to do things that they would not necessarily otherwise do (Messick, 1996). The influence of testing on teaching and learning is referred to as washback (Bailey, 1996). Shohamy (1993) summarises four key definitions that are useful in understanding the washback concept:

1. Washback effect refers to the impact that tests have on teaching and learning.
2. Measurement driven instruction refers to the notion that tests should drive learning.
3. Curriculum alignment focuses on the connection between testing and the teaching syllabus.
4. Systemic validity implies the integration of tests into the educational system and the need to demonstrate that the introduction of a new test can improve learning (p. 4)

Andrews (1994) 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).

Numerous explanations of the term 'washback' can be found throughout the published research and literature on language testing. One of the most common definitions sees the concept referred to as the influence of testing on teaching and learning. Definitions of washback are nearly as numerous as the people who write

about it. These definitions range from simple and straightforward to very complex. Some take a narrow focus on teachers and learners in classroom settings, while others include reference to tests' influences on educational systems and even on society in general. Some descriptions stress intentionality while others refer to the apparently haphazard and often unpredictable nature of washback. From the above illustrations of the definitions of washback, it can be concluded that washback is a subset of a test's impact on society, educational systems, and individuals.

### **2.3.1 Longitudinal Studies of Washback**

A Longitudinal study uses time as the main variable, and tries to make an in depth study of how a small sample changes and fluctuates over time. The present study is a synchronic/cross-sectional Study by nature. A longitudinal study is a correlational research study that involves observations and collecting data of the same items over long periods of time. The reason for this is that unlike cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies track the same people, and therefore the differences observed in those people are less likely to be the result of differences. Longitudinal studies of washback have generally monitored the impact of innovations in high stakes examinations in particular societies. In some cases, the innovations are revisions to existing examination papers; in others; the examination reform was more radical. This kind of research design requires the gathering of data before the innovation has been implemented, to act as a baseline for the identification of changes in subsequent years as a result of the new or revised exam. Some of the longitudinal studies are stated below.

Li (1990) conducts a longitudinal study of a secondary school leaving examination administered in China – the Matriculation English Test (MET). This high stakes examination had been introduced to replace an older, less valid and less reliable English test. Her methodology involved analyzing 229 questionnaires completed by teachers and teaching-and-research officers. She also analyzed test results and student writing. Her findings were that there was positive washback from the Matriculation English Test (MET) in three areas: (i) a greater use of imported and teacher designed materials which matched the examination requirements; (ii) more classroom time was given to practising the four skills of listening, speaking

reading and writing instead of phonetics, grammar and vocabulary; and (iii) students showed more interest in after-class learning of English.

Shohamy (1993) reported on three longitudinal washback studies she conducted concerning the implementation of three different language tests in Israel and the impact each had on its respective educational system. The first study involved the introduction of an Arabic test by the Ministry of Education. Her research focused on finding out if the test changed teaching practices or student attitudes, and also if there was a long-term impact on teaching. She reviewed teaching materials, interviewed teachers and analyzed student questionnaires and observed lessons. The findings show that there were bigger differences in the initial period of test implementation in terms of materials, class activities, use of mother tongue during teaching and the atmosphere in class. These effects were far less after four years of implementation.

The second study looked at the introduction of an EFL oral test. Shohamy observed and interviewed fifteen teachers. These teachers were divided into two groups: experienced (five years and more) and novice (three years or less). Her results show that experienced teachers were more likely to teach to the test, basing their teaching of oral language on the test, while novices found that the test permitted them to be more creative with activities. The final study examined the introduction of an L1 reading comprehension test towards which teachers had reacted negatively. Shohamy interviewed teachers and analyzed materials produced after the introduction of the test. She found that new materials tended to resemble the test and more time was spent on reading comprehension across the curriculum. Teachers were bitter about the manner in which implementation of the test had occurred, and bitter because they feared that the system would punish them for poor results.

The overall findings, according to Shohamy, indicate that teaching materials and methods cater to the test, and that teachers who have been in the system longer will tend to use the test as teaching guide and curriculum. Cheng (1997) studied the washback associated with a revision of the English Language examination of the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination. The study took place from January 1994 to November 1996 and consisted of three phases: general observation and interviews with participants from decision-making bodies, textbook publishers,

principals, department heads, teacher and learners; large scale surveys of teachers and students that occurred in 1994 and 1995; baseline case studies that consisted of classroom observations of nine teachers followed by main case studies of three teachers. Follow up interviews were also conducted with the three teachers. Although the Hong Kong Examinations Authority intended to create a positive washback effect through the innovation, Cheng's findings indicate that changes occurred mainly at a superficial level: the content of teaching and the materials used changed rapidly but there was not much evidence of fundamental changes in teaching practices and student learning.

Wall (1997, 2005) reported on the results of a four-year project in Sri Lanka. The study looked at the effects of implementing a new curriculum and reinforcing the changes by having a new O-level examination (This is the exit level examination for Sri Lankan secondary schools). Wall and the team of designers collected data at three different stages of implementation: ( i) prior to the implementation- information was obtained through analysis of official documents, interviews and questionnaires; (ii) during initial implementation – data collection involved classroom observations, examination results and questionnaires; and (iii) full implementation – classroom observations and group interviews with teachers provided the data for this phase of the study. Wall found that although teachers liked the match between curriculum and testing, many other factors, such as the teachers understanding of the requirements of the new curriculum, lack of resource materials, level of difficulty of the examination vis-à-vis the ability levels of the students and prior teaching practices, hindered implementation of certain aspects of the curriculum.

Turner (2002, 2005, 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

The methodology involved obtaining baseline evidence and evidence after implementation through interviews and classroom observations. Data collection lasted for six months and happened over three time periods. By triangulating the data from the three periods, she found that there was evidence of predictable washback for individual teachers. This evidence, both on the conceptual (beliefs) and instrumental (behavior or practice) level varied across teachers depending on their initial beliefs and practices.

The teachers in this study did not resist the proposed changes implemented via the speaking exam. Instead, they sought to align the required curriculum with classroom teaching and assessment. However, this could partly be attributed to the fact that some of the teachers had participated in prior efforts to develop a rating scale and therefore felt a certain sense of ownership in the ongoing innovations. As a result, feedback and critique was of a more constructive nature. On the other hand, teachers were selective about the changes they elected to adopt – these were chosen with regard to their own established classroom practices and professional stances or beliefs. This reaction seemed to be part and parcel of their professional repertory. The teachers did, however, have difficulties coping with the different goals of classroom-based assessment as opposed to those of the high-stakes provincial exam. She suggests that the results point to the need for better alignment between assessments and the different purposes they are used for. The study also found that student beliefs were affected by the changes.

These longitudinal studies confirm the complex nature of Alderson and Wall's washback hypotheses (1993), which highlight the variable nature of the effect of tests on the various stakeholders. They showed that in some cases there was evidence that over time tests can have a positive impact on classroom activities and materials (Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt and Ferman, 1996). However, the implementation of changes to tests in other contexts showed little or no evidence of pedagogic shift (Cheng, 1999, Cheng and Falvey 2000, and Qi, in press). The benefit of a longitudinal study is that researchers are able to detect developments or changes in the characteristics of the target population. The key point here is that longitudinal studies extend beyond a single moment in time. As results, they can establish sequences of events.

### 2.3.2 Synchronic/Cross-Sectional Studies of Washback

A cross-sectional study takes a snapshot of a population at a certain time, allowing conclusions about phenomena across a wide population to be drawn. This approach to washback research has involved a focus on existing tests or examinations, using a comparative design. This kind of study is conducted over a relatively short period of time, making it more practical for many researchers than the more extended, longitudinal types. Watanabe conducted several studies on examinations within the Japanese context (1996a, 1996b, 2004a, 2004b). In his first study (Watanabe 1992), he hypothesised that Japanese students who had sat the university entrance examinations would have more restricted learning strategies than those of a control group of students who were able to enter university via a system of recommendation rather than examination.

Andrews (1995) conducted a study on the addition of an oral component to the Hong Kong Use of English Examination (UE). Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) examined TOEFL preparation classes for evidence of washback. They were interested in finding out more about how teachers describe the way they teach to prepare their students for the TOEFL test. Snyder et al. (1997) investigated the experience of Uganda in trying to change teachers' classroom practices by manipulating high-stakes testing. They looked at the extent to which a new version of the Primary Leavers Examination, implemented by the Uganda Ministry of Education, led teachers to change their teaching practices. Watanabe (1996, 2004) conducted a washback study that focused on the high stakes English entrance examinations for Japanese universities.

Greene (2007) looked at preparatory courses in the United Kingdom for students taking the IELTS Academic Writing Component (AWC). He observed two types of classes using a modified version of COLT: he noted and coded activities in classes doing IELTS AWC preparation and regular English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes in UK institutions for a period of twelve weeks. He did not find a significant washback effect – statistical analyses showed that the classes were essentially similar in terms of time spent on specific writing activities. He postulates that the test design of a high-stakes exam does not have strong washback effect in these institutions; teaching in EAP courses could be influenced more by institutional variables such as the teachers' level of professional training, and teacher factors such

as their beliefs about effective learning. Shih (2007) and Pan (2009) both examined the effects of English exit certification in Taiwan. Shih (2007) focused specifically on the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) and was particularly interested in the washback effect on learners. The results indicate that this test had various but limited washback effects on the learning of participants.

What is clear from these studies is that a test does not have the same effects on all teachers preparing students to take it. The reasons for this seem to stem from decisions, expectations and assumptions made by all stakeholders from test developers, administrators, materials and syllabus designers, through to teachers and students. The reasons why teachers teach the way they do, and in essence the fact that they are teaching test preparation at all, seems inseparable from the other elements which create the context that they teach within. The benefit of a cross-sectional study design is that it allows researchers to compare many variables at the same time. The present study is a cross-sectional study by nature.

## 2.4 Types of Washback

Generally, washback can be analysed according to two major types: *positive and negative*, depending on whether it has a *beneficial* or *harmful* impact on educational practices. For example, a test may encourage students to study more or may promote a connection between standards and instruction. Washback from tests can involve individual teachers and students as well as whole classes and programs. Bachman (2000) terms washback as: *macro contexts*, and *micro contexts*. The *micro level*, the effect of the test on individual students and teachers; and the *macro level*, the impact the test may have on society and the educational system.

Some kinds of washback result from the effects of a test on the language learners themselves, while other kinds of washback are more closely related to effects of a test on personnel involved in language teaching (including influences on teachers, administrators, course designers, and materials developers ultimately influencing courses, programs and materials). Bailey (1996) calls two sorts of washback: *learner washback* and *program washback*, respectively. This idea overlaps, to some extent, Bachman and Palmer's (2000) *micro* and *macro levels of washback*, although they have included the influences on individual teachers under the micro category.

### **2.4.1 Positive Washback**

Hughes (1989) suggests, 'If you want to encourage oral ability, then test oral ability' (p. 44). Positive washback is said to result when a testing procedure encourages 'good' teaching practice. For example, an oral proficiency test is introduced in the expectation that it will promote the teaching of speaking skills. Positive washback would result when the testing procedure reflects the skills and abilities that are taught in the course, as, for instance, with the use of an oral interview for a final examination in a course in conversational language use." Therefore, when there is a match between the activities used in learning the language and the activities involved in preparing for the test, we say that our test has positive washback. The following figure shows how a washback works on syllabus and curriculum.

Positive washback can be used to influence the language syllabus and curriculum. As Davies (1990) mentions, washback is inevitable and it is foolish to pretend that washback does not happen. Therefore, in order to prepare students for the examination, the communicative way of teaching will be adopted in our classes and this positive washback helps us change the curriculum the way we want. Positive washback can be summarised as below:

Firstly, teachers and learners will be motivated to fulfill their teaching and learning goals (Anderson & Wall, 1993). Secondly, positive washback takes place when tests induce teachers to cover their subjects more thoroughly, making them complete their syllabi within the prescribed time limits. Thirdly, good tests can be utilized and designed as beneficial teaching-learning activities so as to encourage a positive teaching-learning process (Pearson, 1988). Fourthly, a creative and innovative test can quite advantageously result in a syllabus alteration or a new syllabus (Davies, 1990). Fifthly, examination achieves the goals of teaching and learning, such as the introduction of new textbooks and new curricula (Cheng; 2005). Sixthly, tests induce teachers to cover their subjects more thoroughly, making them complete their syllabi within the prescribed time limits. Seventhly, tests motivate students to work harder to have a sense of accomplishment and thus enhance learning. Eighthly, good tests can be utilized and designed as beneficial teaching learning activities so as to encourage positive teaching-learning processes. Finally, decision makers use the authority power of high-stakes testing to achieve

the goals of teaching and learning, such as the introduction of new textbooks and new curricula.

### **2.4.2 Negative Washback**

Negative washback is said to occur when a test's content or format is based on a narrow definition of language ability, and so constrains the teaching/learning context. If, for example, the skill of writing is tested only by multiple choice items then there is great pressure to practice such items rather than to practice the skill of writing itself. As Brown (2002) states washback becomes negative washback when there is a mismatch between the content (e.g., the material/ abilities being taught) and the test. Washback is harmful:

- a) when training for a particular test comes to dominate classroom work;
- b) when teachers teach one thing and the test then concentrates on another one; and
- c) when teachers end up "teaching to the test".

Actually, much teaching is always directed towards testing and much time of the class is spent on materials that appear in the test. Sometimes, the objectives and contents of the test do not appeal to students and teachers. For example, some students like and need to learn English communicatively, but the test they have to undergo is discrete-point. Both positive and negative washback work at both level: micro-level (classroom settings), and at macro-level (educational and societal system). Some of the reasons as well as the outcomes of the negative washback are illustrated below:

- a) Test comes to dominate classroom work,
- b) There is no correlation between test objectives and curriculum objectives.
- c) Teachers teach one thing and the test then concentrates on another one,
- d) Teachers tend to ignore subjects and activities that are not directly related to passing the exam, and tests accordingly alter the curriculum in a negative way.
- e) Students may not be able to learn real-life knowledge, but instead learn discrete points of knowledge that are tested.
- f) Tests bring anxiety both to teachers and students and distort their performance.

- g) Teachers tend to ignore subjects and activities that are not directly related to passing the exam, and tests accordingly alter the curriculum in a negative way.
- h) The tests fail to create a correspondence between the learning principles and/or the course objectives.
- i) An increasing number of paid coaching classes are set up to prepare students for exams, but what students learn are test-taking skills rather than language learning activities.
- j) Tests narrow down the curriculum, and put attention to those skills that are most relevant to testing.
- k) Decision makers overwhelmingly use tests to promote their political agendas and to seize influence and control of educational systems.

Likewise, Shohamy (1992) identifies some of the conditions that may lead to negative washback:

- a) When reliance is on tests to create change,
- b) When emphasis is mostly on proficiency and less means that lead to it,
- c) When tests are introduced as authoritative tools, are judgmental, are prescriptive, and dictated from above, and
- d) When the writing of tests does not involve those who are expected to carry out the change- the teachers.

The question is how to promote the intended washback of a test and minimise the possible counterproductive reactions. First, the test must accurately reflect course objectives and the principles of mastering the knowledge need. This will lead teachers and learners to appropriate teaching and learning styles and enable beneficial washback to operate. If the test is at variance with the course objectives, it will require teachers to focus their teaching on the test alone and cause harmful washback. Secondly, teachers, administrators and others involved should be trained and provided with information concerning the test, such as the aims, item type, scoring systems, specimen papers, etc.

Competence and familiarity will help teachers and administrators to work properly toward the test, and limit misuse of test and its results (Swain, 1985). Next, test consequences play an important role in enabling either beneficial or harmful

washback to operate. The more profound the consequence, the greater washback effect is. Educational settings would help to balance beneficial and harmful washback in reducing test pressure toward teachers and students by appropriate continuous assessment. Furthermore, apart from the test itself there are many factors within a society, particularly the educational environment with its typical conditions all influence the behaviours of teachers and students. Nevertheless, to what extent these factors operate much depend on how they interact with each other in a specific circumstance.

## **2.5 The Mechanism of Washback**

Washback is not as straightforward as it was previously thought. Its mechanism is complicated. Mechanism of washback refers to how washback works on macro and the micro level, positively and/or negatively. Tests have often been used at the end of the teaching and learning process to provide a diagnosis of the effects of teaching and learning. However, testing may well be considered before the teaching and learning, in order to influence either or both processes. This view of testing is derived from the realisation of test power and its manifestations with regard to high-stakes decisions based on test results for individuals, educational systems and society as a whole. This section looks at the functions and mechanisms by which washback works in relation to other educational theories and practices.

Understanding of washback mechanism can be more deepened by the observing the different models of washback. Unlike the Washback Hypothesis, which only proposes a linear relationship between tests and teaching or learning, Bailey's (1996) model emphasises the importance of the interaction among the different components. Washback variables influencing various aspects of learning and teaching can be divided into "washback to the learner" and "washback to the programme" (Bailey, 1996, 1999); the former refers to the impact of the test on test takers, while the latter is concerned with the impact of the test on teachers, administrators, and curriculum developers. The washback effect, however, is not solely confined to teaching and learning. Variables such as materials, curriculum and research are encompassed, making the mechanisms of washback more intricate and comprehensive. The methodologies used in this area have mainly been surveys, interviews and observations. In this respect, Watanabe (2004a) has pointed out, there

are perhaps effects on teaching and learning that interviews and observations alone or combined may not be able to capture.

Cheng (2002, 2004) mentions the importance of considering factors such as a society's goals and values, the educational system itself, as well as approaches to teaching and learning within the system in washback analyses. Watanabe (2004a) and Cheng (2004) both suggest that ethnographic, triangulation methods should be carried out to push the boundaries of what can be discovered about the washback effect. Empirical evidence from these types of data collection efforts should provide stronger, more comprehensive bases on which to theorise washback models. Efforts in this direction have already begun. Over the past two decades, several models have been proposed concerning washback. In the next section, some of the models are presented.

### **2.5.1 Washback Models**

There have been few attempts to describe a model of how a test can influence teaching and learning. This may indicate the difficulty of finding patterns of the way tests influence teachers and students. The impact of an assessment seems to depend not only on the quality of the assessment itself and the way the results are used, but also the context in which the assessment is introduced and administered, and the beliefs held by stakeholders such as teachers and students.

During recent years, though a good number of washback studies have been carried out, the washback models are still to be adequately defined and analysed. In the field of applied linguistics, there seem to have been some attempts to create a model which might illustrate the mechanism of washback. The models of washback discussed below evolve as more research findings became available and a clearer picture of the nature of washback emerged. Thus, the models illustrate the shift in views of washback over the past nearly 20 years. The traditional model of washback emerges in the early 1990s prior to the study by Alderson and Wall (1993). It is characterised as the trichotomy model proposed by Hughes (1993).

Washback models, in general, have been adapted from models or frameworks suggested in language testing, EFL and educational innovation literature. A common characteristic of these washback models is that they tend to

highlight what washback looks like and who is affected, but do little to address the factors that contribute to the phenomenon. In other words, “process” is less understood than “participants” and “products”. Besides, the products in these models/hypotheses refer mainly to teaching and learning washback, not to the aspects of washback that might impact society. Some specific models that have been proposed in washback literature, and how these they have been developed, are discussed in this section

### 2.5.1.1 Hughes’s Washback Model

Hughes’s (1993) model is a pioneer washback model in applied linguistics. In discussing the complex mechanisms through which washback occurs in actual teaching and learning environments, Hughes (1993) introduces a concept of trichotomy and argues for distinguishing between participants, processes and products in both teaching and learning, recognising that all three may be affected by the nature of a test. In the Hughes’s model (Table 2.1), ‘participants’ are students, teachers, administrators, materials developers and publishers, whose perceptions and attitudes towards their work may be affected by a test. In his unpublished paper cited by Bailey (1996), and Cheng and Curtis (2004), Hughes (1993) made a distinction between participants, process, and products:

Table 2.1: Hughes’s trichotomy of backwash model

(a)	Participants – students, classroom teachers, administrators, materials developers and publishers, whose perceptions and attitudes toward their work may be affected by a test
(b)	Processes – any actions taken by the participants which contribute to the process of learning
(c)	Products – what is learned (e.g., facts, skills, etc.) and the quality of the learning (e.g., fluency)

Hughes uses the term ‘processes’ to cover any actions taken by the participants which might contribute to the process of learning, such as the development of materials, syllabus design, and teaching methods. Finally, ‘products’ refer to what is learned (facts, skills, etc.) and the quality of the learning (fluency, etc.). The trichotomy into participants, process and product allows planners to

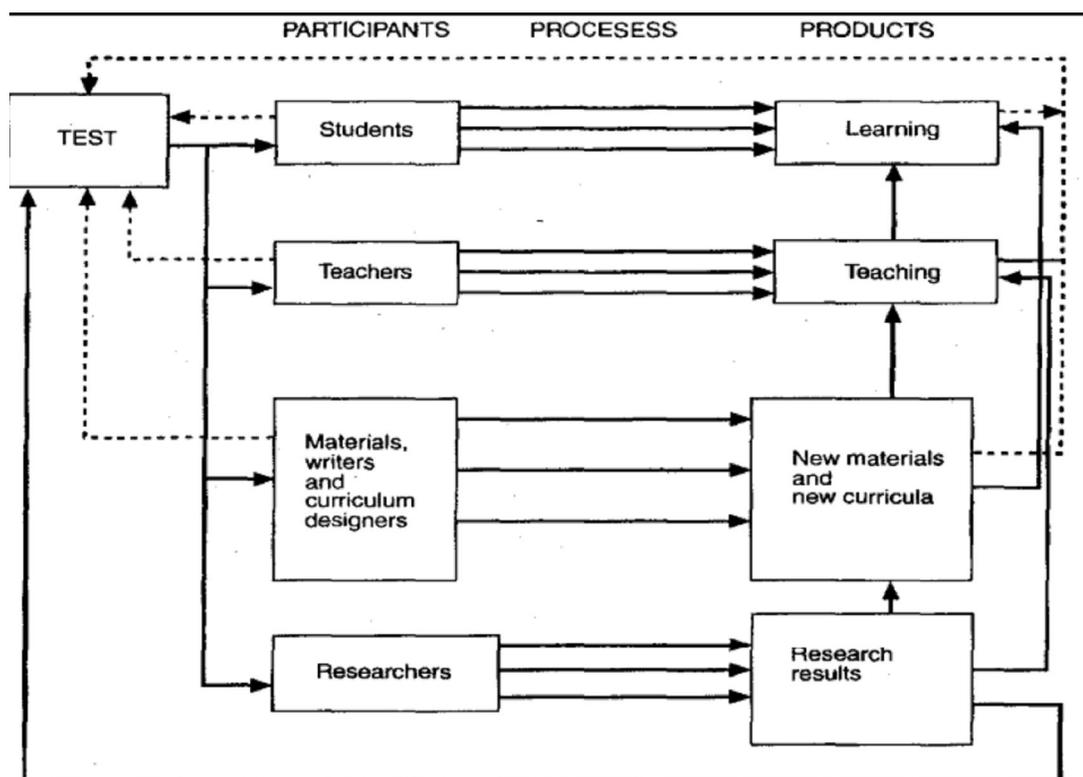
construct a basic model of backwash. Hughes (1993) suggests that the nature of a test may first affect the perceptions and attitudes of the participants towards their teaching and learning tasks. These perceptions and attitudes in turn may affect what the participants do in carrying out their work (process), including practicing the kind of items that are to be found in the test, which may affect the learning outcomes, the product of the work. As a pioneer model, it attempts to clarify how test works to desired outcomes. However, the model does not sufficiently clarify the term 'processes'. As a first model of washback, it received worldwide recognition.

### **2.5.1.2 Bailey's Washback Model**

Based on Hughes' (1993) tripartite distinction between participants, processes and products, Bailey (1996) develops and illustrates a model in which a test not only affects products through the participants and the processes they engage in, but where the participants and processes also in turn provide feedback and thereby also has an impact on the test, as dotted lines in Figure 2.1 represent. This model is an early attempt at theorising washback, but is not empirically grounded.

This model incorporates ideas from Hughes (1993) in describing a trichotomy of test effects in terms of "participants", "process", and "product". Her model, however, is innovative in that it is grounded in empirical research evidence from educational change taking place in the Hong Kong context. Bailey points out participants include students, teachers, materials writers, curriculum designers, and researchers. Here, the participants refer to the stakeholders who directly participate in the teaching, learning, and testing process. Processes refer to the ways teaching is executed. Processes, according to Hughes (1993), refer to material development, syllabus design, changes in teaching methodology, and testing strategies among others. The products in a washback study refer mainly to what are learned and achieved. Products include learning, teaching, new materials and curricula, research results. Here, the focus is the development of communicative competence:

Figure 2.1: Bailey's washback model (1996)



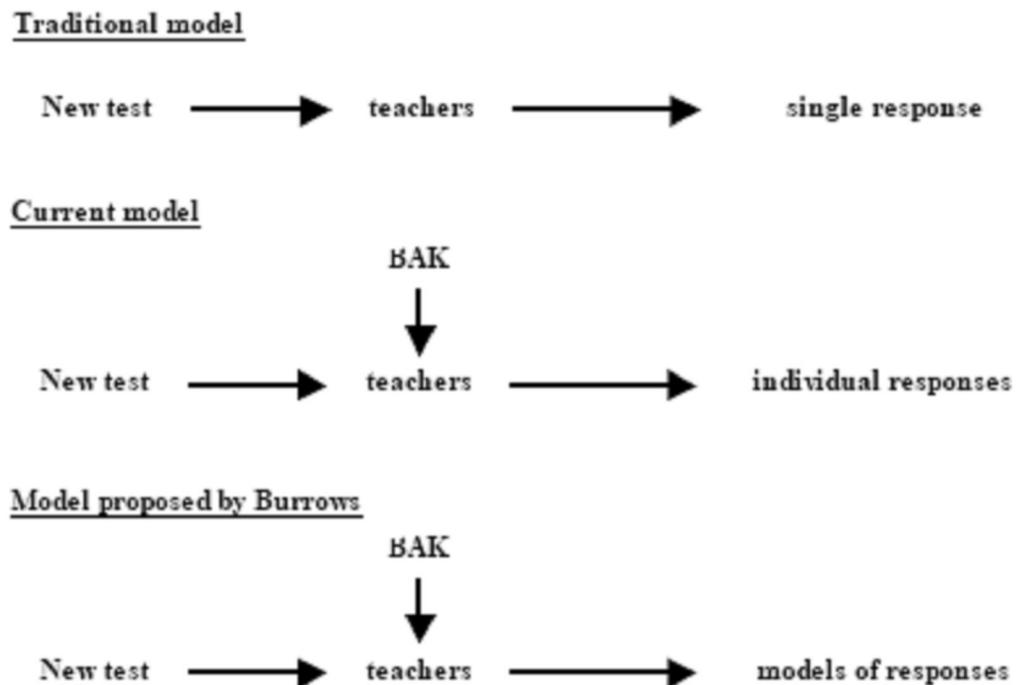
Bailey's model is designed on the basis of suggestions of Hughes (1993); however, she does not clarify the process herself. Bailey's model (Figure 2.1) shows and describes the participants and products, but it does not give any information of process. An apparent shortcoming in this figure was that it showed a test directly influencing the participants, without articulating the role of beliefs held by the participants. In other words, the model did not explain why the participants did what they did. In addition, the model proposed by Bailey (1996) no longer finds strong support among researchers as a model of washback because it includes wider test effects such as those on teaching materials which can be referred to as *impact*, rather than being restricted to the effects that a test has only on teacher and learner behaviour (i.e., washback) as defined by Hamp-Lyons (1997) and Wall (1997). However, her model has immensely contributed to the washback studies during the last decade. Her model can be considered as a gateway and one of the pioneer washback models for future researchers.

### 2.5.1.3 Burrows's Washback Models

Another set of simpler models is presented by Burrows (1998). She seeks empirical evidence of the washback effect on the attitudes and practices of teachers on the Adult Migrant English Program in New South Wales in Australia (Figure 2.2). Her study looks at the impact of the implementation of the Certificate in Spoken and Written English. Her conclusions are that there is evidence of washback, but that different teachers react to the changes in assessment differently. She also feels that in her case, where testing and the curriculum were closely interwoven, the changes were not easy to separate.

Burrows (1998.) identifies three models of washback: one traditional pre-dating Alderson and Wall (1993); a second model, relating to current writing about washback (e.g. Shohamy et al., 1996); and she proposes a third model relating washback to curriculum innovation and teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (BAK) as shown in the following diagrams (Figure 2.2):

Figure 2.2: Burrows's washback models (1998)

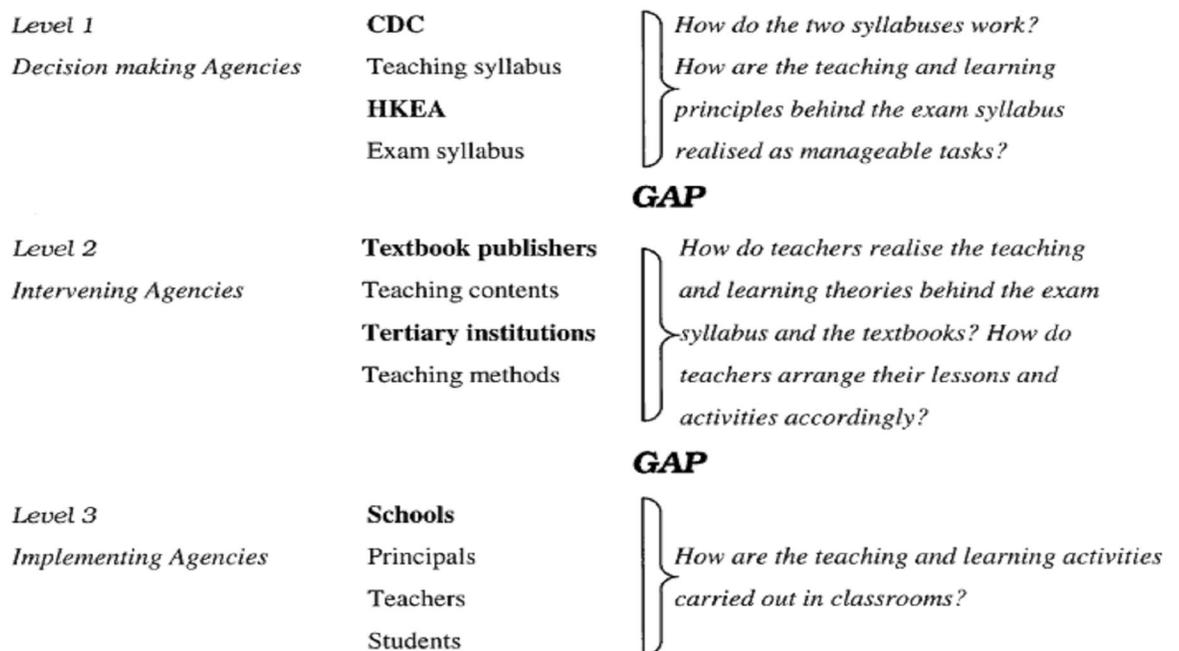


Burrows (ibid.) has argued that the models imply that a uniform and consistent washback effect would always be expected by the introduction of any test because the washback depends on the quality of the test rather than on the participants. She suggests that this early model is not based on objective evidence such as observation, but on teachers' anecdotal evidence. However, Burrows's models lack of discussion on the role of participants and teaching methodology. The models fail to draw wide attention of researchers due to their limitations.

### 2.5.1.4 Cheng's Washback Models

Cheng (1999) proposes a model of washback and identifies three levels of washback effect of the 1996 Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE) in terms of curriculum change. Agencies of the three levels are (1) decision-making agencies, (2) the intervening agencies, and (3) the implementing agencies (Figure 2.3). The HKEA makes the decisions with its subject committee, which consists of persons nominated by the Director of Education, English subject examination officer, language experts from tertiary institutions and school teachers. The HKEA piloted the revised syllabus and went to schools to get opinions from teachers:

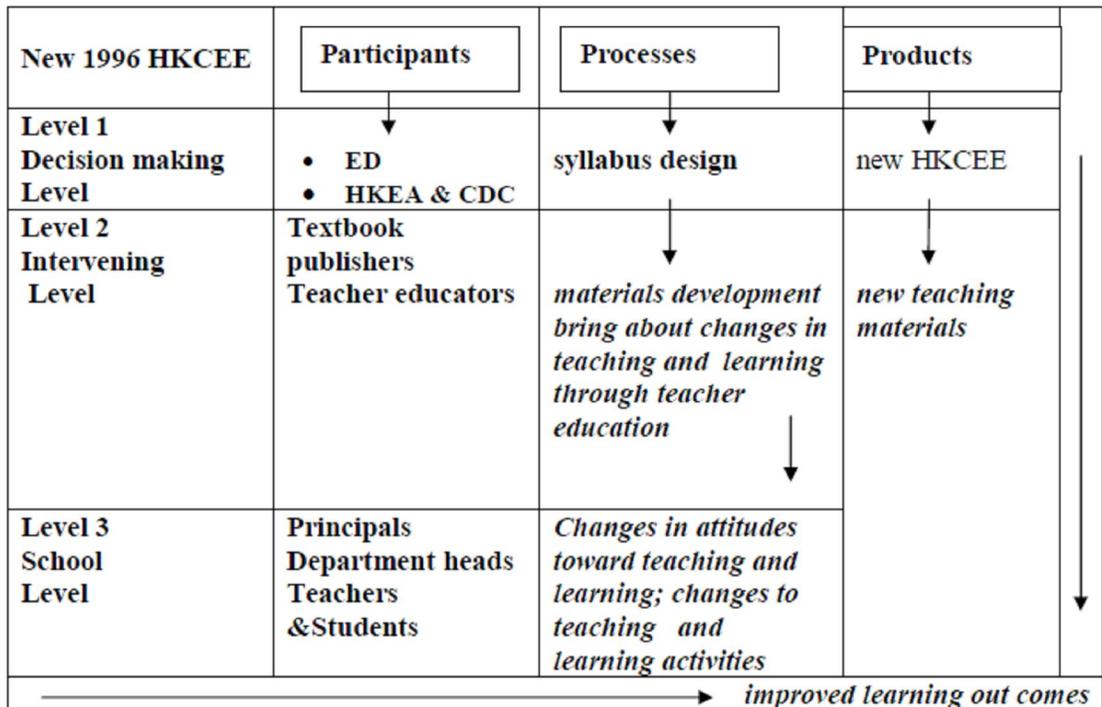
Figure 2.3: Cheng's explanatory washback model (1999)



The model suggests that the textbook publishers revise textbook materials, and also inform tertiary institutions about further teacher education. Cheng (1999) points out that it is up to the schools and teachers to decide how they are going to carry out their teaching according to the syllabus. Such a process usually signifies a cycle of a curriculum change. Cheng (1999), in her model, suggests that teachers and principals redefine and reinterpret the messages about policy that they receive; they then act - adapt, teach, learn, and evaluate - according to their own definitions of the situation. Therefore, the identification of the gaps noted in Figure 2.3 would greatly improve the knowledge and understanding of how and in what areas a public examination change can actually influence the Hong Kong school curriculum. Her model proves to be significant in that she describes three levels of agencies and their responsibilities. It is assumed that her model would be more powerful if she would suggest any teaching methodology and teacher training

Cheng (2002) comes up with another model (Figure 2.4) of washback based on her study of the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Exam (HKCEE). Her model is specifically for the Hong Kong educational context. A diagram of the model she has proposed is shown in figure below (Figure 2.4):

Figure 2.4 Cheng's washback model (2002)



Cheng (2002) has obtained empirical data from a longitudinal study using a mixed methods approach that emphasised the importance of context, setting and subject frames of reference to examine the washback effect of the new Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination in English HKCEE. She looks at changes to the public examination system in Hong Kong, specifically to the HKCEE and the impact on teacher as well as student behaviours in the classroom. Her model shows that there are levels of participants, processes, and products as delineated by Hughes (2003). In addition, Cheng's (2002) model describes the role of participants. The model also shows the activities under process.

Three major research questions were explored over three phases of this study. These questions are: (1) What strategies did the Hong Kong Examinations Authority (HKEA) use to implement the examination change? (2) What were the nature and the scope of the washback effect on teacher and learner perceptions of aspects of teaching for the new examination? (3) What were the nature and scope of the washback effect on teacher behaviour as a result of the new examination? Cheng's both two models are based on curriculum innovation and language teaching. Her models (Figures 2.3 and 2.4) are praiseworthy and can be modeled for other researchers.

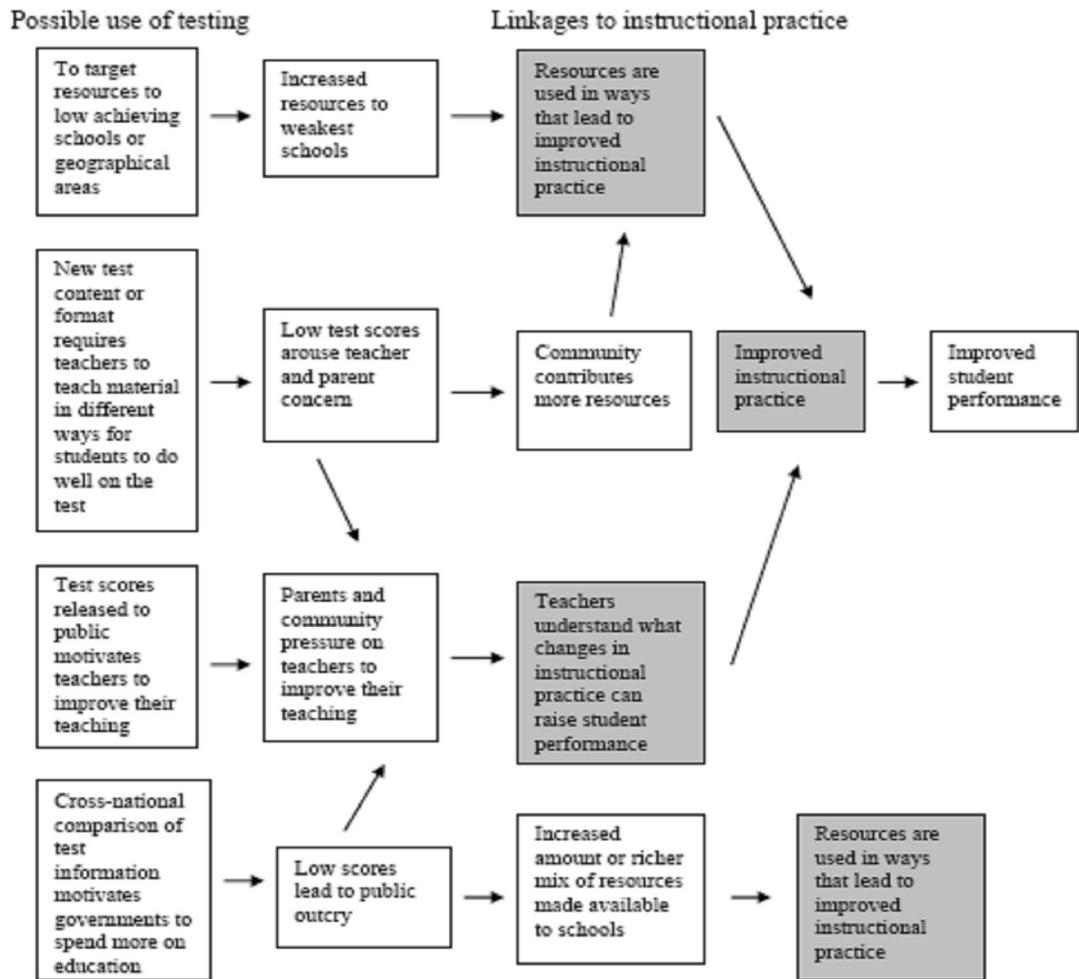
### **2.5.1.5 Chapman and Snyder's Test Impact Model**

Chapman and Snyder (2000) attempt to describe a model how a test can influence teaching and learning. Based on the international educational development literature, Chapman and Snyder (2000) devise the model which illustrates what they call "logical paths" through which policy makers assume that the use of high-stakes assessments may bring about improved student learning.

Four possible uses of tests are shown on the left of the model and the intended outcome (i.e., improved learning) is shown on the right. The paths linking them have intermediate events which may include community pressure, but all include providing extra resources and improvement of instructional practice. All arrows point to assumed direct consequences. They (ibid.) argue that the model is very simplistic as it does not take into account the complexity of the teaching and learning process, or that teaching and learning may not be easily altered just by

manipulating single factors. The figure below (Figure 2.5) presents the model of washback proposed by Chapman and Snyder (ibid.):

Figure 2.5: Chapman and Snyder's test impact model (2000)



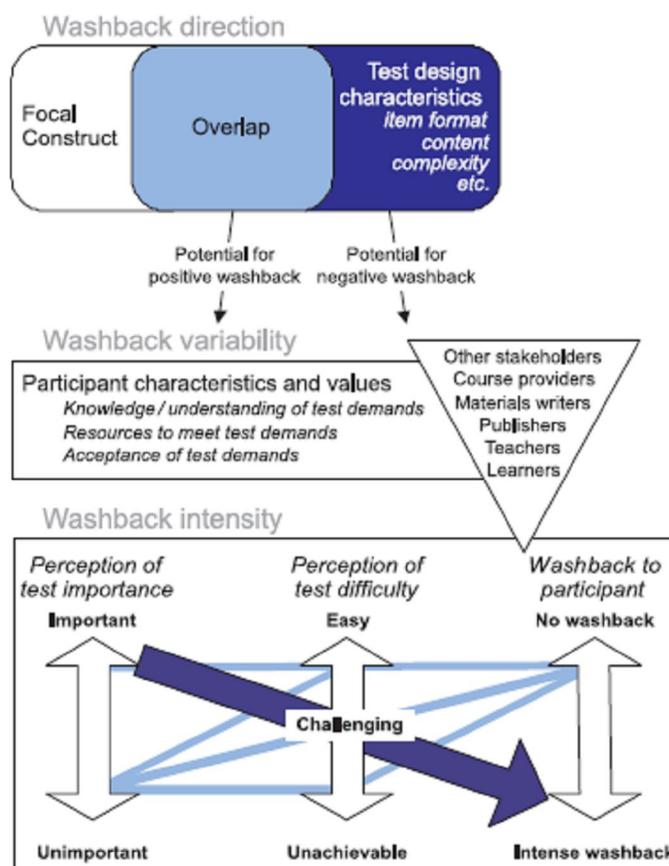
They (ibid., 2000) have stressed that policy makers were responsible for clarifying and elaborating the link between testing and improved teaching and learning. The model discussed above presents teachers as rather passive, as if their beliefs have no part to play in the process. Although They (ibid, 2000) do not articulate the role of beliefs in the model, it can be argued that one of the embedded assumptions is belief change as Fullan (2001) suggested that it would play an important role in promoting desired test impact. The model (Figure 2.5) is a complex and ambitious one. The linkage, they try to establish is hardly possible to happen.

## Green's Washback Model

Green (2003) proposes a predictive model of test washback set out in Figure 2.6. In considering the mechanisms of washback, a growing body of theory relates test design, test use, and classroom behaviours. These embrace both contexts for test use and technical qualities of the test instrument. Green (2003) tries to draw together these two elements in washback theory by introducing the model. The model starts from test design characteristics, and relates validity issues of construct representation identified with washback. In the proposed model, test design issues are most closely identified with the direction of washback—whether effects are likely to be judged beneficial or damaging to teaching and learning.

The model below (Figure 2.6) relates design issues to contexts of test use, including the extent to which participants (including material writers, teachers, learners, and course providers) are aware of and are equipped to address the demands of the test and are willing to embrace beliefs about learning embodied therein:

Figure 2.6: Green's washback model (2003)



In this model, these features are most closely related to washback variability (differences between participants in how they are affected by a test) and washback intensity. Green (2003) suggests that washback may be most intense—have the most powerful effects on teaching and learning behaviours— where participants see the test as challenging and the results as important (perhaps because they are associated with high stakes decisions, such as university entrance). The model also indicates that the conditions for intense washback to a majority of participants would seem to be in place. The model seems to be very complex because it tries to relate theory, test design, test theory, and classroom behaviours. It is a washback model of direction, variability, and intensity.

### 2.5.1.7. Manjarrés’s Washback Model

Manjarrés (2005) designs a model of washback to show how it works in the context and the type of washback that the different factors seem to be generating. Manjarrés (2005) suggests that test produces general awareness of the importance of English, reduced class size and seems to contribute to the generation of ideal goals in line with the communicative competence construct. These are in themselves part of the general positive washback effect, which was perceived here as ‘strong’ and ‘positive’. The figure below (Figure 2.7) displays how participants, processes, and products are coordinated to promote students’ level of communicative competence.

Figure 2.7: Manjarres’s washback model (2005)

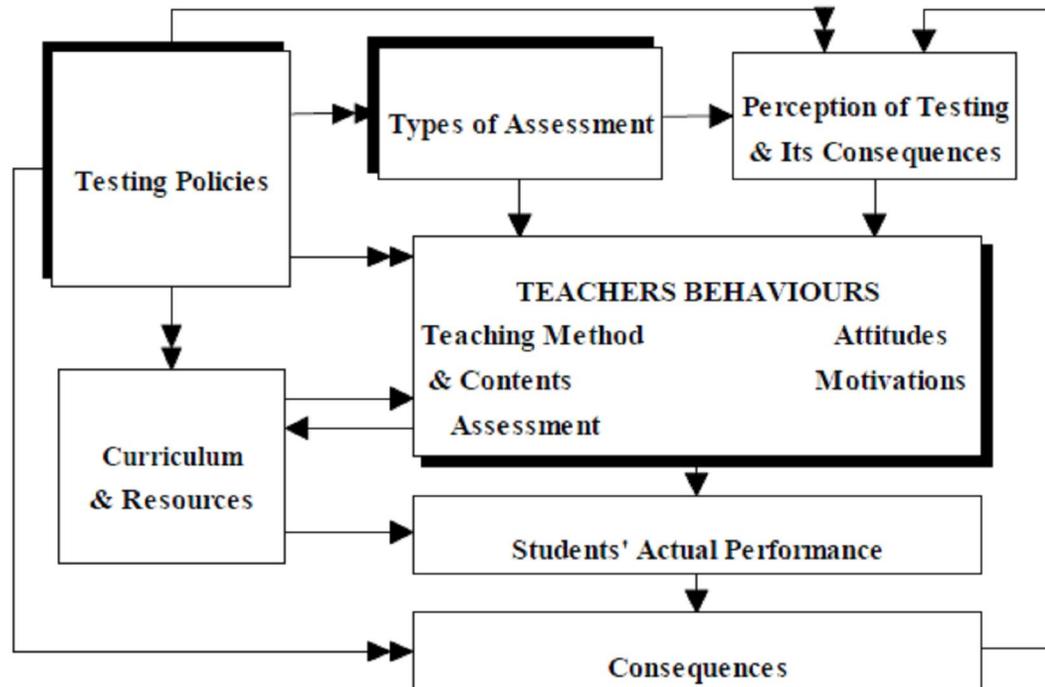
Value/ Specificity	Factors Mediating Washback	Participants	Processes	Products
General Positive Washback	Macro – context: importance of English	School decisions: number and size of classes	---	---
	Perception of English in the society: educational legislation	Teacher’s awareness		
		Student’s awareness Ideal goals		
Specific Negative Washback	Importance of exam in the context	Syllabus Specific objectives Classroom activities and interaction In-class evaluation practices		Students’ level of communicative competence
	Teacher’s beliefs about how language is learnt and what communicative competence is			

However, since it is ‘general’ washback, as a factor for the outcome of the test in terms of learning, its effect shows to be rather weak. What seem to be crucial are the teacher and the decisions he/she makes (syllabus, activities, evaluation, etc.). These decisions, however, cannot evidentially be linked to the examination because nothing in the class or in the interviews can uncontroversially show such a direct relation, but there appears to be, nevertheless, a strong correlation. The model depicts different factors mediating washback, but it does not include teacher training and teaching methodology which are very influential factors in generating washback.

### 2.5.1.8 Nguyen’s Washback Models

Nguyen (2005) proposes two models of washback on the teacher-level and student-level. The figure below (Figure 2.8) displays the circle of testing effects on teacher-level. In the model, the double directional arrow from one factor to the other factor indicates the direction of the influence from the determining factor to the dependent one. The other directional arrow shows in turn interaction, the dependent factor becomes the determining one. These interrelationship forms a circle of the causal links:

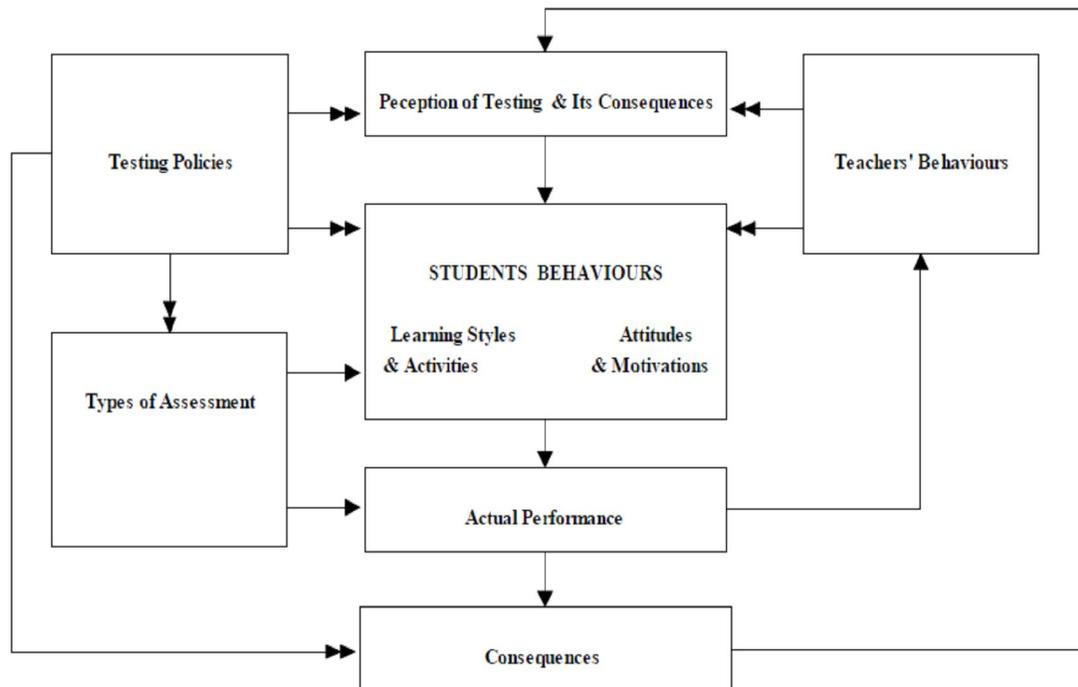
Figure 2.8: Nguyen’s test washback model - effect on teachers (2005)



Examining the model (Figure 2.8) from left to right, it is seen that testing policy is the primary determining factor that can be intervened to enable either positive or negative washback on types of assessment, teachers' perception of testing and its' consequences, teachers' behaviours, consequences of the test results and curriculum and resources. Furthermore, next, types of assessment play a very important role that together with the testing policies may influence teachers' perception of testing and test types. They enhance changes in teachers' behaviours that lead to changes in attitudes and motivations and teaching content and method. The model (Figure 2.8) reflects that curriculum, resources, and teachers' behaviours interact with each other in two ways that indicate by two arrows in opposite way. The model suggests that the curriculum and resources also directly influence students' actual performance. The model highlights that the outcomes of the changes and interactions lead to change in students' actual performance then consequences.

Nguyen (2005) also proposes another washback model. In the model below (Figure 2.9), the double directional arrow from one factor to another factor indicates the direction of the influence from the determining factor to the dependent one. The other directional arrow shows in turn interaction, as the dependent factor becomes the determining one. These interrelation forms a circle of the causal links:

Figure 2.9: Nguyen's test washback model - effect on students (2005)



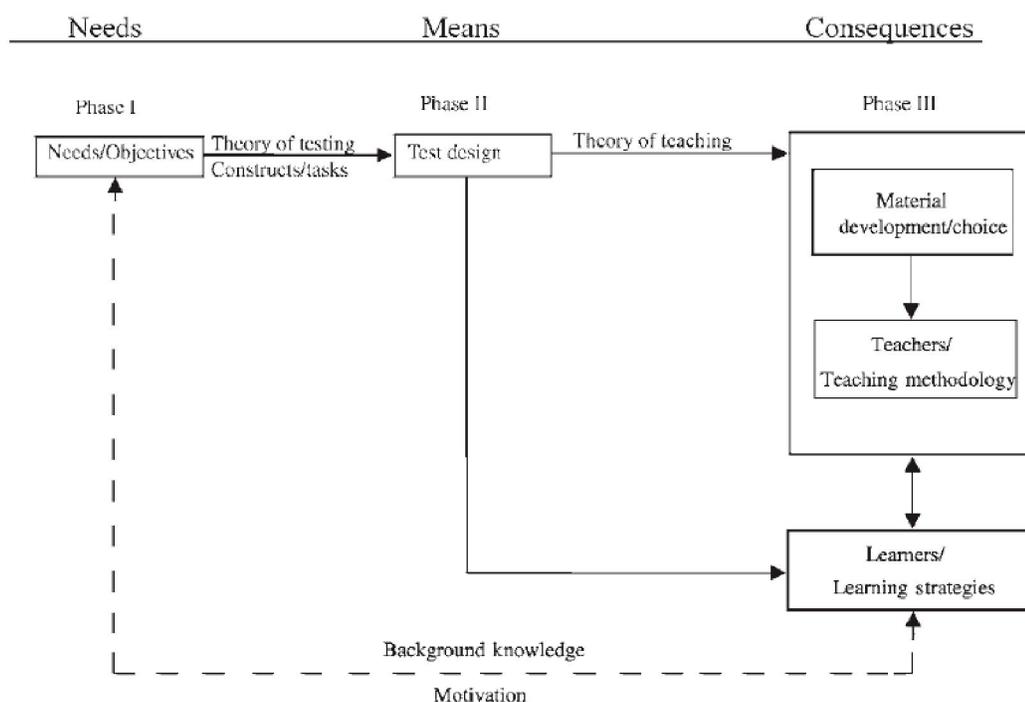
Nguyen (2005) suggests that testing policy is the primary determining factor that influences students' perception of testing and its consequences, types of assessment and the consequences of test results. The two models (Figures 2.8 and 2.9) suggest that test washback effects, or more specifically content and method washback, pressure washback, and innovations in education can primarily be promoted by the testing policies and types of assessments, then teachers' perception of the testing policies and of the type of assessment in use. Hence, to enhance beneficial and minimise harmful washback, testing policies and types of assessment are the two primary factors that should be the first to intervene.

At student-level, content and method washback and pressure washback are also promoted greatly by the change in testing policies, and teachers' behaviours. So, to promote beneficial washback and minimise harmful ones testing policies, types of assessment and teachers behaviours are the factors that should be given priority. The models discussed above have tried to rationalise that the testing policies, types of assessments, curriculum and resources play concerted role to generate beneficial washback on language teaching and learning. However, Nguyen (ibid.) shows teacher-level washback and student-level washback separately. Though the models seem to be potential in term of washback generation, they are highly ambitious in term of teachers' actual behaviour in the class.

### **2.5.1.9 Saif's Washback Model**

Saif (2006) proposes a model of washback (Figure 2.10) to show how different phenomena such as needs, means, and consequences work to generate washback on learning. The components of the model systematically represent the major focus areas grouped under three categories of 'needs', 'means', and 'consequences'. The proposed model would allow the inclusion of certain areas of potential impact on the participants of this particular context thereby facilitating the 'washback to the program' (Bailey, 1996). The model illustrates two major lines of connection to be pursued with respect to the test: first, the needs and objectives of the population and the educational context in question, which directly or indirectly affect the type, purpose, and content of the test, its development and implementation; and, second, the potential effects of test use on classroom teaching and learning activities:

Figure 2.10: Saif's washback model (2006)



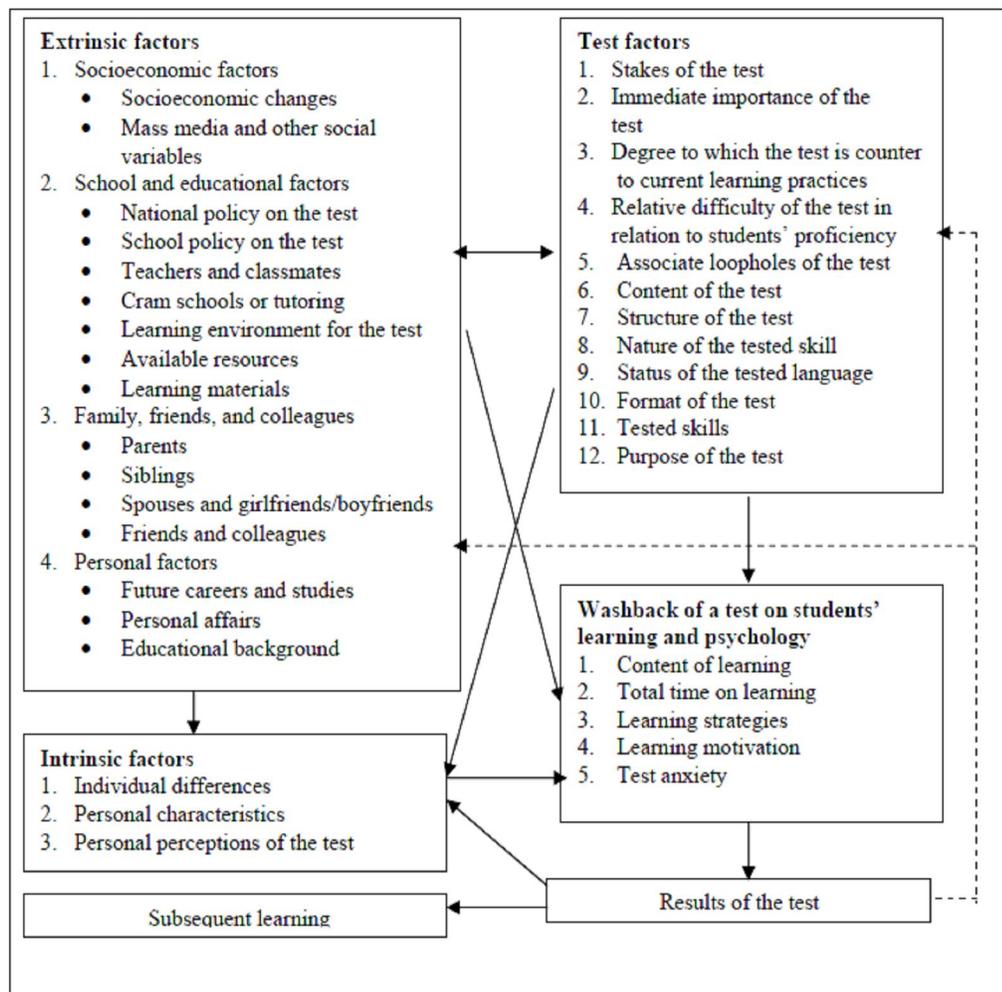
For example, the model suggests that the test be developed with respect to a theoretical framework in conformity with the test objectives so that the same theoretical line of thought can be followed (for example, by teachers and material developers) in all future decisions made with respect to material development and teaching methodology. Moreover, to enhance desirable learning effects, the model suggests that such factors as learners' motivation and background knowledge – previous experience with the target language as well as their topical knowledge – be taken into consideration in the development of the test.

The two-way relationship between the components of the model further allows for what Shohamy (1992) calls the involvement of 'the ones expected to carry out change' (in this case, the teacher) in the test development and/or administration process. Empirical research – with the purpose of examining the possibility of creating washback through the introduction of a new test based on the specific needs of the learners – was then carried out in three different phases each of which corresponded to one of the different levels of the model described above. Saif's model (2006) displays how needs, means, and consequences work in a systematic way under theories of testing and teaching, however, the model does not depict how positive washback can be maximized.

### 2.5.1.10 Shih's Washback Models

CHIH-MIN SHIH is a researcher in applied linguistics and one of the recognised experts in testing and washback. He proposes two well-known washback models which draw attention of worldwide washback researchers. Shih (2007) proposes a model that describes the roles that both beliefs and contextual factors play in the process of washback (Figure 2.11). The model describes contextual factors as Extrinsic factors which include Socio-economic factors, School and educational factors, Family, friends, and colleagues, and Personal factors. The influence of beliefs appears to be labeled as Personal perceptions of the test under Intrinsic factors. The model below (Figure 2.11) depicts the different roles that both beliefs and contextual factors play:

Figure 2.11: Shih's washback model (2007)

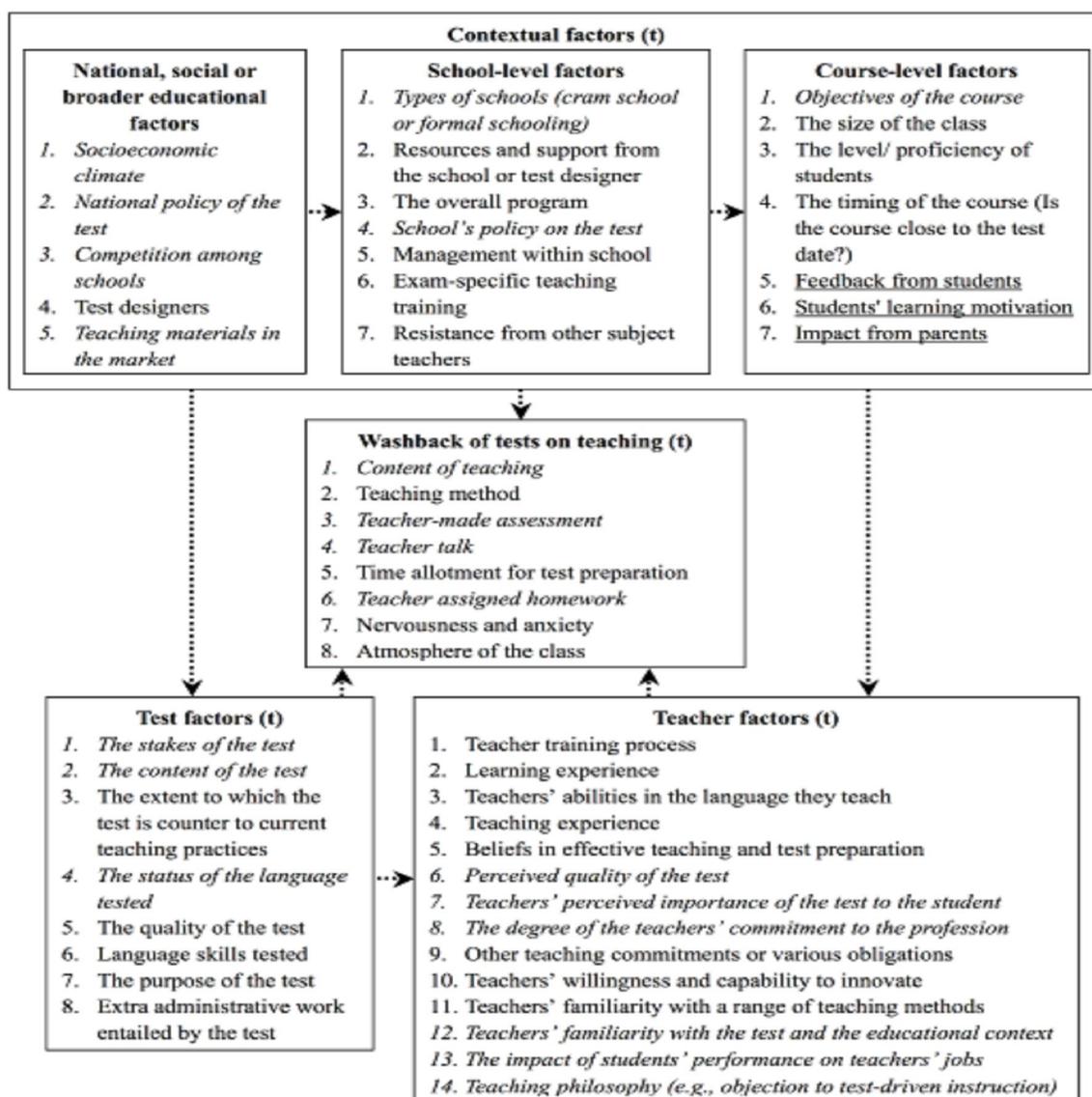


The model includes the *Test factors* as the mediating factors for washback. In the model (Figure 2.11), solid line arrows indicate the impact that has been empirically established and dotted line arrows represent the possible effects which have yet to be investigated. Shih's model (2007) describes not only the direct influence of Extrinsic, Intrinsic, and Test factors on washback, but also their indirect influence on washback. For example, Extrinsic factors can influence washback via Intrinsic factors or Test factors. Test factors can influence washback via Extrinsic factors. One interesting feature of this model is that Shih (2007) includes a time axis to indicate time as a variable, a concept also discussed by Shohamy et al., (1996) who suggests that washback is likely to evolve over time. Shih's model, based on the washback of the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) on teaching and learning in Taiwan, covers adequate factors. It shows how the factors depend on each other to generate washback.

One concern in Shih's model (2007) is that some items categorised as test factors share similarities such as the content, and test structure, test skills, as well as yet another distinguishing facet that Shih terms "the nature of the tested skills" which are all thought to have some influence on test performance. A more detailed explanation of how these items impact students' learning is also provided. For example, Shih states that test content influences students' learning but does not indicate in what way. It is unclear whether students at the school where the GEPT is a graduation requirement spent more time listening to audio versions of test-preparation materials or not. Another example regarding test impact is that Shih states most students do not prepare for speaking test items because they do not know how to prepare for them. However, he does not clearly reveal the reasons for that.

Shih (2009) has proposed another washback model that builds on that of Bailey (1996). The model is also empirically developed, based on his study of the implementation of the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) in Taiwan. His data comes from his interviews with participants and in-class observations in Institutions of Higher Learning in that context. The figure below (Figure 2.12) shows that contextual factors, test factors and teacher factors influence the degree of washback on teaching:

Figure 2.12: Shih's washback model (2009)

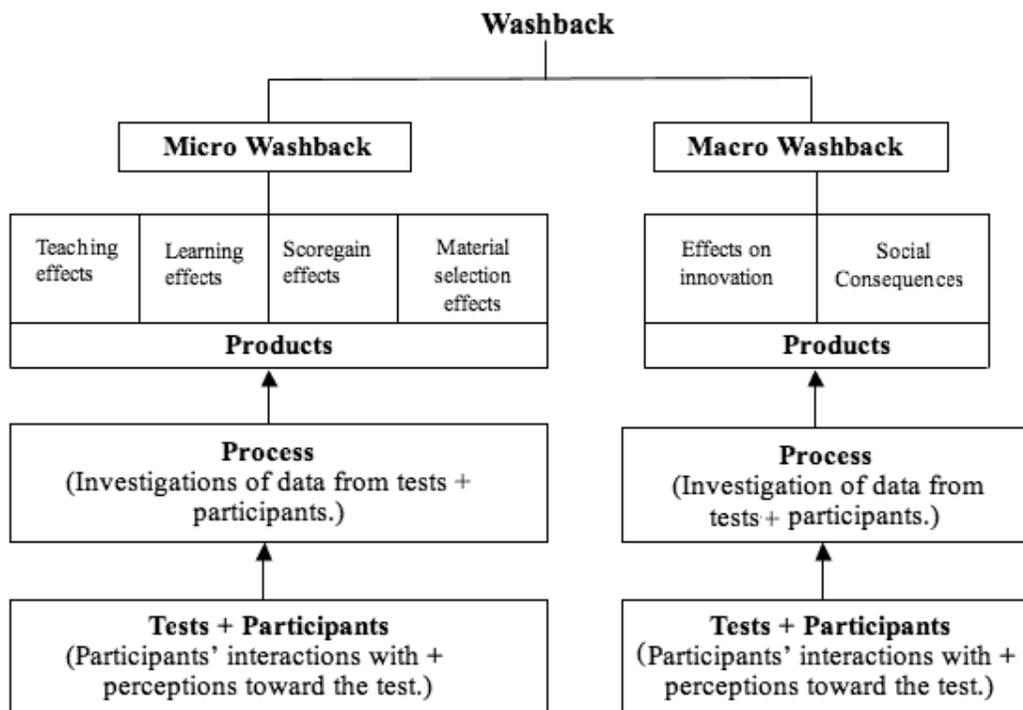


This model focuses only on the washback effect on student learning. In Shih's model (Figure 2.12), the dotted lines denote the impact of one category of factors on another. The symbol (t) acknowledges that washback phenomena may evolve over time, as Shohamy et al. (1996) point out. Factors in italics are either derived from this study or have been reported by other empirical studies, and are substantiated again in my study. Underlined factors have not been corroborated by any empirical data, but it is believed that they are integral to understanding washback. His models largely contribute to academic research though further research is still needed to deepen the understanding of washback.

### 2.5.1.11 Pan's Washback Model

Pan (2008) proposes a model of washback which seems to be very relevant to EFL education. Her model is generated from the previous analysis of washback studies and the major washback models, and current leading theories such as Alderson and Wall's fifteen washback hypotheses, Bailey's basic model of washback, and Hughes' trichotomy of washback. Her "Micro and Macro-Washback" model is presented in Figure 2.13. This model incorporates ideas from Hughes (1993, as cited in Bailey, 1999) in describing a trichotomy of test effects in terms of "participants", "process", and "product".

Figure 2.13: Pan's holistic washback model (2008)



Like other washback researchers, Pan (2008) believes that tests can affect teachers, students, administrators, materials writers, and publishers in terms of their perceptions, activities they engage in, as well as the amount and quality of learning outcomes. Bailey (1996) has combined the fifteen hypotheses from Alderson and Wall (1993) within the trichotomy of the backwash model proposed by Hughes (1993), and created the "basic model of washback" (see figure 2.1). Bailey distinguishes between "washback to the learner" (what and how learners learn and the rate/sequence and degree/depth of learning) and "washback to the program"

(what and how teachers teach and the rate/sequence and degree/depth of teaching) to illustrate the mechanism by which washback works in actual teaching and learning contexts. A common characteristic of these washback models is that they tend to highlight what washback looks like and who is affected, but do little to address the factors that contribute to the phenomenon. In other words, “process” is less understood than “participants” and “products”. Besides, the products in these three models/hypotheses refer mainly to teaching and learning washback, not to the aspects of washback that might impact society.

The proposed model in Figure 2.13 aims to strive to represent a holistic balance of both micro-and-macro levels. Washback at the micro level is postulated to consist of teaching, learning, teaching material and score gain effects, while washback at the macro level is postulated to consist of innovation and social dimension features. The different aspects of both levels are viewed as “products”, in Hughes’s (1993) term. “Tests + Participants”, the first item in Figure 2.13, represents participants’ (applying Hughes’s terms) interactions with and perceptions toward tests, while “process”, the second of Hughes’s terms and the second item refers to the investigation of data derived from “Tests + Participants” intended to explain those products.

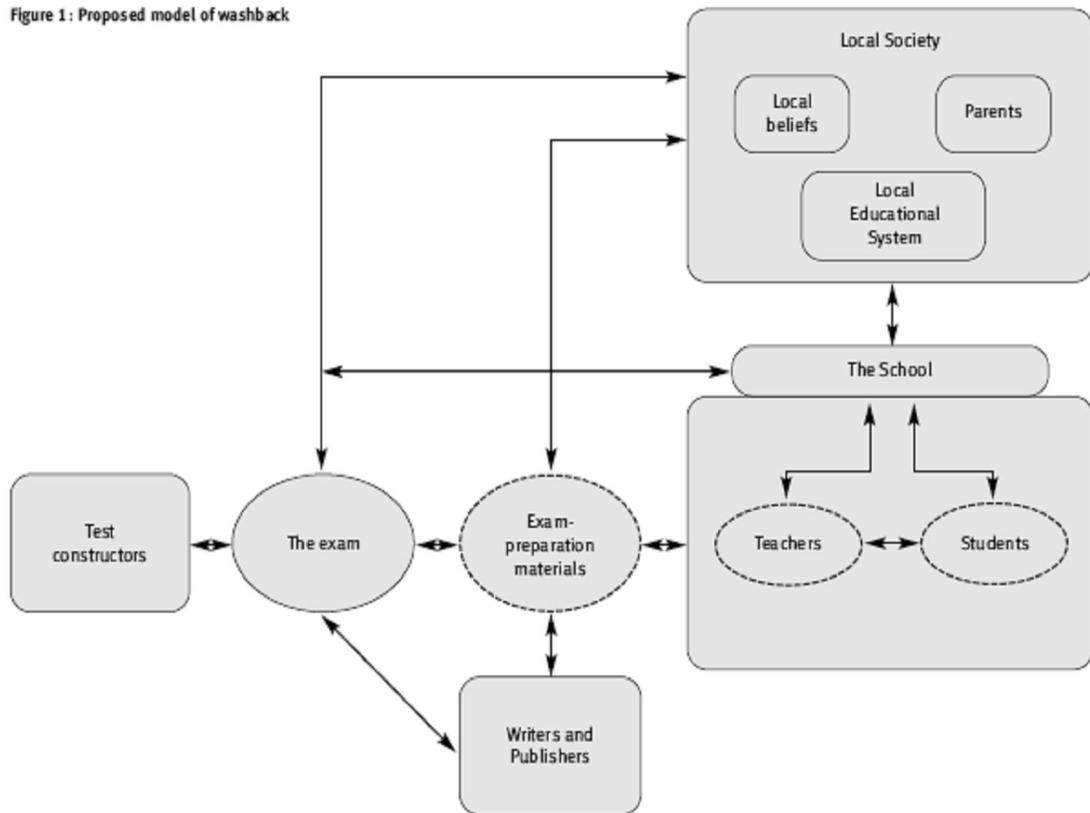
The model investigates how three general phenomena interact on both the macro and micro levels. In addition, this model advocates a well-rounded investigation of washback that focuses not only on a given educational context but also society at large. To gauge micro- and macro washback levels of washback, a triangulation of questionnaires, interviews, observations, pre-and-post tests, and document analysis need to be conducted. This process involves many different stakeholders such as teachers, students, administrators, policy-makers, family members and the general public. The model deserves appreciations as it contributes to further research in applied linguistics.

#### **2.5.1.12 Tsagari’s Washback Model**

Tsagari (2009) offers a washback model to illustrate the complex ecology of examination washback. In the model (Figure 2.14), washback is represented as an open loop process identifying the number of stakeholders involved in the process and attempting to portray the relationship between them. However, despite it being a

multi-directional relationship among stakeholders, the model, in its visual representation below, is ‘simplified’ to make it possible to represent it graphically.

Figure 2.14: Tsagari’s washback model (2009)



In the above model, the nature of examination washback is circuitous and interactive. The model shows that the examination washback is indirectly engineered on teaching and learning that takes place in the examination-preparation classroom through the understanding of the examination requirements. The model shows that the examination washback is mediated through commercially produced materials that are shaped by the perceptions of the needs of teachers and students by writers and publishers of the materials.

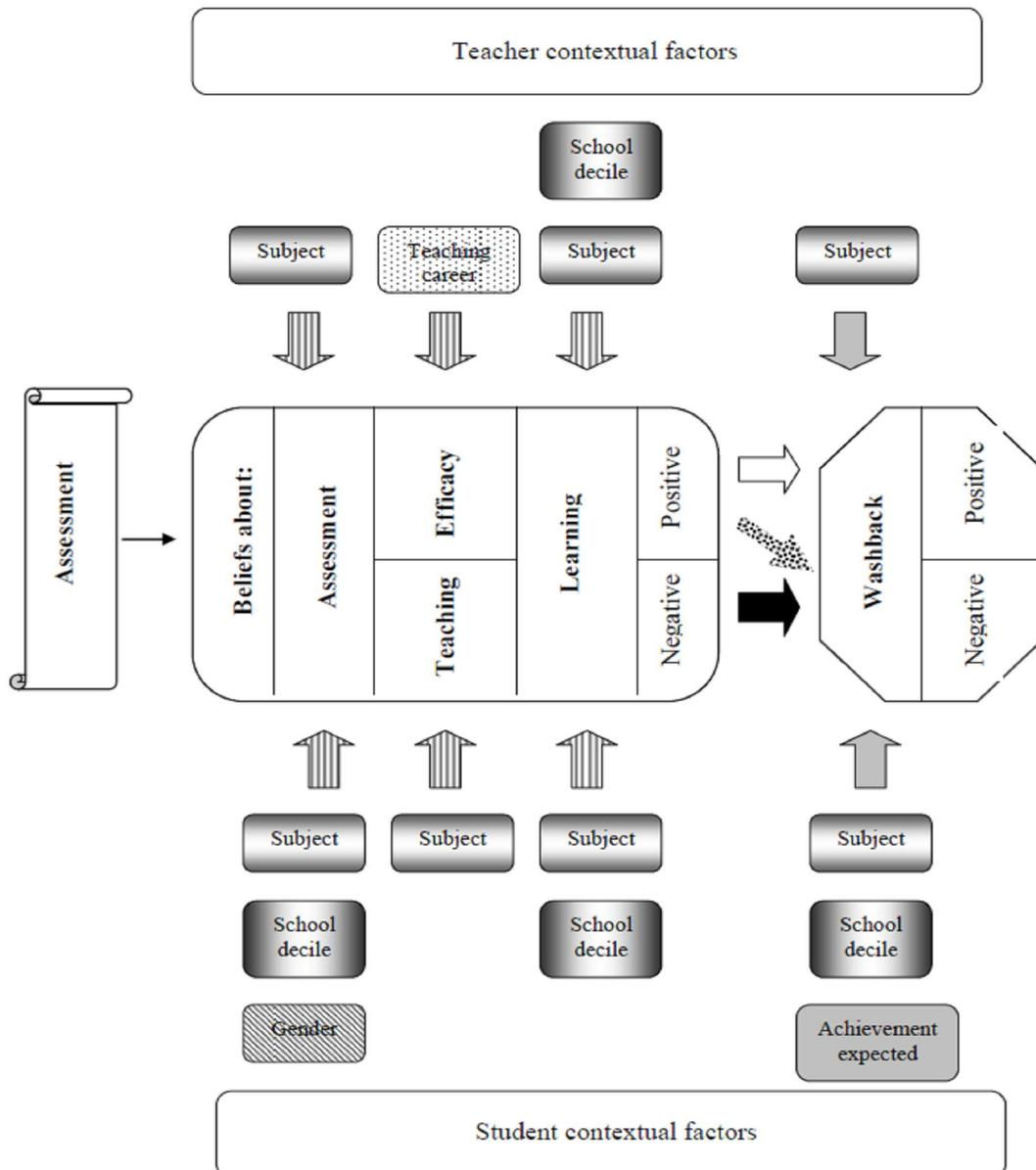
The examination preparation materials mediate between the examination intentions and the examination preparation class. The teacher’s role is also crucial in the process as they mediate between material and students. Within this process, washback is also mediated by the school and strengthened by the perceptions and understanding of various other stakeholders operating in the wider local community, such as parents, as well as by the local educational system and beliefs about the

examination and the language tested. Tsagari's model (2009) highlights the process of mediation of washback through the use of materials. If he would incorporate the role of teaching methodology, the model could be more acceptable.

### 2.5.1.13 Mizutani's Washback Model

Mizutani (2009) proposes a washback model demonstrating that certain types of washback effects are mediated by certain types of contextual factors and beliefs. In her proposed model, beliefs are illustrated as having a direct influence on the way the nature of washback is interpreted:

Figure 2.15: Mizutani's washback model (2009)



In the figure above, (Figure 2.15), the white block arrow shows that beliefs that are positive are likely to bring about positive washback while the black block arrow indicates that beliefs that are negative are likely to cause negative washback. Furthermore, beliefs that are positive can mitigate negative washback, which is indicated by a dot-shaded arrow in the model. Although these patterns were often found in common among teachers and students, more opportunities to promote positive washback and to cause negative washback existed for students.

The two grey block arrows signify the direct influence of contextual factors of teachers and students on washback. For teachers and students direct effects are more subject related, indicating the distinction between verbal or numeric subjects is likely to determine the nature of washback. School decile and achievement expected are also shown to have a direct influence on washback for students. Whether students are from lower or higher decile schools and whether they consider themselves as lower or higher achieving are further factors which are likely to determine the nature of the washback.

Mizutani (2009) suggests that certain contextual factors are likely to influence particular types of beliefs. The striped block arrows illustrate patterns of these influences. For teachers and students, whether their subject is verbal or numeric may influence a certain type of belief about assessment. For students, whether they are from lower or higher decile schools or they are male or female may also influence certain types of belief about assessment. For teachers and students, whether their subject is verbal or numeric and whether they are from lower or higher decile schools may also influence beliefs about learning. For students alone, their beliefs about teaching are likely to be influenced by the subject. Teachers' views about their own efficacy are likely to be influenced by the length of their teaching career. The nature of washback depends on whether these types of beliefs are positive or negative. Thus, certain contextual factors arguably influence washback indirectly via beliefs.

Mizutani's (2009) washback model shows that washback and beliefs are more context-dependent for students than for teachers, while demonstrating similarities between teachers and students in the extent to which contextual factors and beliefs play a role in the process of washback. She claims that it is possible to promote intended positive washback where teacher's and student's beliefs are

aligned with the intentions of the Ministry of Education, and where contexts are supportive. She further confirms that the links established between teachers' and students' beliefs, their contextual factors, and washback in the proposed model are arguably useful to increase understanding of the mechanism of washback of an assessment on teaching and learning. She believes that by clarifying the link between assessment and desired outcomes, the model can potentially help promote intended positive washback while minimising undesirable negative washback. The present researcher finds that the model proposed by Mizutani (2009) seems to be potential to large extent to generate beneficial washback on teaching and learning, however, the proposed model would be more prospective if she could explain how external pressure and test contents contribute to the generation of washback.

This section looks at the functions and mechanisms by which washback works in relation to other educational theories and practices. Washback is a complex phenomenon. Similarly, the models which have been proposed during last 20 years are not clearly defined because of its variability. The washback models discussed above have been designed in different educational context. The researchers have proposed washback models on the basis of their own contexts. Thus, the current research set out to develop a washback model which could describe the way washback was mediated particularly by beliefs held by both teachers and students and their contextual factors. Future washback research would probably benefit from incorporating theories of test impact available in both fields.

## **2.6 Areas Affected by Washback**

The view of testing is derived from the realisation of test power and its manifestations with regard to high-stakes decisions based on test results for individuals, educational systems and society as a whole. Many research studies reveal that a test affects participants, processes, and products in teaching and learning. Students, teachers, administrators, material developers and textbook writers may be included under the term 'participants'. Their perceptions and attitudes towards their work are likely to be affected by a test. Process refers to any action taken by the participants, which may contribute to the process of learning. Material development, syllabus design, use of syllabus and curriculum, applying teaching methodology, and the use of learning and/or test-taking strategies are

included under processes. Product means what is learned (facts, skills, etc.) and the quality of the learning (e.g. fluency, competence, etc.). Tests have an impact on the learning outcomes as well.

As mentioned, washback affects various aspects of teaching and learning, such as syllabus and curriculum, stakeholders, materials, teaching methods, testing and mediating factors, learning outcomes, feelings, attitudes, and learning, etc. Tests have impact on the lives of test takers, classrooms, school systems and even whole societies (Hamp-Lyons, 1998). Wall & Alderson (1993) put forward the 15 hypotheses, highlighting more specifically some of the ways in which a test might affect teaching and learning. The five of the hypotheses relate to washback to the learners, six relate to washback to the programme, and four relate to syllabus, curriculum, and teaching contents. Their hypotheses are:

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Relates to:</b>
1 A test will influence teaching. -----	Teachers
2 A test will influence learning. -----	Learners
3 A test will influence what teachers teach; and -----	Teachers
4 A test will influence how teachers teach; and therefore by extension from (2) above: -----	Teachers
5 A test will influence what learners learn; and -----	Learners
6 A test will influence how learners learn. -----	Learners
7 A test will influence the rate and sequence of teaching; and -----	Teachers
8 A test will influence the rate and sequence of learning. -----	Learners
9 A test will influence the degree and depth of teaching; and -----	Teachers
10 A test will influence the degree and depth of learning. -----	Learners
11 A test will influence attitudes to the content, method, etc. of teaching and learning. -----	Teachers & learners
12 Tests that have important consequences will have washback; and conversely.	High stakes tests
13 Tests that do not have important consequences will have no washback.	Low stakes tests
14 Tests will have washback on all learners and teachers. -----	Teachers & learners
15 Tests will have washback effects for some learners and some teachers, but not for others.-----	Teachers & learners

The Washback Hypothesis seems to assume that teachers and learners do things they would not necessarily otherwise do because of the test. Additionally, in

order to study the washback effect, it is necessary to look at the people that participate in the educational process, to the actual classroom events and activities, and to the outcomes of these processes. Based on the various types of research throughout the world, washback hypotheses may be summarised as:

1. Tests can affect curriculum and learning,
2. Tests can provide feedback on learning,
3. Tests can help implement content and performance standards,
4. Tests can influence the methodology that teachers use,
5. Tests can motivate teachers and students,
6. Tests can orient students as to what is important to learn,
7. Tests can help orient needed teacher training,
8. Tests can help implement articulation,
9. Tests can help implement educational reform.

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. 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. The findings of Read and Hayes (2003) are quite detailed and show variations in washback on the curriculum depending on the course observed. The studies discuss the effects of washback on various aspects of the classroom, which

can be categorized as follows: curriculum, materials, teaching methods, feelings and attitudes, learning. This section reviews the findings for each of these areas in turn.

### **2.6.1 Washback on Syllabuses and Curriculums**

Many researchers (e.g. Bailey, 1996, 1999; 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” (Vernon, 1956: 166; see also Kirkland, 1971; Shepard, 1991). 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.

Wall & Alderson (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 (P); 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.

### **2.6.1.1 Alignment of Curriculums with Public Examinations**

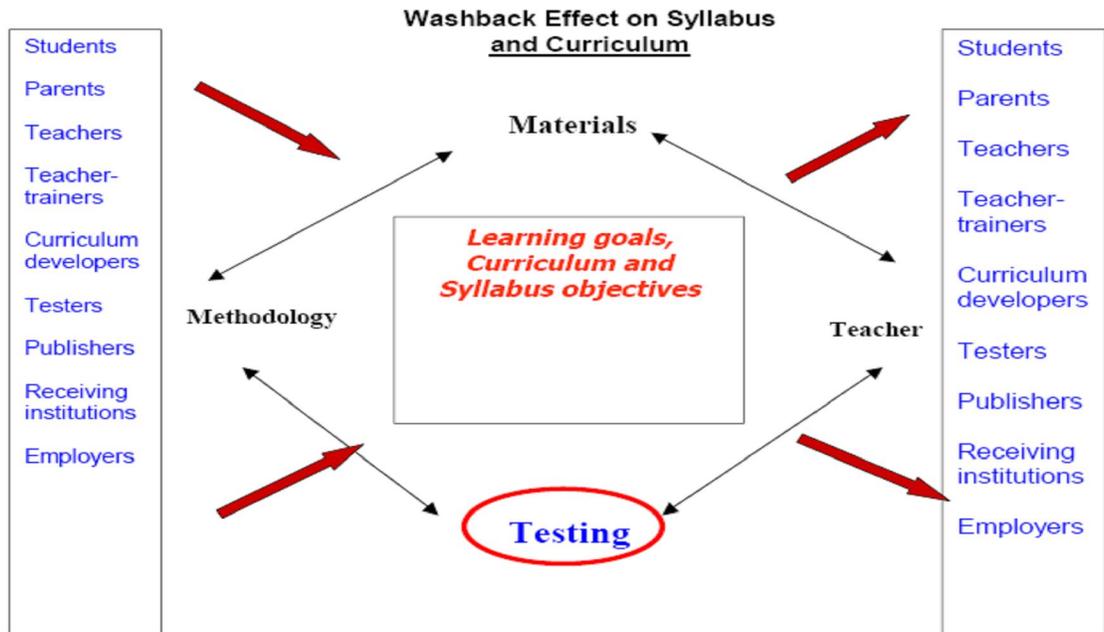
A curriculum provides a focus for the class and sets goals for the students throughout their study. A curriculum also gives the student a guide and idea to what they will learn, and how they have progressed when the course is over. Examinations or high-stakes tests exert a considerable impact on what, and how, teaching and learning are conducted in the classroom. Alderson and Wall (1993) elaborate, saying that “for teachers, the fear of poor results, and the associated guilt, shame, or embarrassment, might lead to the desire for their pupil to achieve high scores in whatever way seems possible. They point out this might lead to ‘teaching to the test’, with an undesirable narrowing of the curriculum” (ibid. p.118).

Alignment of the curriculum refers to the match between the content and format of the curriculum and the content and format of the test. Curriculum alignment is a process to improve the match between the formal instruction that often occurs in the classroom and the instrument that is used to measure the instruction outcomes. It is now proven fact that washback has a deep relation with the syllabus and curriculum. Test contents can have a very direct washback effect upon teaching curricula. 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).

A curriculum is a vital part of TEFL classes. 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. *Curriculum alignment* focuses on the connection between the testing and teaching syllabus (Andrews, 1994; Madaus, 1988; Shepard, 1993). Systemic validity implies the integration of tests into the educational system and the need to demonstrate that the introduction of a new test can improve learning (Cheng, 1997). Frederiksen & Collins (1989: 27) state that ‘A systematically valid test is one that induces in the education system curricular and instructional changes that foster

the development of the cognitive skills that the test is designed to measure'. Pierce (1992) states "the washback effect, sometimes referred to as the systemic validity of a test (p.687). The test leads to the narrowing of contents in the curriculum:

Figure 2.16: Washback on syllabus and curriculum by Saville & Hawkey (2004)



Curriculum alignment is commonly regarded as a process to improve instruction and tests. The process of curriculum alignment is usually established by two ways, frontloading and backloading.

### 2.6.1.2 Curriculum Alignment by Frontloading

Frontloading alignment is commonly practiced in education. It is assumed that frontloading can prevent teaching to the test, which may lead to an extremely narrow and rigid view of the actual goals and objectives of any curriculum. In the process of frontloading alignment, the curriculum is developed first and the test is designed to measure or assess whether students have learned what the curriculum includes. In this scenario, the test always follows and does not lead the curriculum (Lindvall and Nitko, 1975). Given an inappropriate test, narrowing of curriculum impedes teaching and learning (Smith, 1991).

### 2.6.1.3 Curriculum Alignment by Backloading

Opposite to frontloading, backloading refers to working from the test back to the curriculum, in terms that the curriculum to be taught is derived from the test to be given. (Table 2.2) It is assumed that backloading alignment can produce quick results in improved test scores (Niedermeyer and Yelon, 1981). However, issues of teaching to the test remain the most troublesome problem in the whole backloading alignment process. One issue is whether anything on the instrument that ought not to be taught is tested. The other issue, a local educator often asks, is whether anything that a student should know is not tested or assessed. The table below (Table 2.2) illustrates the process of Frontloading vs. backloading curriculum alignment (Steffy, 2001):

Table 2.2: Frontloading vs. backloading process of curriculum alignment

<b>Frontloading</b>	<b>Design</b>	<b>Delivery</b>
	Write the curriculum first and then develop a test to assess it.	Teach the curriculum first and develop a test to assess it.
<b>Backloading</b>	Obtain publicly released test items and create a curriculum based upon them.	Obtain publicly released test and create parallel classroom structures in which content/ is embedded.

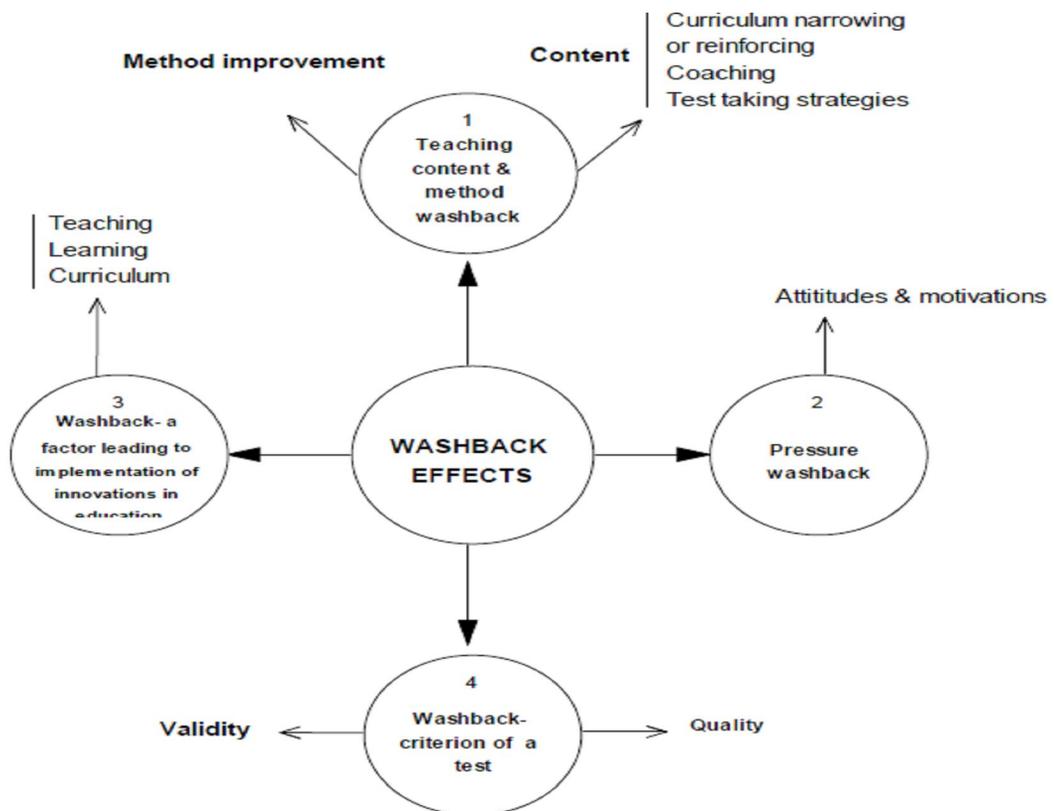
It is common to claim the existence of washback (the impact of a test on teaching) and to declare that tests can be powerful determiners, both positively and negatively, of what happens in classrooms. One of its key characteristics is the careful observation of teacher behavior. Swain (1985) says "It has frequently been noted that teachers will teach to a test: that is, if they know the content of a test and/or the format of a test, they will teach their students accordingly" (p. 43). It is generally accepted that public examinations influence the attitudes, behavior, and motivation of teachers, learners and parents (Pearson, 1988).

Tests are often perceived as exerting a conservative force which impedes progress. Andrews and Fullilove point out, "Not only have many tests failed to change, but they have continued to exert a powerful negative washback effect on teaching" (Andrews and Fullilove, 1994, p. 57). Heyneman (1987) has commented that teachers teach to an examination. Alderson and Wall (1993) concluded from their Sri Lanka study that 'the examination has had a demonstrable effect on the content of language lessons' (p, 126-27). Lam (1994) finds that more curriculum

time is given to exam classes, though Shohamy et al. (1996) suggest that this is true only in the case of exams viewed as high stakes. Alderson and Hamp Lyons (1996) note in their study that while extra time is given to TOEFL classes in some institutions this is not the case in others.

The findings of Read and Hayes (2003) are quite detailed and show variations in washback on the curriculum depending on the course observed. Pierce (1992, p. 687) specifies classroom pedagogy, curriculum development, and educational policy as the areas where washback has an effect. On the other hand, Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) take a view of washback which concentrated more on the effect of the test on teaching. They have referred to washback as "... the influence that writers of language testing, syllabus design and language teaching believe a test will have on the teaching that precedes it" (ibid: p. 280). Washback can be seen to have operation on teaching content, preparation for tests like training in test taking strategies, doing exercises of past papers, teaching methods, assessing students, and changing curriculum and materials used. Empirical findings are summarised by flowchart in Figure 2.17 below:

Figure 2.17: Washback effect and the possible factors (Pan, 2009)



Higher Secondary Learners in Bangladesh follow a 'hidden' syllabus (e.g. past questions, guidebooks), that is, the contents driven by the contents of EFL examination. Cohen (1994) describes washback in terms of "how assessment instruments affect educational practices and beliefs" (p. 41). Bailey's (1999) extensive summary of the current research on language testing washback highlights various perspectives and provides deeper insight into the complexity of this phenomenon. But today, a new perspective (and a new education buzz phrase) is emerging. It's called curriculum alignment, and it means teaching knowledge and skills that are assessed by tests designed largely around academic standards set by the state. In other words, teaching to the test. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons summarise some typical concerns regarding negative washback to the curriculum (1996, p. 28):

1. Narrowing of the curriculum (Madaus, 1988; Cooley, 1991)
2. Lost instructional time (Smith et al., 1989)
3. Reduced emphasis on skills that require complex thinking or problem-solving (Fredericksen, 1984; Darling-Hammond and Wise, 1985)
4. Test score 'pollution', or increases in test scores without an accompanying rise in ability in the construct being tested (Haladyna, Nolan and Haas, 1991)

Spolsky (1994, p. 55) define backwash as a "term better applied only to accidental side-effects of examinations, and not to those effects intended when the first purpose of the examination is control of the curriculum", and spoke of the "...inevitable outcome in narrowing the educational process..." (ibid.). He uses vocabulary tests to illustrate what he calls the 'crux of the backwash problem'. While vocabulary tests may be a quick measure of language proficiency, once they are established as the only form of assessment, the backwash to instruction resulted in the tests becoming a measure of vocabulary learning rather than language proficiency. Negative washback occurs when the test items are based on an outdated view of language, which bears little relationship to the teaching curriculum (ibid.).

Similarly, Wall and Alderson (1993) reason that if the aims, activities, or marking criteria of the textbook and the exam contain no conflicts and the teachers

accept and work towards these goals, then this is a form of positive washback. Negative washback would be evidenced in the exam having a distorting or restraining influence on what is being taught and how. Alderson and Banerjee (2001) acknowledge that tests have the potential to be 'levers for change' in education if one accepts the argument that if bad tests have a negative impact then it should be possible for a good test to have good washback.

#### **2.6.1.4 Teaching to the Test**

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.

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.

#### **2.6.2 Washback on Teaching Methodology**

By teaching methods the present researcher refers to teaching approaches or techniques. The findings on this area are once again not homogeneous. While Alderson and Wall (1993, p. 127) says that their Sri Lanka study showed the exam

'had virtually no impact on the way that teachers teach'. Andrews et al. (2002) point out that the revised exam led to teachers' use of explanation of techniques for engaging in certain exam tasks.

Cheng (1997) mentions that teaching methods may remain unchanged even though activities change as a result of the revision of an exam; in this case reading aloud was replaced by role plays but both were taught through drilling (p, 52). The high-stakes EFL examination leads teachers to teach through simulating the examination tasks or through carrying out other activities that directly aim at developing exam skills or strategies (e.g., brainstorming, working in pairs or in groups, jigsaw activities, simulating authentic situations, engaging in debates, discussions, speeches, etc.). Watanabe's findings for this area are once again different. He reports that the teachers in his study 'claimed that they deliberately avoided referring to test taking techniques, since they believed that actual English skills would lead to students' passing the exam' (2000, p. 45).

Some of the studies indicate that the methods used to teach towards exams vary from teacher to teacher. Alderson and Hamp Lyons (1996), and by Watanabe (1996) find large differences in the way teachers teach towards the same exam or exam skill, with some adopting much more overt 'teaching to the test', 'textbook slave' approaches, while others adopted more creative and independent approaches (p, 292). The researchers in both these studies stress that the variable may be not so much the exam or exam skill as the teacher him=herself. They go on to discuss various teacher-related factors that may affect why and how a teacher works towards an exam. Teacher attitude towards an exam would seem to play an important role in determining the choice of methods used to teach exam classes. There has been a perception that washback affects teaching content and teaching methods. It seems to be true in some circumstances but not others, suggesting that whether the exam affects methods or not may also depend on factors other than the exam itself, such as the individual teacher. Other findings on teaching methods relate to interaction in the classroom.

Alderson and Hamp Lyons (1996) note in their investigation of TOEFL teaching that the exam classes spend much less time on pair work, that teachers talk more and students less, that there is less turn taking, and the turns are somewhat longer. Watanabe (2004) notes that 'students rarely asked questions even during

exam preparation lessons'. Cheng (1998) points out that while teachers talk less to the whole class as a result of the revised exam, the teacher talking to the whole class remains the dominant mode of interaction.

It is seen that examination oriented materials are heavily used in classrooms particularly when the examination approaches. However, it is not clear from the studies that it is the exam that generates less interaction in exam classes, or whether this is due to teachers believing, for whatever reason, that this is the way exams should be prepared for. The type and amount of washback on teaching methods appears to vary from context to context and teacher to teacher. It varies from no reported washback to considerable washback. The variable in these differences appears to be not so much the examination itself as the teacher.

### **2.6.3 Washback on Teacher Factors**

Teacher perception, teacher attitudes and teacher beliefs are often mentioned in the washback studies as powerful factors. Among the factors that can mediate the washback effect is the teacher (Wall, 1996) and her/his perceptions about the examination, its nature, purposes, relevance in the context, etc. What have been noted in the results are the behaviors of teachers in response to examination changes. However, as Shavelson and Stern (1981) argue, examining only teacher behavior is incomplete. There is a need to examine the link between teacher intentions or beliefs and how this translates into action (Tsui, 2003; Woods, 1996). By doing so, predictable variations in teachers' behaviour that result from differences in goals, judgments and decisions can be better accounted for. According to Shulman (1986, 1987) research that links teachers' intentions to their behaviour provide a sound basis for educating teachers and implementing educational innovations.

It is argued that the dictates of high-stakes tests reduce the professional knowledge and status of teachers and exercise a great deal of pressure on them to improve test scores which eventually makes teachers experience negative feelings of shame, embarrassment, guilt, anxiety and anger. Green (2006, 2007) starts to examine this facet of washback. Johnson (1992), Sato and Kleinsasser (1999), Tan (2008), Turner (2006, 2008) and Wang (2008) have showed that teacher factors influence teaching practices in the classroom. Teacher beliefs are consistent with

their prior experience and instructional approaches. There is, therefore, an increasing realisation in the field of assessment that the “teacher factor” is fundamental to the kind of washback effect that takes place in the classroom.

Wall and Alderson (1993) comment the examination has considerable impact on the content of English lessons and on the way teachers designed their classroom tests (some of this was positive and some negative), but it has little to no impact on the methodology they used in the classroom or on the way they marked their pupils' test performance. Among many important results of the Sri Lankan impact study, Wall and Alderson make the following summary statements about the impact of the new Sri Lankan texts and tests on the teachers (ibid., p. 67):

1. A considerable number of teachers do not understand the philosophy/approach of the textbook. Many have not received adequate training and do not find that the *Teacher's Guides* on their own give enough guidance.
2. Many teachers are unable, or feel unable, to implement the recommended methodology. They either lack the skills or feel factors in their teaching situation prevent them from teaching the way they understood they should.
3. Many teachers are not aware of the nature of the exam- what is really being tested. They may never have received the official exam support documents or attended training sessions that would explain the skills students need to succeed at various exam tasks.
4. All teachers seem willing to go along with the demands of the exam (if only they knew what they were).
5. Many teachers are unable, or feel unable, to prepare their students for everything that might appear on the exam.

Watanabe (2004a) finds that the presence of grammar translation questions on a particular university entrance exam did not influence these two teachers in the same way. He has identified three possible factors that might promote or inhibit washback to the teachers: (1) the teachers' educational background and/or experiences; (2) differences in teachers' beliefs about effective teaching methods; and (3) the timing of the researcher's observations. (Teacher A was observed when the exams for which the students were preparing were six months away, while Teacher B was teaching exam-preparation classes just a month or so before the

entrance examinations would occur.) Thus Watanabe concludes that "teacher factors may outweigh the influence of an examination" (ibid., p. 331) in terms of how exam preparation courses are actually taught.

Tests can aid learning and teaching both if aimed to assess the required skills. Many researches 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; Saif, 2006; 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 (2006, 2007) and Hayes & Read (2003,2004) find 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 (Qi, 2005). 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, 1996; Watanabe, 1996; Wang; 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, 2004b; Burrows, 1998; 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.

The findings of the previous studies on teaching show that washback are contradictory in terms of what (content) and how (methodology) teachers teach. This may be attributed to Hawkey’s claim (2006) that “the distinction between course content and methodology is not always clear cut” (p. 106). Nevertheless, researchers (Burrows, 2004; Cheng, 1997; Wall & Alderson, 1993; Watanabe, 1996; Watanabe, 2004b) seem to have reached a consensus on the concept that tests influence what happens in the classroom in terms of teaching activities and content, and that teachers’ beliefs, and educational backgrounds play an important role in deciding how they instruct the students in the class.

#### **2.6.4 Washback on Language Learning**

There is a general understanding that washback is a complex phenomenon. Many researchers call for empirical studies to explore the concept further. It is encouraging to note that more and more researchers have expanded to look at issues of context in order to capture the complexity of the washback phenomenon (Cheng, 2001; Cheng, 2004; Davison, 2008; Qi, 2005; Shohamy, 1993; Hamp-Lyons and Tavares, 2008; Turner 2008, 2009; Urmston & Fang, 2008; Wall, 1999; Watanabe, 1996, 2004b). It is obvious that the washback phenomenon has been examined much more seriously, both theoretically and empirically. In comparison to washback studies in other areas, fewer researches have been conducted to investigate the washback effects on students’ learning processes. Watanabe (2004) states, “relatively well explored is the area of washback to the program, while less emphasis has been given to learners” (p. 22). Those studies that have been focused on learning washback received varied and sometimes contradictory findings.

Shohamy et al. (1996) contend that an important test promotes learning, while Cheng (1998) shares a similar finding by saying that tests motivated students to learn but that their learning strategies did not change significantly from one test to another. The recent study, Stoneman (2006) investigates how students prepare for an exit examination in Hong Kong. The results show that students are motivated more and spent more time in preparing for higher-status examination (IELTS) than the lower-status test (GSLAP), but preparation methods are much the same. Wall and Alderson (1993) suggest that future washback studies should investigate how tests affect students' motivation and performance. Wall (2000) contends, "What is missing ... are analyses of test results which indicate whether students have learnt more or learned better because they have studied for a particular test" (p. 502). To better understand what washback occurs within the classroom, researchers need to investigate changes in students' motivations, learning styles, and learning strategies (Stoneman, 2006).

### **2.6.5 Washback on Test Takers**

The learners are the key participants whose lives are most directly influenced by language testing washback. The washback influences the test takers directly by affecting language learning (or non-learning), while the influences on other stakeholders will affect efforts to promote language learning. The test-takers themselves can be affected by: the experience of taking and, in some cases, of preparing for the test; the feedback they receive about their performance on the test; and; the decisions that may be made about them on the basis of the test. Of the 15-washback hypotheses of Alderson and Wall's (1993, pp. 120-121), five are directly addressed learner washback. Bailey (1996) suggests students face with an important test they may participate in (but are not limited to) the following processes:

1. Practicing items similar in format to those on the test.
2. Studying vocabulary and grammar rules.
3. Participating in interactive language practice (e.g., target language conversations).
4. Reading widely in the target language.
5. Listening to non-interactive language (radio, television, practice tapes, etc.).

6. Applying test-taking strategies.
7. Enrolling in test-preparation courses.
8. Requesting guidance in their studying and feedback on their performance.
9. Requesting or demanding unscheduled tutorials or test-preparation classes (in addition to or in lieu of other language classes).
10. Skipping language classes to study for the test. (pp. 264-265)

Learner washback has also important financial implications for pupils and their families, in terms of their access to educational opportunities. For example, Wall and Alderson examined a context in which a new national test was implemented, this time the O-level exams administered at the end of the 11th year of education in Sri Lanka. These authors report, "a student's O-level grades, particularly in English, are among the most important in his or her academic career" (1993, p. 42). Washback may affect learners' actions and/or their perceptions, and such perceptions may have wide ranging consequences. Sturman used a combination of qualitative and quantitative data to investigate students' reactions to registration and placement procedures at two English-language schools in Japan. The placement procedures included a written test and an interview. He found that the students' perceptions of the accuracy of the placement.

### **2.6.6 Washback on Materials**

The term 'material' is used here to refer to the prescribed textbooks, guidebooks and past question papers. Examination-related textbooks and other materials can vary in their type of contents. Very often, tests promote a boom of test related materials, and thus, influence what teachers teach in the classroom, but tests may also encourage teachers to use additional materials from a variety of sources. They range on the one hand from materials that are highly exam technique oriented, and make heavy use of parallel exam forms, to those on the other hand that attempt to develop relevant language skills and language. A teacher's choice of materials relies on a number of factors such as the purpose of the test and the availability of ready-made materials. Generally, the studies refer particularly to those materials at the 'highly exam oriented' end of the spectrum.

A large number of studies discuss washback on materials in terms of materials production, the use of materials, student and teachers' views of exam materials, and the content of materials. Most teachers know from their own experience of the rows of exam-related materials available on the shelves of bookshops and staff rooms, and of the new editions of course books and other exam materials that are issued when exams are revised. They find that in relation to the EFL exam 'ample new material has been published and marketed since the announcement of the test changes became public.

Teachers' use of materials seems to vary to large extent. Lam (1994) speaks of teachers as 'textbook slaves' and 'exam slaves' (p.91). He finds that large numbers of teachers rely heavily on the textbook in exam classes, and more heavily on past papers. Lam (1994) also reports that teachers do this, as they believe that the best way to prepare students for exams is by doing past papers. Andrews, et al. (2002) speak of the large role played by published materials in the Hong Kong classroom, citing a previous study by Andrews (1995) in which the teacher respondents were found to spend an estimated two-thirds of class time working on exam-related published materials. Cheng (1997) suggests that a reason for this may be that the exam textbooks in Hong Kong not only provide information and activities but also suggested methods for teaching and suggested time allocations.

The researchers such as Fullilove (1992), Xiaoju (1992), Wall and Alderson (1993), Lam (1994) and Cheng (1997) suggest that test requirements may promote test-related materials, and that these materials affect what teachers instruct because they tend to utilize textbooks to assist their students. However, some studies (e.g. Hawkey, 2006), indicate that tests may encourage teachers to develop multiple materials rather than solely depending on textbooks. Wall and Alderson's (1993) Sri Lankan study states that a large group of teachers "believe they have to follow the textbook faithfully because the exam may test any of the content therein" (p. 63). Cheng's (1997) HKCEE (Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination) and Fullilove's (1992, cited in Bailey, 1999) RUE studies reveal the booming market for publishing test-related materials. All these studies similarly find that most teachers heavily depend on textbooks.

Andrews, et al. (2002) also speak of the large role played by published materials in the Hong Kong classroom, citing a previous study by Andrews (1995)

in which the teacher respondents were found to spend an estimated two-thirds of class time working on exam-related published materials. Cheng suggests that a reason for this may be that the exam textbooks in Hong Kong not only provide information and activities but also suggested methods for teaching and suggested time allocations (1997). Read and Hayes (2003) note that in 90% of cases in their New Zealand IELTS study, exam preparation books were usually employed. One feature that the three Hong Kong studies have in common is that they investigate teachers' practices shortly after the introduction of revisions to a major exam. It would be interesting to see if similar findings emerged from a study conducted once the exam's contents and standards had become familiar to teachers; that is, how much were these results a fruit of uncertainty about the exam on the teachers' part? Alderson and Hamp Lyons (1996) indicate that at least in the situation they investigated, however, familiarity with the exam was not a variable, with many of the teachers, independently of their amount of experience of teaching towards the exam, making heavy use of exam materials. They suggest that one reason why teachers did this was that their negative attitude towards the exam discouraged them from creating their own materials.

Xiao (2002), on the other hand, has discovered that the test encourages the use of new textbooks and innovative teaching materials. Shohamy (1993) recounts a study that examined the impact of an Arabic test and found that it inspired the publication of new textbooks, which "have become, de facto, the new curriculum" (p. 10). However, Hawkey (2006), in his study of the impact on the Progeto Lingue (2000), shows that curricula designed to match the objectives of tests for Cambridge exams like KET, PET, and FCE, which emphasize communicative language approaches, may tend to encourage teachers to use additional materials instead of solely textbooks, from a variety of sources such as "cut-out photographs, self-designed spider games, information gap hand-outs, audio-cassettes, (and) wall charts" (p. 143).

Tests that emphasize a communicative approach, such as the HSC often elicit a heavy reliance on test-related materials by teachers. Progeto Lingue (2000) highlights a communicative approach, encourages the use of supplemental materials. This may be attributed to the purpose of test use. RUE and HKCEE are both high stakes and play a vital role in deciding students' academic futures. Because of this,

teachers devote more attention to assisting students to achieve high scores rather than learn real communication skills. It may be, then, that in the viewpoint of teachers, using test-related materials can assist them in doing their jobs better in terms of helping students receive better scores. Tests promote a boom of test related materials and thus influence what teachers teach in the classroom, but tests may also encourage teachers to use additional materials from a variety of sources. A teacher's choice of materials relies on a number of factors such as the purpose of the test and the availability of ready-made materials.

### **2.6.7 Washback on Lesson Contents**

Learners follow a 'hidden' syllabus, that is, the contents driven by the contents of EFL examination. Many teachers, however, consistently skip over the listening lessons in their textbooks, because they know that listening will not be tested in the examination. A group teachers may 'do listening', but in a way that does not resemble the textbook designers' intentions. A few teachers cover the listening lessons if the type of question that students have to answer resembles an item type that might appear in the examination for reading. Most teachers in Bangladesh, particularly the higher secondary English school teachers, also admit they are influenced by the power of the public examinations. Thus, the status of their course is established by the importance of the teaching contents reflected on the entrance examinations.

There seems to be something of a mismatch between the attitudes of the teachers towards the contents of the learning package, and those of the students. The teachers clearly see the potential of the materials as a teaching package, containing relevant and worthwhile teaching activities, including but extending beyond test preparation. The students, on the other hand, are above all concerned with familiarising themselves with the format of the test, and seemed to be relatively little concerned with the learning strategies proposed, and the broader suggestions for improving performance.

In general, students demonstrate relatively little interest in the idea of using test preparation as an opportunity for language learning. 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, 126-27). This effect was 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 reports an emphasis in teaching on those parts of the exam carrying the most marks.

### **2.6.8 Washback on Learning Outcomes**

Teaching to the test and test taking strategies might increase students' scores, but the score gains are not always statistically significant. Moreover, class instruction of exam-specific strategies and non-class instruction factors such as students' initial proficiency, personality, motivation, confidence, and exposure of environment all possibly contribute to a score gain. A test itself does not lead to various aspects of the perceived effects. It is rather mediating factors such as teachers' beliefs and educational backgrounds, students' individual differences (e.g. motivation, English proficiency), and purpose of test use that play essential roles in causing test effects.

It has been demonstrated that a test can result in all desired changes in teaching and learning. Wesche (1983), points out that when tests reflect the situations, content and purpose where learners will use the language, they are likely to improve motivation. Education is a complex phenomenon and there are many factors involved in bringing about changes, like the school environment, messages from administration, expectations of teachers and students, for example. Saif (2000) argues that an analysis of the needs and objectives of learners and educational systems should be carried out as a starting point for the research in washback.

Wesdorp (1982) finds there is no difference in students' writing in quality before and after the introduction of multiple-choice tests. Hughes (1988) reports that at a Turkish university, students' performance on the Michigan Test (a measure of English proficiency) increases after the introduction of a new test along with additional summer courses in English. Andrews et al. (2002) investigate the score comparisons that students receive on the UE (Use of English) oral exam in Hong Kong from 1993 to 1995. Students' scores have increased, but the score gain is not statistically significant. They claim that students' improved proficiency might have something to do with their "familiarization with the exam format, the rote-learning of exam specific strategies and formulaic phrases" (p. 220).

Elder and O'Loughlin (2003) examine the relationship between intensive English language study and band score gains on the IELTS and find there are great gains in listening, but no significant progress in reading skills. In Elder and O'Loughlin's study, a range of factors are linked to improving scores on tests, such as personality, motivation, confidence and exposure. Green (2006, 2007) finds students' initial scores instead of course length is a strong predictor of IELTS writing test score gain. In this sense, students' original proficiency plays a more important role in the resulting score gain than the time they spend in the test-preparatory course. Score gain washback, as concluded from the foregoing discussion, is a complicated issue. It is difficult to detect what causes or does not cause it. Further research needs to be conducted to determine whether students have made progress because the test motivates them to study harder or if other factors such as their original proficiency, personality, motivation, and exposure have more weight in explaining the outcome.

### **2.6.9. Strategies for Washback**

It is seen that washback effects, on the one hand, may have potential for education, but on the other hand, may induce unexpected problems. The question is how to promote the intended washback of a test and minimise the possible counter productive reactions:

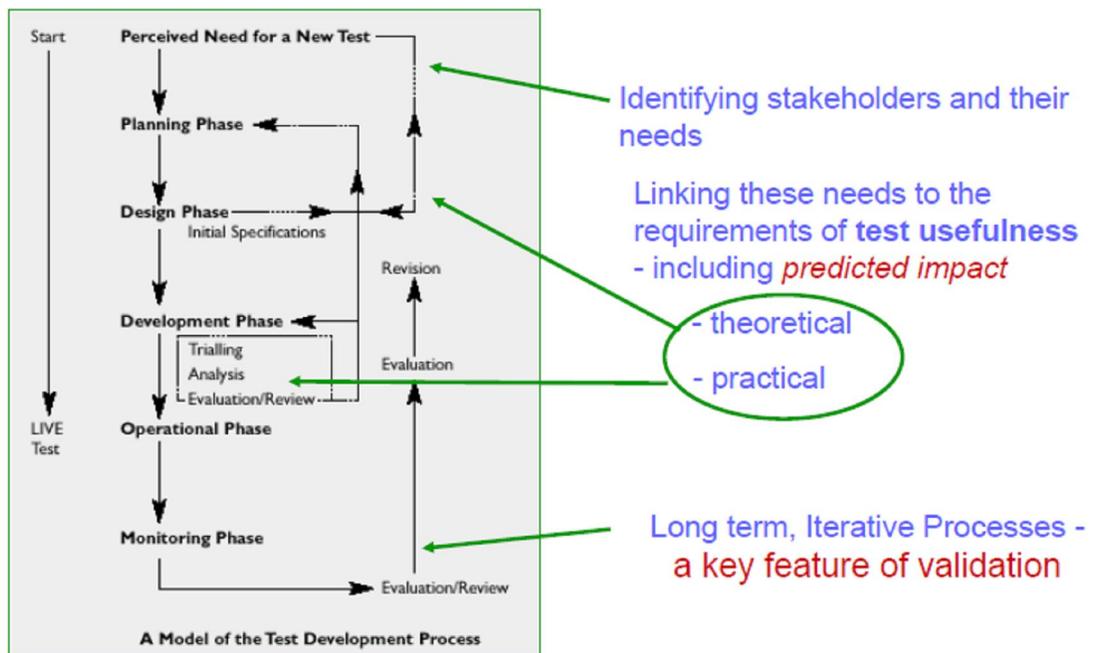
*Firstly*, the test must accurately reflect course objectives and the principles of mastering the knowledge need. This will lead teachers and learners to appropriate teaching and learning styles and enable beneficial washback to operate. If the test is at variance with the course objectives, it will require teachers to focus their teaching on the test alone and cause harmful washback.

*Secondly*, teachers, administrators and others involved should be trained and provided with information concerning the test, such as the aims, item type, scoring systems, specimen papers, etc. Competence and familiarity will help teachers and administrators to work properly toward the test, and limit misuse of test and its results. Next, test consequences play an important role in enabling either beneficial or harmful washback to operate. The more profound the consequence, the greater washback effect is. Educational settings would help to balance beneficial and

harmful washback in reducing test pressure toward teachers and students by appropriate continuous assessment.

*Additionally*, parents or the public should be informed of the nature and the use of the test, as some political and social uses of test scores might induce unexpected harmful stresses on schools, teachers, and students (Smith, 1991). Furthermore, apart from the test itself there are many factors within a society, particularly the educational environment with its typical conditions all influence the behaviours of teachers and students. Nevertheless, to what extent these factors operate much depend on how they interact with each other in a specific circumstance. Although these factors and the test are interacted in a complex way, the following model (Figure 2.18) can be built to describe the interrelationship that enhances washback effects on teachers and students.

Figure 2.18: A model of the test development process (Saville, 2008)



Although precise descriptions of how tests have been reformed to promote washback are often lacking (Cheng, 2005; Wall, 2005), Hughes (2003) devotes a chapter to achieving beneficial washback. Brown (2000) summarises suggestions for the promotion of positive washback from Hughes (2003), Heyneman and Ransom (1990), Shohamy (1992), Kellaghan and Greaney (1992), Bailey (1996), and Wall (1996). Brown (2002) categorises these prescriptions as test design strategies, test

content strategies, logistical strategies and interpretation strategies. In the following outline, the present researcher attempts to summarize and organize the strategies proposed in the literature into four different categories that language educators can use to promote positive washback: test design strategies, test content strategies, logistical strategies, and interpretation strategies.

### **2.6.9.1 Test Design Strategies**

A number of features of test design may be manipulated in efforts to improve instruction. These include item format (multiple-choice, short-answer question, extended response etc.), content (topics and skills), level of knowledge called for (retention, understanding or use), complexity (the number of content areas and their interrelationship), difficulty (easy or challenging), and discrimination (in terms of set standards of performance), referential source (criterion-referenced or norm-referenced), purpose (learner performance, curriculum evaluation, teacher evaluation) and type of items (proficiency, achievement or aptitude). Some specific strategies for designing a test to promote beneficial washback are:

1. sampling widely and unpredictably (Hughes, 1989),
2. designing tests to be criterion-referenced (Hughes, 1989; Wall, 1996),
3. designing the test to measure what the programs intend to teach (Bailey, 1996),
4. basing the test on sound theoretical principles (Bailey, 1996),
5. basing achievement tests on objectives (Hughes, 1989),
6. using direct testing (Hughes, 1989; Wall, 1996), and
7. fostering learner autonomy and self-assessment (Bailey, 1996).

### **2.6.9.2 Test Content Strategies**

A number of researchers (e.g. Hughes, 1989; Heyneman and Ransom, 1990; Bailey, 1996) have suggested some test content strategies to balance beneficial and harmful washback in reducing test pressure toward teachers and students by appropriate continuous assessment:

1. testing the abilities whose development you want to encourage (Hughes, 1989)
2. using more open-ended items (as opposed to selected-response items like multiple choice) (Heyneman and Ransom, 1990)
3. making examinations reflect the full curriculum, not merely a limited aspect of it (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992)
4. assessing higher-order cognitive skills to ensure they are taught (Heyneman and Ransom, 1990; Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992)
5. using a variety of examination formats, including written, oral, aural, and practical (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992)
6. not limiting skills to be tested to academic areas (they should also relate to out-of-school tasks) (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992), and
7. using authentic tasks and texts (Bailey, 1996; Wall, 1996).

### **2.6.9.3 Logistical Strategies**

The outcome of test use involves the collaborative efforts made by various stakeholders such as teachers, students, policy-makers and test-developers. Some logistical strategies as suggested by researchers are:

1. insuring that test-takers, teachers, administrators, curriculum designers understand the purpose of the test (Bailey, 1996; Hughes, 1989)
2. making sure language learning goals are clear (Bailey, 1996)
3. where necessary, providing assistance to teachers to help them understand the tests (Hughes, 1989)
4. providing feedback to teachers and others so that meaningful change can be effected (Heyneman and Ransom, 1990; Shohamy, 1992)
5. providing detailed and timely feedback to schools on levels of pupils' performance and areas of difficulty in public examinations (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992)
6. making sure teachers and administrators are involved in different phases of the testing process because they are the people who will have to make changes (Shohamy, 1992)
7. providing detailed score reporting (Bailey, 1996)

#### 2.6.9.4 Interpretation Strategies

Hughes (1989), Heyneman and Ransom (1990), Shohamy (1992), Kellaghan and Greaney (1992), Bailey (1996), and Wall (1996) all have provided lists of strategies for using the washback effect to positively influence language teaching. For more extensive discussion of these lists (Brown, 1997, 2000) some of the interpretation strategies are listed below:

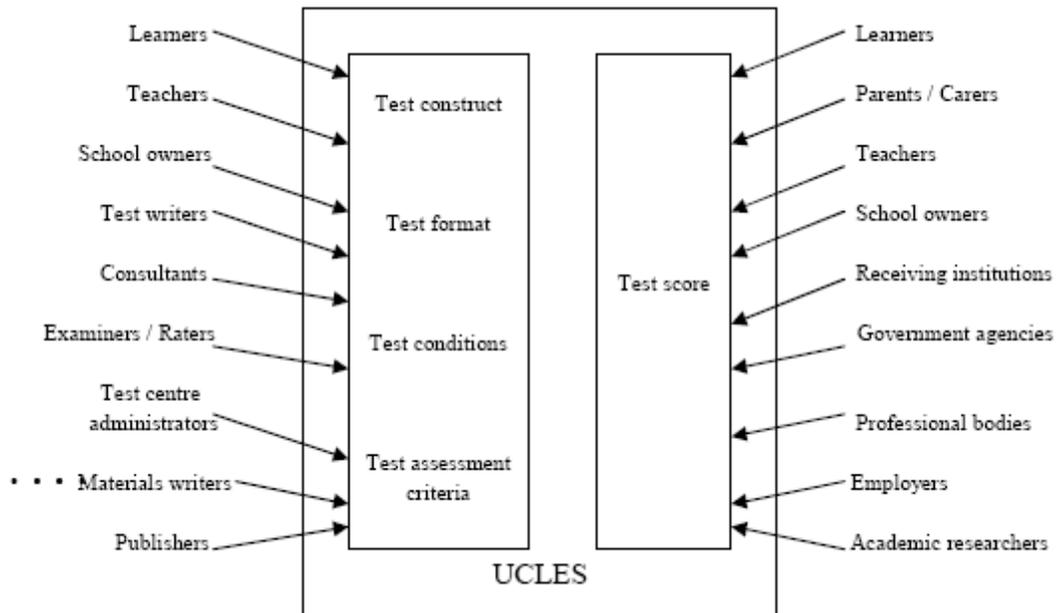
1. making sure exam results are believable, credible, and fair to test takers and score users (Bailey, 1996),
2. considering factors other than teaching effort in evaluating published examination results and national rankings (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992),
3. conducting predictive validity studies of public examinations (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992),
4. improving the professional competence of examination authorities, especially in test design (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992),
5. insuring that each examination board has a research capacity (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992),
6. having testing authorities work closely with curriculum organizations and with educational administrators (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992), and
7. developing regional professional networks to initiate exchange programs and to share common interests and concerns (Kellaghan and Greaney, 1992).

Test design and content strategies are more closely identified with washback direction, while logistical issues are more closely identified with washback intensity. Interpretation strategies may be viewed as indirect, policy-level means of ensuring standards of test design and logistical provision while the test design and content strategies relate most closely to Chapman and Snyder's (2000) test description categories of format, content, complexity and referential source. The Communicative approach to EFL teaching and learning has become increasingly accepted in schools and colleges in Bangladesh in recent years. A great deal of time and energy has been expended in developing materials and techniques to help achieve what has been termed *Communicative Competence*. Communicative language testing is intended to provide the tester with information about the testee's ability to perform in the target language in certain context-specific tasks. Strategies of language testing should be designed in such a manner that it can generate positive washback on language learning.

## 2.6.10 Washback Stakeholders

Washback is the result of a partnership between all *direct and indirect* participants whose relationships involve a constant multi-directional interplay. It has long been believed that tests directly influence educational processes in various ways. One common assumption is that teachers will be influenced by the knowledge that their students are planning to take a certain test and will adapt their teaching methodology and lesson content to reflect the test's demands. The term 'backwash' has been used to refer to the way a test affects teaching materials and classroom management (Hughes 1989), although within the applied linguistics and language testing community the term 'washback' is more widely used today (Weir 1990; Alderson and Wall 1993; Alderson 2004). Taylor (2000, p. 2), building upon a model proposed by Rea-Dickins (1997) identified at least 5 stakeholder categories: learners, teachers, parents, government and official bodies, and the marketplace, offers a more detailed conceptualisation in order to illustrate the wider societal effects of a test (i.e. test impact). Figure 2.19 illustrates how different stakeholders are involved in testing and tests scores:

Figure 2.19: Stakeholders in the testing community (UCLES, 2009)



The above model provides a useful illustration of the fact that a test can have impact upon the various stakeholders involved, at different points in the testing process: Some of the stakeholders listed above (e.g. examiners and materials writers) are likely to have more interest in the 'front end' of a test, i.e. the test assessment criteria or test format. Others may see their stake as being primarily concerned with the test score. Some stakeholders, such as learners and teachers, will naturally have an interest in all aspects of the test.

As Pearson (1988) remarks, 'There is an explicit intention to use tests, including public examinations, as levers which will persuade teachers and learners to pay serious attention to communicative skills and to teaching learning activities that are more likely to be helpful in the development of such skills.' (p, 33). The past ten years have seen a growing awareness that testing can have consequences beyond just the classroom. Tests and test results have a significant impact on the career or life chances of individual test takers (e.g. access to educational/employment opportunities). They also impact on educational systems and on society more widely: for example, test results are used to make decisions about school curriculum planning, immigration policy, or professional registration for doctors; and the growth of a test may lead publishers and institutions to produce test preparation materials and run test preparation courses. The term 'impact' is generally used to describe these consequences of tests (Bachman 1990; Bachman and Palmer 1996). Some language testers consider washback as one dimension of impact, describing effects on the educational context (Hamp-Lyons 1997); others see washback and impact as separate concepts relating respectively to 'micro' and 'macro' effects within society.

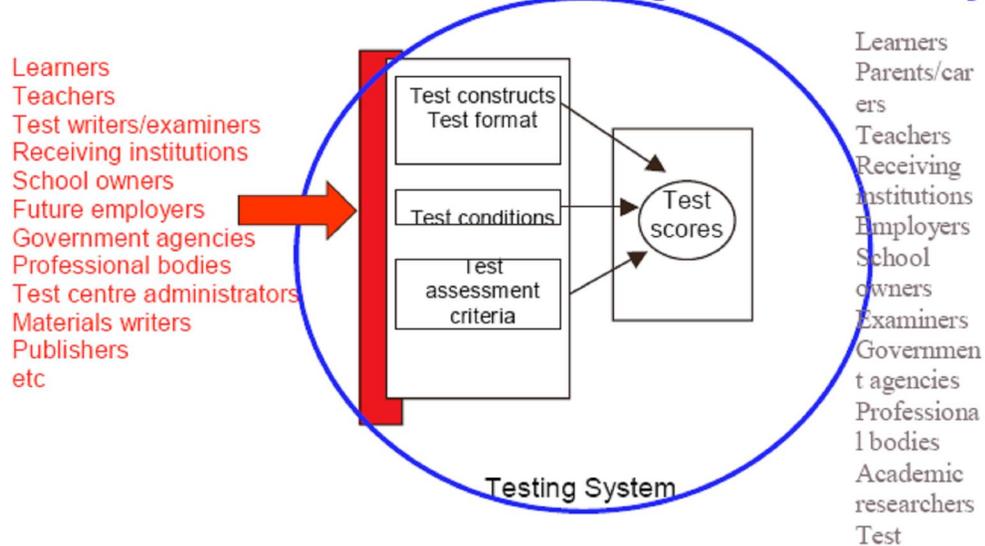
It is worth mentioning fact that a test can have impact upon the various stakeholders involved, at different points in the testing process. Some of the stakeholders, e.g. examiners and materials writers are likely to have more interest in the 'front end' of a test, i.e. the test assessment criteria or test format. Others may see their stake as being primarily concerned with the test score. Some stakeholders, such as learners and teachers, will naturally have an interest in all aspects of the test.

Taylor (2000) offers a detailed conceptualisation in order to illustrate the wider societal effects of a test, building upon a washback model proposed by Rea-Dickins. Testing tends to induce consequences for its stakeholders. It is well known

in the field of education that there is a set of relationships, intended and unintended, positive and negative, between testing, teaching and learning. Impact refers to the effects that a test may have on individuals, policies or practices, within the classroom, the school, the educational system or society as a whole. Washback (also known as backwash) refers more frequently to the effects of tests on teaching and learning. Primarily, the effects of testing have been associated with test validity (consequential validity) and with test scores and score-based inferences to test use and the consequences of test use. Figure 2.20 displays the relations of stakeholders to testing and test scores:

Figure 2.20: Saville’s stakeholders of macro-level washback (2008)

## Stakeholders in the testing constituency



This presentation (Figure 2.20) will focus on first delineating impact, washback and consequences of large-scale testing and then report a series of empirical studies to illustrate the methodology used to research such a phenomenon in education. Washback research on other participants influenced by program washback is less widely developed than the research on washback effects on language learners and teachers. It is found that teachers are the most frequently studied participants in washback processes. However, many other people are also involved in language testing washback. The comparative dearth of empirical findings on students suggests that research is needed about how tests actually influence language learners' behavior and attitudes.

The research on other parties who try to create, or are influenced by, program washback is less widely developed than the research on language learners and teachers. The other participants can include test developers (Andrews, 1994b; Andrews & Fullilove, 1994), teacher educators and curriculum planners (Andrews & Fullilove, 1994), teacher advisors (Wall & Alderson, 1993), principals and other administrators (Fullilove, 1992; Hughes, 1993; Shohamy, 1993b; Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Ferman, 1996), language inspectors (Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Ferman, 1996), end-users (Andrews & Fullilove, 1994), materials developers and publishers (Cheng, 1997; Hughes, 1993), and even parents (Andrews, 1994a; Cheng, 1997; Fullilove, 1992; Ingulsrud, 1994; Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Ferman, 1996).

A repeated theme found in the literature on these other participants, particularly test designers and policy makers, is the dynamic tension between (1) the intended positive washback in implementing new or revised exams and (2) how that impact is realized in classroom practices. Andrews and Fullilove (1994, pp. 57-58) assert that in cases where new or revised tests have a negative washback effect, the reforms in language teaching proposed by teacher educators and curriculum planners have been undermined by the conflicting message implicit in the tests, especially in those countries where examinations are highly important and yet where the examination format has been particularly resistant to change.

The data in their study included structured interviews with teachers and with inspectors of ASL (*ibid.*, p. 302). The authors found in their interviews that the inspectors were aware of high test anxiety (among both teachers and students) in previous years' tests, but that the test anxiety had decreased and that some teachers did not even administer the test. Others treated it as a quiz that required no preparation. However, Shohamy et al. stated the inspectors felt that it is essential that the test continue to be administered as they believe that there would be a major and significant drop in the level of Arabic proficiency in the country were the test to be cancelled. Moreover, the Inspectorate claims that there would be a decrease in the number of students studying Arabic since the test promotes the status of Arabic as perceived by teachers, students and parents. (*ibid.*). This finding illustrates the disparate views held by the inspectors, on the one hand, and the students and teachers of Arabic on the other.

When Shohamy et al. (1996) interviewed the inspectors associated with the high-stakes EFL exam, they found that "the Inspectors claim that the introduction of the oral test has had a very positive educational impact and the washback on teaching has been tremendous" (ibid., p. 312). The inspectors also feel that the test has successfully promoted learning, particularly of oral skills. They believe that "were the oral exam to be cancelled, teachers would cease teaching oral proficiency" (ibid.). In other words, in both cases, the inspectors of the Arabic and English exams see their respective tests as "necessary, important and effective" (ibid., p. 313).

However, Shohamy et al. point out that this position "is in contrast to how teachers and students perceive the test" (ibid.) and that in general "unlike teachers and students, the bureaucrats portray a much more positive picture" (ibid.). Another set of participants who may be influenced by or try to utilize washback is the "end-users"- that is, people who, in the future of the language learners, will in some way benefit from their target language proficiency. (In the English for Specific Purposes [ESP] literature, the students' future employers are often the end-users.). In this case the tertiary institutions may be seen as the "end-users" who have a stake in the product of secondary school English teaching- that is, the future university students' ability to use oral English.

Finally, parents are occasionally included in research on washback phenomena. Andrews (1994a) notes that there is "widespread acceptance of the assertion that tests, especially public examinations, exert an influence on teachers, learners and parents (p. 45). Anxious parents take their tiny 'scholars' to pre-kindergarten interviews to gain admission to choice places even on this lowest rung of the educational ladder. However, there is relatively little research that documents the parents' own perceptions of language testing washback. The studies that document parents' ideas typically do so through the students' perspective. However, many other people are also involved in language testing washback. The comparative dearth of empirical findings on students suggests that more research is needed about how tests actually influence second language learners' behavior and attitudes.

## **2.7 Implication of the Theoretical Perspectives for Washback Study**

The theoretical perspectives as well as the research evidence presented above cast new light on the recurring themes that have been previously discussed. The framework will help future researchers and other readers conceptualize the whole teaching process. It is beyond doubt that Woods (1996) as well others (Ernest, 1989; Fang, 1996; Nunan, 1999; Reagan & Osborn, 2002; Richards, 2008; Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992, 2001; Shulman, 1987; Thompson, 1992; Williams & Burden, 1997; Yates & Muchisky, 2003) has a wide range of implications for our understanding of the role of the different factors in washback. Not only do they provide researchers and readers with a comprehensive understanding of the complex reality of innovation, but they also offer all a different way of thinking about notions such as teacher beliefs, knowledge, and experience (BKE) and their connection to teaching and learning EFL. Moreover, the interdisciplinary theoretical framework provides me with a broad set of conceptual tools for systematic investigations of teacher thinking and its relationship to teacher classroom practice.

Specifically, this theoretical framework can inform the present study at least from different bases. One example drawn from washback studies to illustrate is that a number of researchers have found it hard to make weighty claims, and thus made only tentative ones. It appears that these researchers may have failed to take into account the developmental characteristic of change. Since the research focus of the majority of studies is short-term, no conclusions can be drawn about long-term washback effects. The theoretical frameworks above have also offered us enlightening insights into how to look at and cope with conflicts, constraints, differences and discrepancies that have emerged from innovation. The implementation of educational reforms, including testing reforms calls for the conceptual change in teachers' pedagogical beliefs, teachers' perspectives interwoven characteristic of teachers' dynamic aspects of teachers' beliefs, assumptions, knowledge, etc.

This, with respect to washback research, can be interpreted to mean that in order for teachers to change their perceptions of tests, they need to change their perceptions of teaching and learning, and their perceptions of language as well, for all these beliefs are intrinsically interwoven. To be specific, teachers' and students' beliefs of tests are likely to correspond to their beliefs of language teaching and

learning. Meanwhile, their beliefs of language teaching and learning are likely to follow their conceptions of what is meant by learning as well as their beliefs what language is. Here, the relationship between beliefs of language teaching and beliefs of language learning is also interactive and interconnected. All these beliefs and attitudes are crucial in the sense that they may not only influence but also affect the way they interpret and react to washback. Such a basis not only helps to clarify the complexity of the innovation process, but also helps to improve further innovation endeavors. Therefore, there is a need to apply these insights to washback research.

It examined the research on washback in language education and general education to clarify and summarise some basic concepts and theoretical perspectives related to the washback phenomenon. It provides a general conceptual framework in an attempt to highlight the overlapping patterns and themes that have emerged through the lens of this framework. It allows the present researcher to document and interpret the washback phenomenon of the HSC examination on the EFL education in Bangladesh

## **2.8 Conclusion**

The theoretical framework discussed above indicates that during the last decade the interest in washback has not only grown, but it has also focused on what forms washback takes, indications of its appearance in specific environments and its influence on participants, processes, and the associated products. The theoretical framework of washback has produced some evidence that it exists. Such research also highlights the complexity of the washback phenomenon and some of the difficulties involved in designing, implementing and interpreting research in this area. There are concerns that the introduction or changes to a test may create a negative washback effect, particularly in the case of high stakes tests such as the HSC examination in EFL in Bangladesh. However, whether the influences of testing on teaching and learning are positive or negative is still debatable and needs to be studied further.

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to clarify the definition, scope, and function of washback for the purpose of this study. Washback is at the heart of the intricate relationship between testing, teaching and learning. It also illustrates the impact and power of tests on teaching and learning in educational contexts. A large number of studies have dealt with the phenomenon of washback from different

perspectives and at multiple levels. There have, however, been few empirical analyses that have investigated how the washback phenomenon actually happens in the classroom. There have been even fewer research studies that have considered washback at both the macro and micro levels, particularly in language education.

Discussions in this chapter have reviewed a number of studies in searching for the meaning and mechanism of the function of washback, including Alderson and Wall's (1993) 15 washback hypotheses, and the models of the mechanism of washback as a phenomenon of change in teaching and learning. These models have helped the current study to determine the nature of washback, and how washback works in educational contexts and they seem particularly appropriate, as the general aim of the present study is to examine and understand the function of washback on teaching and learning English at the HSC level. Together, those models have allowed the present researcher to formulate the central issues that will be explored in the current study. By combining the models, possible washback effects in an area or in a number of areas of teaching and learning affected by tests can be investigated. Accordingly, a study of the effects of washback needs to draw on curriculum and innovation models and explore the phenomenon within a multidimensional context. A working framework for this study has been built on this basis, as presented in Figure 4.1 (Chapter Four). A model of washback will be proposed in order to describe explicitly possible catalysts between assessment and washback effects, based on the findings of the research.

In the light of issues raised in previous studies, it is clear that a study looking at what and how the HSC examination influenced teaching and learning at the HSC level in Bangladesh would need to focus on the following dimensions: what possible areas of English teaching and learning have been affected by the tests; how different levels of stakeholders within the Bangladesh educational system have reacted when washback occurred; defining the interrelationship between who changes what, how, when, where, and why. The chapter has discussed the new meaning of and insights to the research on washback. After the brief introduction provided in Chapter One to the general context of the study, this chapter has presented a broad set of theoretical tools outlined from multiple sources. The next chapter presents a literature review of washback studies on the EFL/ESL teaching, learning and testing. An extensive discussion of studies in other research areas that influence and shape the present study is also highlighted in the following chapter.

## **Chapter Three**

### **Literature Review**

This chapter presents a review of different bodies of literature relevant to the present study. Its purpose is to gain insight into the complex dimensions of washback, and illuminate the vital role that washback plays in ESL and EFL education. That is it contains an overview of the advances in washback research over the past two decades. It focuses on the importance and objectives of literature review; and it finally summarises a number of relevant research studies on different domains of language education that washback affects. Specifically, it draws on ideas from language education, general education, psychology and other innovation research to see whether insights can be gained into the patterns and themes that have recurred in washback research.

### **3.1 Overview of the Advances in Washback Research**

Review of literature surveys dissertations, scholarly articles, books and other sources (e.g. conference proceedings, etc.) relevant to a particular issue, area of research, or theory, providing a description, summary, and critical evaluation of each work. A literature review is a body of text that aims to review the critical points of current knowledge and or methodological approaches on a particular topic. Literature reviews are secondary sources, and as such, do not report any new or original experimental idea. Most often associated with academic-oriented literature, such as theses, a literature review usually precedes a research proposal and results section. It brings the reader up to date with current literature on a topic and forms the basis for another goal, such as future research that may be needed in the area.

A well-structured literature review is characterized by a logical flow of ideas; current and relevant references with consistent, appropriate referencing style; proper use of terminology; and an unbiased and comprehensive view of the previous research on the topic. For the present study, the researcher has collected information from various sources: a good number of books, a number of dissertations and journal articles, and information from internet sources. This chapter incorporates a critical

review of the relevant literature with particular attention on washback definitions, its connection to impact, positive and negative connotations, models of test washback and it presents an overview of some major washback studies.

It is worth mentioning that language testing researchers have embraced the call from Alderson and Wall (1993) for more intensive research on washback. During the last two decades, the researchers have accomplished a substantial volume of research on this topic (e.g. Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Cheng, 1997, 2004; Cheng & Qi, 2006; Green, 2006, 2007; Muñoz & Álvarez, 2010; Qi, 2004, 2007; Saif, 2006; Shih, 2007; Shohamy, 1993; Shohamy et.,1996; Tan, 2008; Turner, 2001, 2005, 2008, 2009; Wall, 1996, 1999; Wall & Alderson, 1993; Wall & Horák, 2008; Watanabe, 2004b). In recent years, researchers have been making significant inroads into investigating this phenomenon in different social and educational contexts. As a result, the definition as well as the nature and scope of washback have been extensively discussed, and a number of different perspectives have emerged in language testing and ELT research areas. The reviews, taken together, constitute a general framework for looking at the research topic in this study.

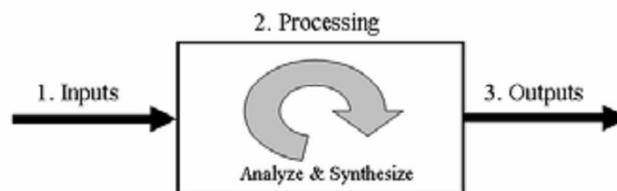
### **3.2 Research on Washback in Applied Linguistics**

Despite the strong link between testing, teaching and learning discussed in the field of education, the assertion that a test influences what teachers and students do in the classroom is often based on anecdotal evidence, and did not receive much attention from researchers until the early 1990s in the field of applied linguistics (Andrews, 2004; Bailey, 1996; Wigglesworth & Elder, 1996; Wall, 2000; Watanabe, 1996). Between 1980 and 1990, little empirical research had been carried out to investigate the washback effect of examinations either in the field of general education or in the field of language education.

Although Alderson (1986) recognises the potential use of language tests as a tool to bring about positive effects on language teaching and learning about two decades ago, it took almost another 10 years for the concept of tests influencing teaching and learning to become an established research topic. McNamara (2000) argues that this is because applied linguistics researchers tend to focus heavily on investigating individuals' language skills and abilities, rather than on the

consequences of tests. Elder and Wigglesworth (1996) also point out that the concept of tests influencing teaching and learning is under-researched probably because the huge number of variables involved have made it very difficult for researchers to identify a causal relationship between the test and what goes on in the classroom.

Figure 3.1: The three stages of effective literature review process (Levy & Ellis, 2006)



Though a good number of washback studies have been carried out during recent years, the washback effect is still to be adequately defined and analysed. While there is consensus that washback incorporates the effects of tests on teaching and learning, researchers have not agreed on what washback is, what it might look like, or how it works. There have only been a limited number of washback studies, and invariably, researchers call for further investigations that would establish what washback is and even whether it exists. This chapter incorporates a critical review of the relevant literature. It also summarises washback related research with emphasis on the washback effects and impact of the test.

The present researcher reviewed only those works that were directly relevant to the present study. The reviewed literature mainly includes scholarly books, dissertations, research articles, monographs, and periodicals for the development of insights into the present study. The present researcher reviewed the relevant literature for many other reasons, such as research methods and techniques, new ideas and approaches, what needs to be done, relationships between ideas and practices, correlations, contradictions between the findings of the present study and those of the reviewing studies, etc.

This review of the literature is presented in three sections: (1) the first section presents the studies carried out from 1982 to 1999; (2) the second section focuses on the washback research conducted from 2000 to 2005; and (3) the third section includes the studies carried out from 2006 to date.

### 3.2.1 Washback Studies from 1982 to 1999

Kellaghan, et al. (1982) conducted a study on “The effects of standardized testing” which had extensive potentials for the future researchers. So far, it is considered the first study on washback. They studied the educational and psychological effects of the introduction of standardized achievement/ability testing in elementary schools in Ireland. The study by Kellaghan et al. is considered to be of high quality. Kellaghan et al. observed that teachers in Irish primary schools were quite biased in the evaluation of their students at the time of their study. They speculated that the reason such bias existed was due to the lack of standardized testing in Ireland.

Wesdorp (1982) carried out a research on “Backwash effects of language testing in primary and secondary education in Netherlands” which investigated the validity of objections to the use of multiple-choice tests for the assessment of both first and foreign language education. The results did not support the assumed negative washback effects. One of the assumptions, for example, was that the skills that could not be tested by multiple-choice questions would not be taught any more in primary schools. Differences between the teachers' activities in schools with and without a multiple-choice final test were insignificant. The results did not show any changes in the students' study habits either. On the whole, the study revealed much less negative washback than had originally been assumed. However, it is not clear what kind of tests had been in effect before the introduction of multiple-choice tests and how different the tests measuring first and second language education were. It could be that the old test methods (e.g., direct/indirectness, discrete-pint/integrative approach) and content were so similar to those of multiple-choice tests that even after the introduction of the new technique teachers and learners didn't feel any need to change their attitudes towards the tests.

Hughes (1989) described a project conducted in a non-English speaking country, at a Turkish English-medium university. Before the study started, undergraduate students used to enter academic programmes after spending a year of intensive English study, yet they demonstrated a very low level of English proficiency. As a result, the university decided to establish a screening device to determine which students could continue with their studies and which students would have to leave the university. A new test was developed based on the English

study skills needs of freshman students (e.g., reading, note-taking, etc.) which included tasks similar to those they would have to perform as undergraduates. Hughes (1989) reported that the introduction of this test in place of the old multiple-choice test immediately affected teaching.

Khaniya (1990), in a study in Nepal, attempted to study washback by designing a new communicative English language proficiency test and comparing it with the traditional SLC (School Leaving Certificate). According to Khaniya, the SLC had important consequences for the future of the students since it was a factor in the selection of university and job candidates. Consequently, students, teachers and parents were very much concern with its results. As Khaniya descried, SLC required students to memorise texts and answered to questions since many of the test questions and texts were taken directly in the textbooks. In such a situation, the exam would definitely have some sort of control over the course, but he did not explain how teachers actually taught to the exam, what and how students learned, and so on. He gave his new test to three different groups of students at the beginning and at the end of grade 10 when students were preparing for the SLC. Based on final results, Khaniya reported that while the differences between students' performance (in English-medium schools) before the introduction of the new test was not significant, at the end of the year those with an emphasis on skills improved their performance on the new exam while the students whose program emphasized SLC performed poorly- Khaniya claimed that this is because of the SLC examination teaching going on in exam-emphasizing schools, due to the negative washback of the SLC test. He argued that the fact that the third group of students (in Nepalese-medium schools) also performed poorly at the end of the year further supported this claim.

Li (1990) conducted a research on the Matriculation English Test (MET). It is the English language test for entrance into all universities in China, which has been the subject of several washback studies. It is a standardised, norm-referenced proficiency test, which in 1990 had an annual test population of 3 million. Li documented the evidence for washback four years after the MET had been introduced. Data was collected through the analysis of test results and their comparison with other tests. A study of student writing was also carried out. A number of 229 teachers completed the questionnaire. Students were also questioned.

Their typical response was that the good thing about MET was that they did not need to memorise in order to prepare for it, a major departure from the usual tests they sat. The study recorded the washback effects of the new test over a five-year period and found it encouraged the use of new textbooks and innovative materials. Although Li noted that some of the changes the research had uncovered were not all that significant in terms of encouraging high school teachers to change their teaching methods, she was hopeful that there would gradually be a marked and more persistent change over time.

Smith (1991) reported on two qualitative studies which investigated the effect of tests on teachers and classrooms. Data from interviews revealed that the publication of test results induced feelings of fear, guilt, shame, embarrassment, and anger in teachers, and the determination to do what was necessary to avoid such feeling in the future. Teachers believed that test scores were used against them, despite the perceived invalidity of the scores, and they also believed that testing had severe emotional impact on young children. From classroom observation, it was concluded that testing programmes substantially reduced the time available for instruction and narrowed the curriculum and modes of instruction. Smith reported that there were two different reactions to this “narrowing of the curriculum”. One was accommodation by teachers, who discarded what was not going to be tested, and taught towards the test, other was one of resistance, exemplified by one teacher, he said that he knew what was on the test, but he felt that children should keep up with current events and trace the history behind what was happening then, so they were going to spend much doing that. This suggests that washback phenomenon is not quite as simple as is at times made out.

Alderson and Wall’s (1993) “Does Washback Exist?” was a great manuscript on washback. It was considered as a milestone in the field of washback study. In their manuscript, the concept of washback, or backwash, defined as the influence of testing on instruction, was discussed with relation to second language teaching and testing. It is an empirical research, where they coined 15 hypotheses on the washback. Much of the literature on this subject had been speculative rather than empirically based. They were the first scholars to suggest that the washback effects of language tests were not as straightforward as had been assumed. It was Alderson and Wall who pointed out the problematic nature of the concept of washback and the

need for carefully designed research. In their article 'Does Washback Exist?' they questioned existing notions of washback and proposed a series of washback hypotheses. These hypotheses are potentially playing a role in the washback effect and must therefore be considered in any investigation.

They suggested that tests were commonly considered to be powerful determiners of what happens in the classroom, the concept of washback was not well defined. The first part of the discussion focused on the concept, including several different interpretations of the phenomenon. It was found to be a far more complex topic than suggested by the basic washback hypothesis, which was also discussed and outlined. The literature on education in general was then reviewed for additional information on the issues involved. Very little research was found that directly related to the subject, but several studies were highlighted. Following this, empirical research on language testing was consulted for further insight. Studies in Turkey, the Netherlands, and Nepal were discussed. Finally, areas for additional research were proposed, including further definition of washback, motivation and performance, the role of educational setting, research methodology, learner perceptions, and explanatory factors.

Alderson and Wall (1993) carried out longitudinal study on “Examining Washback: The Sri Lankan Impact Study” in Sri Lanka concerning the effects of second language tests, specifically the O-Level examination in English as a Second Language; on classroom language instruction is reported. This was the landmark research on washback. Their study investigated the phenomenon of washback or backwash, the influence of testing on instruction. Their study was cited as the only known research investigating washback in language education through consecutive classroom observation. The study was conducted at the secondary school level, and combined classroom observation with data from interviews, questionnaire responses, and test analyses to determine whether washback existed, to what degree it operated, and whether it was a positive or negative force in this educational context.

This long-term impact study was jointly conducted by a research team over a period of two years. It differed from other studies in that it was the most comprehensive and thorough study that had ever been conducted in this research area. The entire study was composed of several sub-projects: a baseline study, questionnaires to teachers and teacher advisers, teacher interviews (group),

document and material analyses (especially tests), and, most importantly, a two-year observation programme. It is worth noting that the research team (7 Sri Lankan teachers) conducted six rounds of classroom observations in a total of 49 schools across the country. The findings gave background information on the project; discussed the characteristics of positive and negative washback in terms of instructional content, instructional methods, and techniques, and assessment and presents the results of two rounds of classroom observation. The study concluded that washback occurred in both positive and negative forms, to some degree, in teaching content, but not in methodology. Existence of washback, both positive and negative, on the way teachers and local education officers design tests was also found. They recommended further research on this field.

The study of Herman and Golan (1993) looked at the effects of standardized test on teaching and learning processes in upper elementary classrooms in eleven districts in nine states. The study investigated test washback in a holistic way by looking at the self-reported influences of tests within classroom settings as well as on policy-makers, which had contributed a great deal of understanding washback from a macro point of view. Data was collected from 341 teachers for their study. The study revealed the pressure that teachers felt to improve test scores and the amount of time teachers spent on test preparation. Results indicated that standardized testing had considerable effects, and that teachers felt considerable pressure to improve student scores (SLD). The findings reported that over 50% of the teachers admitted that they would give substantial attention to mandated tests in their instructional planning and delivery. In devising their syllabi for instruction, they would look at prior tests to assure that they covered the subject matter of the test or test objectives.

Stephens et al. (1995) conducted a research using a case-study approach. The study sought to describe what assessment looked like in four school districts (two schools per district, two classrooms per school). Interviews were conducted with students, parents, teachers, principals, and central office staff to understand assessment from multiple perspectives. Teachers were interviewed prior to and after three half-days of observation to understand assessment as part of classroom practice. Results indicated that the meanings of particular concepts, such as assessment, curriculum, and accountability, varied significantly across districts. The

salient relationship was not the one between assessment and instruction, but rather the relationship of each of these to the decision-making model of the district. Generally, when assessment-as-test did appear to drive instruction, this relationship seemed to be an artifact of a model in which individuals ceded authority for decision making to outsiders. When assessment as test did not appear to drive instruction, this relationship seemed to represent a model in which individuals maintained the authority to make decisions within the framework of their individual and collective philosophies. Findings suggested that assessment as test did not necessarily drive instruction, and that when assessment as test did drive instruction, it did not drive it in a way that might be considered good instruction.

Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) studied a longitudinal study which examined how washback of public exams impacted English teaching in Sri Lanka. Their study provided insights into the relationship between teachers' perceptions of teaching contents and public examinations. Two points in Alderson and Hamp-Lyons's study were particularly strong. First, they incorporated an observational component in their study rather than relying solely on self-reports. Second, they used laughter as one barometer of the classroom atmosphere. A second limitation of Alderson and Hamp-Lyons's study was their choice of participants.

Alderson and Hamp-Lyons pointed out that the TOEFL affected both what and how teachers taught, but the effect differed considerably from teacher to teacher. It would be worthwhile to determine whether those effects were similar among teachers with comparable backgrounds. A third concern about the study by Alderson and Hamp-Lyons was that they dealt with washback primarily from teachers' perspectives, barely addressing students' points of view. They commented, to better understand how washback occurred within the classroom, researchers needed to investigate changes in students' motivations, learning styles, and learning strategies. One final concern about Alderson and Hamp-Lyons's study was that they did not make it clear what - if any - student score gains occurred.

Shohamy et al. (1996) examined the impact of national tests of Arabic as a Second Language (ASL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Israel. They explored different washback patterns among teachers, students, and inspectors in terms of how these tests influenced classroom activities, time allotment, teaching materials, perceptions of prestige, and the overall enhancement of learning.

Regarding the EFL test, oral teaching activities were progressively introduced. As a consequence the amount of instruction time for oral activities increased, new courseware was brought in, awareness of the test increased, and the subject matter's status in the school substantially rose. In contrast, the ASL's impact in those areas declined to the point of insubstantiality. Nevertheless, the bureaucrats believed both tests had reached their objectives without any need for teacher training or curricular revision.

Their research found that teachers were motivated to implement activities to promote their students' skills for the test. A change of how teachers would evaluate their students due to the influence of public exams was found in an empirical study regarding the new EFL test in Israel. According to Shohamy et al. (1996), "the rating scales which measure accuracy and fluency will be changed slightly and a new scale of task orientation will be added". The study concluded that washback changes with time because of factors such as language status and test uses.

Cheng, L. (1997) conducted a study on "How Does Washback Influence Teaching? Implications for Hong Kong" to investigate whether or not any washback effect of the revised Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination in English (HKCEE) by the HKEA could be observed in the teaching of English in Hong Kong secondary schools. The aim of the study was to observe how the whole education system would react in the context of the change in its assessment practice and to attempt to discover the implications of the washback effect on the teaching of English in Hong Kong secondary schools.

The HKCEE was a public examination taken by the majority of secondary students at the end of the fifth year of their secondary school. Two separate syllabuses, namely the examination syllabus by HKEA and the teaching syllabus by the CDC (Curriculum Development Council) coexisted in Hong Kong secondary schools. Her research employed various methodological techniques such as questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations, which were based on an in-depth case study approach to sampled schools in Hong Kong. She conducted the study among the 42 students, and 48 teachers. The study took place from January 1994 to November 1996 and consisted of three phases.

Although the Hong Kong Examinations Authority intended to create a positive washback effect through the innovation, Cheng's findings indicated that

changes occurred mainly at a superficial level: the content of teaching and the materials used changed rapidly but there was not much evidence of fundamental changes in teaching practices and student learning. When teachers were asked about their reaction to the new examination, 37% of them were sceptical about the changes, 29% were neutral and another 21% welcomed or enthusiastically endorsed the changes, with 13% of teachers not responding to the question.

It was found that 84% of the teachers commented that they would change their teaching methodology as a result of the introduction of the 1996 HKCEE. While 66% of the teachers mentioned that the proposed changes in the 1996 examination syllabus might not contradict their present teaching methodology, 68% of teachers felt the new examination would add pressure to their teaching. It was that 61% of the respondents stated that the selection of particular textbooks was made by teachers jointly. As to general lesson arrangement, decisions were made by teachers according to 60% of the respondents and panel chairs according to 29% of the respondents. When teachers were asked how they carried out language skill training in class, they replied that 61% of the English lessons were arranged for the purpose of teaching separate skills such as listening, reading or grammar usage. Only 5% of the lessons were arranged on the basis of integrated skills including listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

The Findings indicated that the washback effect worked quickly and efficiently to bring about changes in teaching materials, largely due to the commercial characteristics of Hong Kong society, but somewhat slowly, reluctantly, and with difficulty in the methodology that teachers employed. The study suggested that teaching content had so far received the most intensive washback effects, although washback effects had also been observed in teachers' attitudes and behaviors and in the English curriculum.

Watanabe, Y. (1996) conducted two washback studies that focused on the high-stakes English entrance examinations for Japanese universities. He used an experimental design to compare the teaching practices of two teachers in order to see if the entrance examinations pressured teachers to use grammar translation method. Both teachers were giving courses at high schools and also at Japanese cram schools (yobiko). In the high school, he observed them teaching regular and exam preparation classes. At the yobiko, he observed the teachers giving exam preparation

courses for two different universities. Interviews were held immediately before the observation to gather background information about the teachers. Post-observation interviews were also conducted following each observation. From the data, he found that the washback effect was much weaker than he had hypothesized – washback is only one of several factors influencing teaching practices in class. In fact, Watanabe postulates that the teachers' educational background, their beliefs about effective teaching methods and also, the timing of the observations, that is, how close the examinations were to the time of observation, could be important factors influencing how washback happens.

Ye (1998a, 1998b) presented the results of two surveys. One was administered to 74 EFL teachers from 18 institutions of higher learning, and the other was administered to 174 students at Shanghai Jiaotong University. Based on the results of her questionnaires, she claimed that the CET had not only brought changes to teaching content and teaching methods, but also changed the phenomenon of lecture-based instruction, and increased students' learning initiative and independent thinking. However, her study did not provide sufficient evidence or data to justify her claim. In spite of this claim, she admitted that grammar and vocabulary continued to constitute a considerable portion in CE teaching. It seems that these conclusions are contradictory.

Saif, Shahrzad (1999) carried out a study on theoretical and empirical considerations in investigating washback. This study examined washback as a phenomenon relating to those factors that directly affected the test to those areas most likely to be affected by the test. The goals of the study were: to investigate the existence and nature of the washback phenomenon; to identify the areas directly/indirectly affected by washback; and to examine the role of test context, construct, task, and status in promoting beneficial washback. Theoretically, this study conceptualized washback based on the current theory of validity proposed by Messick (1989, 1996). It was defined as a phenomenon related to the consequential aspect of the test's construct validity and thus achievable, to a large extent, through the test's design and administration.

Given this assumption, a conceptual and methodological framework was proposed that identified 'needs', 'means', and "consequences" as the major focus areas in the study of washback. While the model recognized tests of language

abilities as instrumental in bringing about washback effects, it highlighted an analysis of the needs and objectives of the learners (and of the educational system) and their relationship with the areas influenced by washback as the starting point for any study of washback. The approach to data collection was both quantitative and qualitative.

The findings of the study indicated that positive washback could in fact occur if test constructs and tasks were informed by the needs of both the learners and the educational context for which they were intended. The extent, directness, and depth of washback, however, were found to vary in different areas likely to be influenced by washback. The areas most influenced by washback were found to be those related to immediate classroom contexts: teachers' choice of materials; teaching activities; learners' strategies; and learning outcomes. The study also revealed that non-test-related forces and factors operative in a given educational system might prevent or delay beneficial washback from happening. Based on the theoretical assumption underlying the definition of washback adopted in this study, many consequences which could not be traced back to the construct of the test were outside the limits of a washback study.

### **3.2.2 Washback Studies from 2000 to 2005**

Cheng and Falvey (2000) conducted a research on “What Works? The Washback Effect of a New Public Examination on Teachers' Perspectives and Behaviours in Classroom Teaching”. Hong Kong introduced the Certificate of Education Examination in English to bring about positive washback in classroom teaching. A large-scale research study was carried out over a period of three years to investigate what actually worked with the introduction of the new Certificate of Education in English. The findings of this study indicated that the Hong Kong educational system responded rapidly to the change. Their study found that assessment could leverage educational change and bring positive washback effects to teaching. Washback, as a process, was seen to occur quickly and efficiently in the creation of language teaching materials. Teachers' and students' perceptions of classroom teaching and learning activities were also directly influenced. However, the washback process on the teaching methods that teachers used occurred slowly and reluctantly. The study revealed that the washback effect on classroom teaching

was limited and superficial. It was postulated that only a combined effort of effective teacher education and materials development could bring about genuine change in classroom teaching. They also put forward some recommendation for promoting washback of the public examination.

Jin (2000) examined the washback effects of the College English Test (CET) Spoken English Test. Questionnaires were distributed to 358 students who took the test in the year of 1999, and to 28 English teachers who worked as interviewers in the test. The questionnaire covered the following areas: students' motivation to take the test, the importance of the test, and its potential washback effects. A large number of students (79.6%) reported that they took the test to have their communicative competence in English evaluated. Most of the students (96.9%) and teachers (100%) thought that it was important to have an oral test in the CET battery. All of the teachers believed that the Spoken English Test would have a huge impact on college English teaching and would promote students' ability to use English communicatively; 92.3% of the students and all the teachers suggested that the test should be accessible to a larger number of students.

The questionnaire also asked the teachers and the students to evaluate the test design, which included test method, test format, test tasks, test time, the reliability of the test, and the rating scale. The results were very positive. The researcher claimed that since the administration of the CET-SET, positive changes took place in college English teaching. For example, many colleges and universities began to pay more attention to improving students' communicative competence; students became more involved in the oral activities in class; and some universities even developed teaching materials that catered to the test. However, there was lack of empirical studies or evidence to support these claims so far.

Chapman & Snyder Jr. (2000) carried out a study on high-stakes testing influences and teachers' classroom methodology. The study in Uganda by Snyder et al. found that changes made to a national examination did not have the desired effect of encouraging teachers to alter their instructional practices, they suggested that it was not the examination itself that influenced teachers behavior, but teachers' beliefs about those changes'

Chen (2002) examined the nature and scope of the impact of the Taiwanese Junior High School English Teachers' Perceptions of the Washback Effect of the

Basic Competence Test in English. The relational research method was used in this research. The target population was junior high school English teachers. A number of 151 teachers teaching in the 11 -grade were requested to respond to the questionnaire, and focus group interviews. The bivariate correlation and multiple regression analyses were used to analyze the quantitative data. Content analysis using a note-based technique interpreted the qualitative data.

Findings indicated that the public examination associated with educational reform had an influence on teachers' curricular planning and instruction. This washback influence on teachers' teaching attitudes was quite superficial; the washback might influence teachers about what to teach, but not how to teach. It was recommended that longitudinal studies, such as long-term classroom observations, should be conducted in order to explain to what extent washback actually occurs to influence classroom teaching. Findings led to recommendations for teacher professional development, a change of the Taiwanese "academic watch" program, mixed ability grouping, and the addition of oral and aural assessment to the examination. Based upon the findings, this study recommended to: (1) provide teachers with extensive professional development opportunities; (2) change the 'academic watch' policy; (3) practice mix-ability grouping instead of achievement grouping to group students; and (4) integrate assessment into classroom evaluation.

In New Zealand, Read and Hayes (2003) carried out a research to examine IELTS impact. The research was carried out in two phases, moving from a broad overview of the national scene to a specific focus on particular language schools. In the first phase a survey was made of the provision of IELTS preparation in the tertiary/adult sector. They mailed out to 96 language schools throughout New Zealand to collect information on whether schools offered an IELTS preparation course for the Academic Module and, if so, to obtain the basic details of how the course was taught. Of the 78 schools which responded, 77% of them offered IELTS preparation. This compared to 58% that taught English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or English for Further Study (EFS), and just 36% that prepared students for TOEFL.

Their questionnaire was followed up in phases two by 23 interviews with teachers engaged in IELTS preparation at the larger language schools in four of the main centers. The interviews probed the structure and delivery of IELTS preparation in greater depth, as well as exploring the relationship between preparing students for

the test and preparing them adequately for academic study through the medium of English. The participants reported that students really needed to be at an upper-intermediate level of General English proficiency before being able to benefit from IELTS preparation and have a realistic chance of passing the test, but there was often pressure to accept students whose proficiency was lower than that. Even students who gained the minimum band score for tertiary admission were likely to struggle to meet the demands of English-medium study in a New Zealand university or polytechnic. IELTS courses varied a great deal in the extent to which they could incorporate academic study skills which were not directly assessed in the test. Despite its limitations, the teachers generally recognised that IELTS was the most suitable test available for the purpose.

The study of Hwang (2003) was designed to examine the washback effect of the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT), a university entrance exam, on EFL teaching and learning in Korean secondary schools. This study first investigated the relationships among the curriculum, the school textbooks, and the CSAT: (1) the relationship between the curriculum and the textbooks; and (2) the relationship between the curriculum and the CSAT. Second, this study examined if a washback effect from the CSAT existed. This study further discerned the nature of washback and the variable(s) influenced by the washback effect. The results indicated that the curriculum corresponded to the textbooks, while the CSAT did not represent the curriculum, and that there was a negative washback effect of the CSAT on EFL teaching and learning. The variable(s) influenced by the washback effect were negative attitudes that the participants of the study had toward the test.

Hayes, B. M. (2003) investigated the washback effect of the test by studying three IELTS preparation courses offered by language schools at public tertiary institutions in Auckland. The aim of her study was to identify the significant activities in an IELTS preparation class in New Zealand and establish whether there was evidence of washback in the way classes were designed and delivered. Various forms of data-gathering were utilised, including two structured observation instruments, questionnaires and interviews for the teachers, two questionnaires for the students, and pre- and post-testing of the students. In addition, an analysis was made of IELTS preparation textbooks, with particular reference to those which were sources of materials for the three courses. Thus, her study provided a detailed

account of the range and duration of activities occurring in IELTS preparation courses as well as insight into the teachers' approach to selecting appropriate lesson content and teaching methods.

The findings of her study showed markedly different approaches between the courses, with two focusing almost exclusively on familiarising students with the test and providing them with practice on test tasks. On the other hand, the third course, while including some test practice, took a topic-based approach and differed from the others in the amount of time spent on the types of activities one might expect to find in a communicative classroom. Pre- and post-testing revealed no significant gain in overall IELTS scores during the courses. The study concluded that teachers who designed and delivered IELTS preparation courses were constrained by a combination of factors, of which IELTS itself was but one. Hayes's study highlights the need for further research into appropriate methodologies for washback research, including the refinement and validation of observation instruments, and provides more evidence of the complex impact of tests on both classrooms teaching and learning IELTS.

Linda (2003) carried out a study which aimed at determining the impact of Louisiana's School and District Accountability System on students' performance on the state mandated criterion-referenced test. The study was designed to determine the extent to which teachers in the schools in a large urban district in southwest Louisiana turned to instructionally unsound practices in response to a high-stakes accountability system. The specific objectives addressed in this study were to: 1) explore if test scores changed beyond what would be expected given the cohort design of the accountability model; 2) explore if test scores changed teaching methodology; and 3) determine where there had been improved learning and identify those practices teachers used to obtain the positive results. For the qualitative analyses, data was collected from interviews, surveys and observations with 4th grade teachers and principals in the selected school district. Specifically, this study attempted to determine if a measurable increase in student performance on the state-mandated test in grade 4 and determine to what sources the positive change could be attributed. The results of this study indicated that Louisiana's accountability system had impacted each school in various ways. There was not only a variation in how these schools perceived accountability, but also a variation in the perceptions of

teachers and principals with regard to strategies that were being used to prepare students for high stakes testing.

Liu and Dai (2003) conducted a nationwide large-scale study on teacher perceptions of teaching methods, teacher pedagogical knowledge and potential for conducting research, and issues related to instructional innovations and testing. The results revealed that more than 90% of the College English instructors maintained that the CET could not objectively reflect students' communicative competence. They attributed the negligence of aural/oral aspects of language in instruction to the phenomenon of teaching test-related items. They argued that as a test which measured students' linguistic knowledge rather than their abilities in language use, the CET could only encourage students to focus their attention on language knowledge. This, according to them, has led to the test's negative impact. They ended their paper with a call for devising the CET as a criterion-referenced test. They further suggested that subjective questions be increased, and commercialization of the test be avoided. While the data presented in this study might not be taken as evidence of washback, for it was not associated with "the introduction of an innovation intended to cause change" as described by Wall and Horák (2007, p.99), the study provided a window on how Chinese EFL teachers perceived the CET.

Qi (2004) carried out a study by examining the National Matriculation English Test (NMET). In her study, she carried out in-depth interviews and follow-up discussions with eight test constructors, ten senior secondary school teachers, and three English inspectors. Based on the coded data, Qi analysed the structure of the Senior III English course from both the chronological and conceptual perspective using a concept put forward by Woods (1996). For this purpose, data was collected through interview and questionnaire from eight NMET constructors, six English inspectors, 388 teachers and 986 students. She found that de-contextualised linguistic knowledge still had a central place in the Senior II English Course at the expense of communicative meaning and contexts, this despite the decreased weighting on linguistic knowledge in NMET over time.

The findings of her study revealed that the most important reason for the test failing to achieve the intended washback was that its two major functions – the selection function and the function of promoting change – were in many ways in

conflict with each other making it a powerful trigger for teaching to the test but an ineffective agent for changing teaching and learning in the way intended by its constructors and the authority. Qi's conclusion was that the NMET produced only limited intended washback effects, as teaching of linguistic knowledge was still emphasised and the kind of language use in teaching was restricted to the skills tested in the NMET". Her study also confirmed the circuitous and complicated nature of washback. Finally, Qi suggested that tests might not be a good lever for change – that educational system or school practices would not let themselves be controlled by test constructors. In China, the NMET was not an efficient tool for inducing pedagogical change.

Cheng (2004) investigated the possible washback effects of the Revised Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination in English (HKCEE) on teachers and students in Hong Kong secondary schools. Her study was a qualitative research conducted through Mixed Method Approach (MMR). She observed 12 high school teachers for 45 lessons. She also conducted a questionnaire survey among 550 teachers and 1700 students. She interviewed an unspecified number of teachers from 1994 to 1995. The ostensible intention of the exam reform was to inspire integrated, task-based teaching. Cheng, however, determined from the questionnaires that although most teachers felt positively about the revised exam that enabled students to use English more practically and effectively, no major changes emerged in terms of actual pedagogic practices, which were still content-based and teacher-centered.

The content of what was taught now focuses more on listening and speaking in accordance with the revised exam. Cheng stated that the change of the HKCEE toward an integrated and task-based approach showed teachers the possibility of something new, but it did not automatically enable teachers to teach something new (p. 164). Cheng's study confirmed Wall and Alderson's (1993) previous findings: while classroom content might change because of a test, the way teachers instructed did not change to any significant degree. The changes noted by Cheng (2005) were "superficial".

Ferman (2004) conducted a study on the washback of an EFL national oral matriculation test to teaching and learning. The EFL test implemented by the Israeli Ministry of Education appears to be one of the studies that included only student data. He found that students' washback behaviours appeared to be influenced by the

teachers' instructional behaviours with respect to the test. This seemed an important aspect to consider for the Spanish 104 study, as the intent was to observe how teacher behaviours changed over a period of time. Additionally, current educational practice uses student performance as a common way to judge teacher efficacy. If teachers can be judged on how well their students perform on tests, it is relevant to gather data to determine whether or not teacher behaviours related to the tests, in turn influenced student behaviours with respect to the tests.

Han et al. (2004) conducted a survey in China among 1194 English teachers of 40 colleges and universities asking about their attitudes toward the national testing system of the CET at the tertiary level. They found that 37.7% of the teachers thought that the CET pushed colleges and universities to use the passing rate of the test to evaluate their teaching. Over 70% of the teachers did not believe that the test could improve overall English teaching and learning at the tertiary level in China. About 25% of the teachers pointed out that the test encouraged students to guess and to use test-taking strategies, rather than to improve their actual language ability, and 37.8% of the teachers attributed the lack of communicative competence of their students to this test. However, about 70% of the teachers did not want the test to be abolished. From the interviews with some university administrators and English teachers, the researchers found that one reason for this contradiction in attitudes was the time and effort that would have been consumed to design their own test systems and to grade large numbers of test papers. Another concern was the validity issue of a possible self-designed test by an individual university.

In terms of classroom teaching, about 40% of the teachers believed that the CET influenced regular teaching. When asked about a suitable type of a national test for college English teaching, 40% of the teachers thought that it should be a language proficiency test rather than an achievement test, and 45.4% of the teachers suggested that all four skills should be assessed in order to promote students' overall language competence. The teachers were also asked their opinions regarding the relationship between the CET certificate and students' actual language ability. Most of the teachers (77.9%) did not think that these two components were correlated, i.e. having a CET certificate does not necessarily mean that the student has the language competence as required by the College English Syllabus. These findings showed that teachers were doubtful about the validity of the CET.

Huang, S. (2004) conducted a study on Washback Effects of the Basic Competence English Test (BCET) on EFL Teaching in Junior High School in Taiwan. The data was elicited through questionnaire and interview. The respondents were the English teachers and students. The research questions of the study were on: effects of the BCET on EFL teaching materials, teaching methods, assessment, and students' learning in junior high school. The subjects were 82 English teachers and 351 third-grade students chosen from different junior high schools in central and northern Taiwan.

The quantitative data was analyzed by descriptive statistics to present the mean, standard deviation, and percentage of the responses for each item. Then the interview was transcribed and utilized as complementary opinions. Major findings showed both positive and negative washback effects of the BCET on EFL teaching materials, methods, assessment, and students learning. First, the BCET exerted influence on teachers' decision on selecting textbooks, providing extra reading authentic materials, and adopting realistic audio-visual aids. Huang (2004) believed that the findings of the study might contribute to the improvement of the BCET items. The researcher provided suggestions towards the administration of the BCET and the reformation of the current EFL teaching and learning in junior high school.

Hawkey (2004) conducted a study entitled "A Study of washback regarding the impacts of IELTS, especially on candidates and teachers". In this study, the researcher's main focus was to ensure that the test was as valid, effective and ethical as possible. The instruments were subjected to a range of validating measures including: descriptive analyses (mean, standard deviation, skew, kurtosis, frequency). A total of 572 IELTS candidates from all world regions participated in the study. Findings from the study indicated that 90% of the teachers participating in the study agreed that IELTS influenced the content of their lessons, 63% of the teachers agreed that the examination influenced their methodology. The study concluded that there appeared to be strong IELTS washback on the preparation courses in terms of both content and methodology.

Gu, X (2005) conducted a research in china to explore the relationship between the College English Test (CET) and college English (CE) teaching and learning. The research focused on: the CET participants' perceptions of the test and its washback; the processes of CE classroom teaching and learning, including CET

washback on CE classroom teaching and learning; and the products of CE teaching and learning. In addition, other major factors exerting influence on CE teaching and learning were analyzed. A number of 4500 CET stakeholders (e.g. administrators, teachers, and students) were involved in the study. Various research methods were employed including classroom observations, questionnaire surveys, interviews, tests and analyses of documents, of 'coaching materials', as well as of CET data and of the examinee output in the CET.

The findings showed both positive and negative washback of the CET. Most of the CET stakeholders thought highly of the test, especially its design, administration, marking and the new measures adopted in recent years. They believed that the positive washback of the test was much greater than the negative washback, and that the negative washback was primarily due to the misuse of the test. However, some CET stakeholders were dissatisfied with the overuse of the multiple-choice (MC) format in the test, the lack of direct score reports to the teachers, the incomplete evaluation of the students' English proficiency without a compulsory spoken English test, and the use of the test as the sole means in evaluating the quality of CE teaching and learning. The study concluded that the issue of the CET washback was complicated and pointed out that the CET was part of a complex set of factors that determined the outcome of CE teaching and learning. The top three factors within the school context were: students' educational background, teacher quality, and administrators' attitudes about the CE courses and the CET.

Lopez, Alexis (2005) carried out a research on the potential washback of the English proficiency test. The study investigated the potential washback of the Integrated Task on classroom practices. The integrated task was a writing task on a new English language proficiency test developed to assess English language learners (ELLS) in grades K-12. This study was conducted in an elementary school in the Midwest. Participants in the study included an ESL teacher, twelve ELLS and thirteen ESL experts. Data was collected using mixed method (MM) approach including a content evaluation of the integrated task, classroom observations, interviews with the teachers and students, think-aloud protocols, and analysis of the students written products. Results of this study highlighted the relationship among the integrated task, ESL writing instruction, and students' writing processes and

written products. The findings suggested that there were matches and mismatches between the task and classroom practices. Lopez (2005) commented that this alignment could potentially inform test developers about changes that could be made to the task.

HUANG, L. (2005) carried out a research on the nature of the washback effects of the Senior Secondary School Entrance Examination (SSSEE) English oral test. The study showed that washback is a complex phenomenon and it could be conceptualized via a multidimensional model. His study presented preliminary research findings related to the washback effects of the oral test on teaching. The data was collected via focus groups and questionnaires. 51.1% of the teachers said that they often provided students with lessons specifically focusing on speaking skill development. 82.8% indicated that the administration of the oral test had raised their awareness of teaching communicatively. 42.2% of the teachers reported that they often used specially tailored materials for the oral test. 48.6% declared that it was necessary to use special coaching materials for the oral test. 18.4% did not think it was necessary.

This suggested that washback of the oral test on the development and introduction of new teaching materials did exist but was not strong. This result suggested that the washback on teachers' perceptions of the importance of speaking teaching was strong, which was consistent with the findings from the focus group. As for the teaching methods, 39.7% of the teachers reported that they used computer software to help speaking training. It was found that the washback of the oral test on teaching existed. In the questionnaire, 60% of the teachers indicated it had a substantial impact on their teaching. In the focus group, similarly, some teachers acknowledged that the oral test changed their teaching routines and methods. In addition, they employed the test type of the SSSEE oral test in their daily teaching.

Caine, A. (2005) carried out a study to examine the effects of existing EFL examination on teaching and learning in Japan. An attempt was made to determine the extent and nature of washback resulting from this new speaking test. The subjects consisted of teachers and learners taken from the upper secondary education (i.e. high school) sector in Japan. Most of the research was conducted at one participating school – a private high school of 486 students in the south of Japan. In addition to classroom observation, teacher and student questionnaire surveys were

also administered in order to measure the washback effect of EFL tests currently taken in the sample context. The data was collected from the teacher questionnaires and the classroom observation. However, additional data was also collected from teachers working at public high schools in the area. The study focused on the ‘mismatch’ that occurred between the levels of curriculum planning and actual classroom implementation.

The results of this study suggested that it was possible to improve learning by employing direct testing techniques. It was proposed that future research should be conducted using a large sample group and that data should be collected longitudinally. The study commented that more direct testing techniques were needed to be employed in a larger number of “high stakes” examinations to effect the changes on teachers and teaching English as a foreign language

Manjarres (2005) conducted a study that intended to test washback within a high-stake test. The general objective of the study was to describe the washback effect of the English national examination held at public schools in Colombia. The central question of the study was whether the English Test had any washback effect on teaching English, and whether the exam tested students’ grammatical and linguistic competence. The researchers analysed the tests students took in 2003 and 2004. The gathered data was then compared with the classroom practices recorded from the observations, (five lessons were observed), an interview with three students, a formal interview with an English language teacher, and an interview with the latter together with another English language teacher of the school. Manjarres (ibid) advocated that the central question of this study was whether the English Test had any washback effect on the teaching of English in the specific context of this study, which could be considered a representative case of public schools in big towns in the northern part of Colombia.

The results of the study showed a positive relationship between the exam and the teachers, that was, English language teachers adjusted their strategies in order to meet students’ expectations, this was also noticeable when teachers depended on other materials to perform better in the classroom (i.e. previous test formats). The study also showed that teachers were not familiar with how to develop students’ communicative competence. The study found that listening and speaking skills were

not evaluated in the exam. In addition, teachers' main focus was on developing students' grammatical skills.

Ying, Y. (2005) investigated the washback effects of the Spoken English Test (SET). The findings of Ying's study showed that teachers used different approaches and methods when teaching, and that they looked at the examination as crucial and important. However, SET teachers seemed to concentrate on communicative competence, they neglected the usage of grammar and translation. The SET examination was set to measure students speaking skills. Textbook evaluation revealed that the influence of SET on the design of the textbook series only occurred at the superficial level, i.e., it influenced the contents and formats of the speaking elements in the textbook series. This indicated that the design of the textbook series received more influence from the teaching syllabus than from SET, which was confirmed by the interview with the textbook writer. The findings of the study brought insights to the washback effect of tests on teachers, in terms of changing their teaching methods when teaching for a high-stakes exam. The findings might also stimulate textbook writers to pay attention to the overall construct of grammatical exercises in the development of English textbooks.

### **3.2.3 Washback Studies from 2006 to Date**

Green, A. (2006) conducted a study to investigate washback to outcomes by comparing learner performance on the three course types. IELTS writing tests were administered at course entry and exit and a gain score for each learner calculated as the simple difference between these entry and exit scores. As both participant and process variables other than course type might account for any differences in mean score gains found in the study, data relating to course length, course intensity (hours of study per week) and individual characteristics, beliefs and attitudes considered likely to mediate washback were accessed through questionnaires and course documentation.

The participants of the study were international students preparing for academic study at fifteen institutions in the UK. These institutions were selected following an earlier survey of UK course providers. They were willing to participate and were conveniently located. A number of 663 students participated in the

research. A total of 476 (71.8%) students completed both entry and exit forms of the IELTS academic writing test. Paired t-tests were used to investigate whether learners had made score gains following their courses. The results indicated that a significant gain in writing scores had indeed occurred on all three course types. Taken as a whole, the learners improved their IELTS academic writing scores by an average of 0.207 of a band on the nine-band IELTS scale. This indicated that students with higher initial writing scores made less gain than their lower scoring counterparts. Other features that displayed relatively high correlations with writing score gain included the grammar and vocabulary measures, use of test-taking strategies, self-assessed improvement in writing ability and self-confidence in English writing ability.

Saif (2006) carried out a research to explore the possibility of creating positive washback by focusing on factors in the background of the test development process and anticipating the conditions most likely to lead to positive washback. The study focused on the washback effects of a needs-based test of spoken language proficiency on the content, teaching, classroom activities and learning outcomes of the ITA (international teaching assistants) training program linked to it. As such, the conceptual framework underlying the study differs from previous models in that it includes the processes before test development and test design as two main components of washback investigation. The analysis of the data – collected from different stakeholders through interviews, observations and test administration at different intervals before, during and after the training program – suggests a positive relationship between the test and the immediate teaching and learning outcomes. The results obtained from interviews, observations, and quantitative analysis of test scores suggested that the ITA test had some influence on classroom-related areas such as teaching content, teaching methodology, and students' learning. The results also revealed that the depth, extent and direction of the effect differed with the affected area. The content of teaching seemed to be the area showing changes directly triggered by the test. This was in line with the results of previous studies on washback (see, for example, Wall and Alderson, 1993; Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Cheng, 1997) that found the content of language teaching as the area readily susceptible to change as a result of tests. Class observations and teacher interview revealed that the teacher's adaptation for the ITA course of the materials available to her was based on two factors: the objectives of the course and her impression of the

ITAs' language abilities after the first administration of the test. There is, however, no evidence linking the test to the policy or educational changes at an institutional level.

Green, A. (2007) investigated whether test preparation classes were advantageous in assisting students trying to improve their IELTS writing scores. There were three sub-groups: 85 participants attending IELTS preparation courses, 331 in the pre- EAP course, and 60 in combination courses. All participants were asked to take the IELTS grammar/vocabulary tests at the beginning and end of their 4-to-14-week courses. Questionnaires examining participant and process variables such as learner background, motivation, class activities, and learning strategy use were completed after the pre and post tests. Inferential statistics were adopted and revealed that no clear advantage for focused test preparation. In addition, score gains were found primarily among two groups of learners: those who planned to take the test again, and those who had low initial writing test scores. Washback to the learner rather than washback programme had more to do with the improvement in students' test scores. These findings had two implications: first, test-driven instruction did not necessarily raise students' scores. A more beneficial way to improve students' scores might be to integrate material covered on the test with regular teaching. Second, concerning this point, intentions for taking the test needed to be clear to both students and teachers to foster English learning.

Wang, H. (2006) conducted a study on an implementation study of the English as a foreign language curriculum policy in the Chinese tertiary context. This study explores the implementation of the mandatory national college English curriculum within a Chinese tertiary context. Using a mixed methods approach, she conducted the study by engaging three groups of participants. She interviewed four national policymakers in terms of syllabi, textbooks, and tests to identify the intended curriculum. She interviewed six departmental administrators to determine their perceptions of the national language policies and their roles in ensuring the implementation of these policies. She conducted surveys to discover 248 teachers' perceptions of the intended curriculum and uncovered the factors affecting their implementation activities in the classroom. By observing two teachers' classrooms and through follow-up interviews, she also examined how the language policies were being interpreted at the grass-roots level.

The findings revealed a discrepancy between policymakers and administrators and between policymakers' intentions and teachers' implementation. Policymakers designed general, open-ended, and abstract policies to offer local universities and teachers some flexibility and autonomy when they put those policies into practice. However, administrators as intermediary individuals between policymakers and implementers apparently interpreted the open-endedness of the curriculum policies differently than the policymakers had intended. Instead of using the built-in flexibility to tailor methods of helping students gain proficiency, they placed their emphasis on only one outcome—students' good scores on the national English test. They also failed to support their teachers in understanding the policies by not providing necessary resources to help them implement the policies fully.

Furthermore, the research uncovered five external and internal factors as significant predictors of teachers' implementation: resource support, teaching methods (communicative language teaching and grammar-translation method), teaching experience, language proficiency, and professional development needs. Classroom observations and interviews revealed that teachers failed to implement what was expected from policymakers in the classroom. Rather, they conducted teaching based on the classroom and political reality. Their factors were mainly student factors and the departmental factor. The implications of this study were pointed to the importance of the intermediaries, the department heads, in both providing the necessary pressure (motivation) and support (resources) necessary for the implementation to take place.

Shih, C. (2007) investigated stakeholders' perceptions of the Taiwanese General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) as well as its washback on schools' policies, teaching, and English learning. The research sites were the applied foreign language department of university of technology (School A) and an institute of technology (School B). The latter school required day-division students to pass the first stage of the GEPT intermediate level or the school-administered make-up examination, whereas the former did not prescribe any GEPT requirement. In each department, he reviewed its records and interviewed the department chair, 2 to 3 teachers, 14 to 15 students, and 3 parents or spouse of 3 participating students. Shih also observed one of the courses taught by each interviewed teacher as well as the self-study center 2 hours weekly for 8 selected weeks out of one semester. One

exception was a GEPT Preparation course at School B, which he observed for a whole semester.

The findings of the study indicated that the GEPT had a little or no impact on teaching at both schools, except for courses at School B which were germane to the school's GEPT policy. Although the GEPT generated various degrees of washback on English learning at both schools, there was an absence of long-term systematic preparation for the test. A handful of students prepared for the GEPT two months before the test, whereas some students had no preparation whatsoever. Some teachers believed that the GEPT was valid and reliable, whereas others had neutral or negative perspectives on these issues. Participating students believed that the GEPT had gained public credibility. However, they still pointed out several issues and problems with the test. The results of the study indicated that the existing theories or models did not fully explain the washback of tests on learning. He therefore proposed a new, tentative washback model of students' learning to delineate this subject. Moreover, although results seemed to discourage using the GEPT as a degree requirement or other gate-keeping purposes, he suggested several guidelines for those schools, which, out of some considerations, should adopt the GEPT for these high-stakes purposes.

Shih, C. (2008) conducted another study to compare one private technical college in Taiwan that required English majors to pass the elementary level of the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) with a similar private technical college, which had no such graduation requirement. The GEPT was commissioned by Taiwan's Ministry of Education in 1999 and is a criterion-referenced test that reputedly measures writing, speaking and listening skills. Interviews with 2 department heads, 6 teachers, 30 students, and 3 family members were conducted. Observations were made for a semester in test-preparation classes or in classes that taught skills tested on the GEPT. Departments' policies regarding the GEPT exit requirements were also reviewed. The findings indicated that the GEPT had elicited a varying but minor impact on learners at both schools, although a slightly higher degree of washback was found at the school with exit requirements. In addition, Shih generated a new washback model of students' learning. This model includes extrinsic, intrinsic, and test factors to help depict the complexity of learning washback.

Shih, C. (2009) investigates that how test change teaching. The purpose of this study was to investigate the washback effects of the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) on English teaching in two applied foreign language departments in Taiwan. One had prescribed its GEPT requirement to its day-division students whereas the other had not. Overall, the GEPT did not induce a high level of washback on teaching in either department. Only courses which were linked to the departmental GEPT policy and whose objectives were to prepare students for the test were significantly affected. The results of his 16 hours of observation showed that the GEPT had an impact on Don's teaching content as well as mid-term and final examinations, but not on other aspects of his teaching. His teaching material was a monthly GEPT magazine that was available in local bookstores. Mid-term and final examinations were simulated GEPT examinations, which were produced by the same GEPT magazine publisher. On the other hand, Don never mentioned the GEPT explicitly in class, never offered GEPT relevant information to his students, and did not instruct students in any test-taking strategies.

The results of my observations were mostly congruent with Don's testimony in his interview. He also believed that his teaching content was relevant to the GEPT, and the mid-term and final examinations were mock GEPT tests. However, he rarely coached students in test-taking skills and seldom offered students GEPT-relevant information. The findings suggested that micro-level contextual factors (for example, the objectives of the course) and teacher factors had a greater impact on teachers' instruction. Finally, on the basis of current understandings of washback, Shih proposed a new tentative model to portray the washback of tests on teaching.

Karabulut (2007) carried out a study on "Micro level impacts of foreign language test (university entrance examination)" in Turkey. The purpose of this study was to find out whether the foreign language examination---university entrance test---influenced the way teachers taught and students learnt in senior three classrooms (the last grade of high school) in Turkey. Secondary goal was to see the outcomes of teaching to the test and attitudes of different stakeholders towards the test and senior three English teaching in general. For this study, data was collected through online surveys; and participants comprised four major groups. Senior three high school students and English teachers were invited to participate to find out the nature and the scope of washback, while college students and professors were asked

to participate to investigate the outcomes of teaching to the test. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the responses of the participants. The results suggest that the test is a major factor determining the flow of English lessons in senior three classrooms. The classroom materials that were reported by both students and teachers including mock tests, commercial exam preparation materials and sample test questions directly served to the purpose of practicing for the test and indicate the relative effect of the test on language learning.

The results suggested that high school students and teachers focused more on the immediate goal of language learning which was to score high on the test and be admitted to the university by cramming for the test, and learning and practicing the language areas and skills that were measured on the test (grammar, reading, and vocabulary items) and ignored the ones that were not tested (listening, speaking, writing). The teachers and college students, on the other hand, felt the enough practice especially in productive skills should have taken place in the classroom. The respondents opined that long- term goal of language learning should be to improve the ability to use the language. Based on the gap reported by these different stakeholders, findings led to recommendations for a change in the curriculum and in the format of the test towards a more communicative and integrative one.

Huang, C. (2007) carried out a study to explore the washback effects of the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) on English-language teaching and learning in an EFL context. Moreover, it aimed to investigate how the GEPT influenced current English-language teaching and learning. The data was collected through a questionnaire and interview from English teachers and students. In the study, convenience sampling was adopted and the participants were nine English teachers and 306 students chosen from nine junior high school classes in northern, central, and southern Taiwan. Both quantitative and qualitative data was used for the study. The quantitative data was analyzed by descriptive statistics to present the mean, standard deviation, and percentage of the responses for each item. On the other hand, the qualitative data collected from the interview was transcribed and utilized as complementary opinions.

The results of the study revealed that both positive and negative washback effects of the GEPT on EFL teaching and learning occurred. The students admitted that when examination got closer they studied harder than before. They were

motivated to learn English and thus became autonomous learners. Moreover, students were aware of the significance of fostering the four language skills. Further, getting the GEPT certificate gave students a sense of achievement and gave them a competitive advantage when applying for senior high schools or finding a good job.

Mohammadi, M. (2007) carried out study on the washback of the High-Stakes Testing on teaching. This research aimed at conducting a survey of the washback effect of MA Entrance Examination on teachers' methodology and attitudes. 45 subjects, all of whom university professors, were selected using convenience random sampling. Then, a validated researcher-made questionnaire was administered. To have more reliable data, some were randomly selected for interview so as to cross-check the data collected through questionnaire. The data analysis revealed that the majority of the subjects were positively influenced by the examination. Moreover, they were fully aware that their methodology and attitudes were gradually set to the demands of the examination.

Retorta, S. (2007) carried out a study entitled "The washback effect of the Federal University entrance examination of Panama the teaching of the English language in secondary schools of Panama: an investigation of public and private schools as well as cramming courses". The objective of the study was to investigate whether the English test of the University Entrance Examination of UFPR set off the washback effect in the teaching/learning of the language in public and private high schools as well as cramming courses and, if so, what effects were they. In order to meet these objectives a qualitative investigation was conducted in which various voices of the school community were heard such as the participants of public schools (urban and rural), the private schools and the cramming courses (private and free ones). Since there was an intention of having a multi-perspective of the phenomenon, the scenarios were chosen because of the great social inequalities of that country and, therefore, stakeholders were also selected for interviewed. The data was triangulated, analysed and discussed in descriptive and statistical ways. Retorta (2007) also conducted interview and class observations for collecting qualitative data for the study.

The results of this study showed that there was no washback effect of the English test of the University Entrance Examination of UFPR in public schools. What helped set the teaching goals of the discipline were the contents suggested in

the didactic books adopted in each school. In the other scenarios, the washback effect was observed. The positive effects were the motivation of the directors and teachers to search for information about the test; motivation of the students to study harder to pass the test; the test was used to set clear teaching objectives and reading began to be taught. The negative effects were: anxiety of the participants of some scenarios and curriculum narrowing. This study offered a theoretical contribution when it helped understand a bit more about the washback effect; methodological contribution due to the research design which was innovative and broad and, finally, the study intended to offer a set of information which can give support to the teaching and evaluation of the English discipline in high schools in Panama.

Tsagari (2007) conducted study entitled "Investigating the Washback Effect of a High-Stakes EFL Exam in the Greek context: Participants' Perceptions, Material Design and Classroom Applications". This research project was an attempt to examine the washback effect of a high-stakes examination on the teaching and learning process that took place in the intermediate level classes leading to that level. The researcher interviewed 15 native and non-native EFL teachers, actively involved in teaching FCE. The results led to detailed analysis of textbook materials using a specially-designed instrument. The analysis of the data showed that the exam did influence the materials teachers used when teaching, but it did not show any washback effects upon teachers teaching methods. Implications from Tsagari's study showed that other factors beyond the exam, such as the exam designers understanding of the underlying principles of the exam and their ability to create an affective exam through the materials used, seemed to play a greater role in determining the influence of the exam rather than the exam itself. The final part of the study looked at the effects of the exam reported by students. The analysis of the data showed that students' attitudes and feelings as well as their motivational orientations towards learning the language were affected by the examination.

Tsagari (2009) conducted study which was carried among the 54 EFL teachers and 98 EFL students of various ages and levels of proficiency at two different private language schools in Athens. The results showed that teachers and students did indeed think that language testing had an impact on teaching and learning, although they were not all in agreement as to what that impact was. Several things stood out from the results of the teachers' surveys. First of all, teachers were

divided in their agreement with the statement “exams help improve classroom teaching” (37% agree, 49% disagree and the remaining 14% don’t know). Interestingly, more than half of the teachers (57%) replied that they did not think exams related well to communicative language teaching. Also, 55% of teachers agreed that exams helped give students confidence, but they also overwhelmingly agreed (92%) that exams also caused students anxiety.

The students’ surveys revealed, not surprisingly, the majority of students agreed that exams were very important and useful to them (89%), that exams had a positive effect on teaching (66%), on learning (69%), on materials (69%), and the perceived attitude of the teacher (62%). They were less in agreement on the impact of tests on learner attitudes (44% reported a positive or strong positive impact, 20% didn’t know, 26% reported some negative impact, and 10% a strong negative impact). The majority of students (70%) unfortunately agreed that exams do cause them anxiety. The mixed results of this survey showed that washback was a “complicated equation” involving teachers, students, materials, attitudes and perceptions.

Choi, I. (2008), in his study, provided an overview of the impact of standardized EFL tests on EFL education in Korea. The study presented the status quo of EFL testing in the Korean context; explores the nature of the EFL tests prevalent in the EFL testing market; and investigates the overwhelming washback effects of EFL tests on EFL teaching based on a survey of stakeholder viewpoints. The overall findings of the survey revealed that the majority of stakeholders (i.e. test-takers and teachers) did not think favorably of the EFL tests due to negative washback effects on their EFL learning and teaching. The survey also showed that considerable numbers of young students were under unwarranted pressure to take the EFL tests and that secondary education put too much emphasis on preparation for the college entrance exam. Most respondents had negative views of the tests in terms of the mismatch between test scores and English proficiency and the failure of multiple-choice EFL test preparation to induce productive English skills. Some respondents voiced complaints about the financial burden caused by mandatory submission of test scores for graduation and employment.

The study of Wall and Horak (2008) focused on the role of communication in creating positive washback. Their study was designed to find out what

examination designers would say about the role of communication in their efforts to promote positive washback; to find out what teachers would say about the success (or otherwise) of examination designers in communicating what they desired. Data was collected through the online questionnaire. The study found that 82% of test designers discussed washback; 78% of the respondents documented their intentions; 47% of teachers didn't know if the exam was meant to encourage washback. The researchers found that teachers usually did not understand the nature of tests and encouraged testers to communicate their intentions so that teachers and learners could prepare for new kinds of assessment.

Al-Jamal and Ghadi (2008) examined the nature and scope of the impact of the English General Secondary Certificate Examination (GSCE) on secondary language teachers in Al-Karak district located in Jordan. The purpose of this study was to investigate how English language teachers in Al-Karak district who taught second secondary students perceived the impact of the GSCE on their selection of teaching methods. The target population was English language teachers teaching the second secondary class in Al-Karak District in the scholastic year 2006/2007.

A survey questionnaire, which consisted of Likert- Scale items, was used in order to collect the required data. The questionnaire was divided into two parts. The first part of the study aimed at measuring how the GSCE affected English language teachers' method selection in terms of four domains: activity/time arrangement, teaching methods, materials teachers would use in the classroom and content teachers would teach. The second part of the questionnaire, however, investigated the effect of other factors related to the GSCE on teachers' method selection in terms of four domains: students' learning attitudes, teachers' professionalism in teaching, teachers' perceived external pressure in teaching, and perceived importance of the GSCE.

Findings of the study indicated that both the GSCE and the other related factors have affected English language teachers' method selection with a slight statistical difference in favour of the GSCE washback effect. Another indication obtained from the study was that English language teachers in Jordan used the grammar-translation method in teaching English. The results also showed that two types of washback existed in secondary schools in Al-Karak namely: positive and negative washback. In light of the results, the present study recommended that: (a)

teachers' should be provided with professional development opportunities; (b) teachers' monitoring and evaluation policy should be reconsidered; and (c) GSCE should integrate oral language skills as well. They concluded their study with some recommendations for promoting positive washback.

Jou, C. (2008) accomplished a study on the perceptions of the test of English in a private university in northern Taiwan.. The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and its impact on the school's policies, teachers' teaching, and students' English learning study. The researcher applied both qualitative and quantitative methods for data collection. Interviews were conducted with the chairperson, three teachers, and 8 students of the Department of Applied Foreign Languages of the university. A questionnaire was administered among the respondents of the Department. Besides, formal records, meeting minutes, and official documents concerning about TOEIC were also assembled for analysis. The study lasted for around a year. Results were categorized, transcribed, calculated, analyzed, discussed and described in statistic figures.

The major findings of the study revealed that TOEIC's impact was enormous and decisive. First, it affected the school authorities to make the policy of adopting a TOEIC 650 score as a threshold for the English majors in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages. The enactment of the TOEIC 650 policy brought about a series of measures and actions which in turn had directly or indirectly affected the teaching and learning in the Department. Second, the TOEIC washback on teaching at the Department ranged widely from a high degree of impact to no impact at all, depending chiefly on whether the course was directly related to TOEIC. One teacher has even created a TOEIC vocabulary learning system and put it up online for the students to use free. It was found that TOEIC generated different degrees of washback on individual students' learning in the Department. It had little or no impact on some students, but motivated a few others to study English for at least a period of two or three months. It was also found that some of the students did not seem to have been affected at all by TOEIC and the related TOEIC activities held by the Department.

It was also found that quite a high percentage of the students want to take TOEIC in their college years because was a threshold and they believed that a

certified high TOEIC score was helpful to their job seeking and further advanced studies after graduation. Pedagogical implications and suggestions were put forwarded for the policy makers, teachers and students on the one hand, and to educational administrators, teachers and educators in Taiwan on the other hand.

Mousavi and Amiri (2009) conducted a study on the washback Effect of TEFL University Entrance Exam on Academic Behavior of Students and Professors. The study was an attempt to investigate the washback effect of the Knowledge test of TEFL MA University Entrance Exam on students and professors. This section of TEFL MA UEE consists of three parts. They are related to the three areas of Linguistics, Testing, and Methodology. To this end, an observation checklist and two questionnaires, one for professors and the other one for the students based on the underlying theories of washback were developed. A total of 32 professors, 210 students, and 13 Linguistics answered the questionnaires. Testing and Methodology classes were observed. Finally, to find the answers to research questions, the Chi – square test and frequency analysis were performed through SPSS. The result indicated that TEFL MA UEE had negative washback on students and professors academic behavior.

Latimer, G. D. (2009) conducted a research on “Washback effects of the Cambridge preliminary English test at an Argentinean bilingual school” in Argentina. This study documented the overall English language program at one Argentinean bilingual school and examines, in particular, the effects the Cambridge ESOL exams upon its curricula, its teachers and upon language learning. This ethnographic research included broad-based observations, conducted over three years, and a five-month investigation of the Cambridge Exams’ impact on teaching and learning at this bilingual school. The research found both positive and negative washback effects on language learning. In short, the Exam works against the language development the institution aspires to foster.

Mizutani, Satomi (2009) investigated the mechanism of the phenomenon known as washback in the context of a new national standards-based assessment system in New Zealand, particularly focusing on the area of the teaching and learning of Japanese as a foreign language. The National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) was progressively implemented across all subjects in the final

three years of secondary schooling from 2002. It replaced norm-referenced assessments and aimed to function as assessment for learning as well as of learning.

The research consisted of three studies. Studies One and Two investigated washback effects of NCEA as perceived by teachers and students of Japanese, and beliefs about NCEA which contributed to the washback effects. This large-scale study involved teachers and students of Japanese, French, History, and Mathematics. Teacher and Student Questionnaires were developed to investigate washback of NCEA and beliefs about NCEA, Teaching, Learning, and Teacher Efficacy as well as to collect relevant background information on the participants. The study revealed that some contextual factors played a role in mediating certain types of beliefs and washback effects. The results also confirmed that positive washback was promoted when participants' beliefs were in line with the intentions of the assessment. It is concluded that, for educational reform through assessment change to be successful, stakeholders' beliefs about the role of assessment might need to be altered. A model was presented to describe the mechanism of washback, showing how washback could be mediated directly and indirectly by contextual factors and beliefs.

Li, Hongli (2009) carried out a study entitled "Are teachers teaching to the test?: A case study of the College English Test (CET) in China". This study aimed at finding out whether teachers were truly teaching to the test and the potential reasons involved. In order to gain deeper and more focused insight into the influence of the CET on classroom teaching, only its writing section was examined. Based on data collected from some students and teachers at a University in Beijing, China, it was found that the overall influence of the CET writing was not as substantial as what was claimed. Due to different stakeholders' perceptions of the CET, the influence on teachers was weak and indirect compared to a stronger and more direct influence on students. Also, teachers did not teach to the test due to the lower priority of writing among the four skills of language. The relatively low requirement of the CET writing and its restrictive testing format also prevented the teachers from teaching to the test. It was found that the teachers' lack of professional training and some logistic factors outweighed the influence of the CET writing. It was pointed out that teacher factors might outweigh the influence of the CET. Thus, the researcher recommended that teacher should be provided training to improve the efficiency in classroom teaching.

Turner (2009) carried out a study entitled “Examining washback in second language education contexts: A high stakes provincial examination and the teacher factor in classroom practice in Quebec secondary schools”. The participants were the ESL secondary teachers in the French school system in the province of Quebec in Canada. The main research question was: How do teachers mediate between classroom assessment activity and preparing students for upcoming external exams? The findings of the study indicated that teachers used common overall approaches to teaching, but there was variation in individual practice. When first introduced to the new exam material, teachers used a formative assessment approach. As the exam time neared, their practice evolved into a summative assessment approach. This phenomenon demonstrated an interfacing or 'blurring' of formative and summative assessment in an attempt to align classroom and external exam assessment. Implications were discussed pertaining to a coherent education system across curriculum, teaching, learning and assessment. He suggested further intensive study on the areas.

Silva, de Oliveira (2009) carried out a research on “Washback effect of achievement testing in Brazilian regular education: keeping an eye on motivation to learn EFL” in Brazil. The aim of this research was to approach the interrelation between assessment and motivation to learn EFL. The specific aims were to know: what was the effect of formative assessment on the students' motivational orientation to learn EFL, and how formative assessment affected the students' awareness of learning and competence. In order to achieve these aims, ethnographic research methods were employed to describe students' perceptions and motivational orientations facing assessment, which was essentially summative at first, then combined with formative assessment, introduced in the second quarter.

The findings of the study revealed the complex relation between assessment and motivation, which was mediated by the teacher. Results also showed that high achievers changed little in their perceptions and motivation to learn EFL, being intrinsically motivated throughout the school year. Medium achievement students showed changes in their perceptions and motivation, revealing flexible motivational orientations. Finally, low achievers showed small changes in their perception and motivational orientations, which are certainly meaningful considering their low levels of motivation at the beginning of this research. The study concluded with

some theoretical and practical implications for the studies in assessment and in motivation and for the teaching and learning scenario of English as a foreign language in Brazilian regular schools.

Hsu, Hui-Fen (2009) conducted a study on the impact of implementing English proficiency tests as a graduation requirement at Taiwanese universities of technology. The research sites were non-English departments of Taiwanese universities of technology, which were divided into two groups. One of the groups (Group 1) required non-English major students to pass one of a set of English proficiency tests at a specified level as a graduation requirement, whereas the other group (Group 2) did not prescribe any English graduation requirement. In each group, 27 to 28 teachers and 300 to 321 students completed questionnaires. Two teachers from each group, along with three departmental directors and three advisory committee members within the Taiwanese Ministry of Education, were interviewed. Two lessons taught by each interviewed teacher were also observed.

Findings of the study indicated that the policy of implementing English proficiency tests as a graduation requirement had a superficial or at times no impact on teaching for both groups, with a slightly greater impact on Group 1, who complied with their university's policy of English graduation requirement. Although the majority of Group 1 teachers, departmental directors and advisory committee members had generally positive attitudes towards the policy, teachers' fundamental beliefs about English language teaching and learning were not changed. The new policy influenced what the teachers taught, but not how they taught. In addition, the teachers, departmental directors and advisory committee members pointed out several issues and problems with the diffusion and implementation of the educational innovation.

The researcher found that the teachers and educational administrators nevertheless were aware of the problems they currently faced and appeared determined to resolve them. The results seemed to argue against using English proficiency tests as a degree requirement or for other gate-keeping purposes. Guidelines were also proposed for those universities which wanted to adopt the English proficiency tests for these high-stakes purposes.

Wang, J. (2010) accomplished a research to explore the washback effects of the CET (College English Test) on teacher beliefs, interpretations and practices, and

in particular seeks to discover the way the 'teacher factor' was manifested in the washback phenomenon. It also investigated the pedagogical as well as the social and personal complexities influencing teachers' beliefs and interpretations and practices. This study answered the research question: What role does the 'teacher factor' play in washback in the Chinese university context? Participants were 195 tertiary-level EFL teachers of the non-English programs.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate whether tests constitute a major constraint on CE (College English) instructional innovation in China. In addition, the intent of the study was to find out what aspects pertinent to this factor (e.g., teacher beliefs, teacher knowledge, experiences) present the major barrier to the implementation of instructional change. A mixed methods approach combining both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and data analysis was adopted in this study. A teacher survey and in-depth case studies (through focused group/individual interviews and classroom observations) were used to collect data. Data was analyzed in two phases. Qualitative analysis involved the use of constant comparative method, while quantitative analysis in this study involved descriptive statistics and inferential statistics.

The findings of the study suggested that the CET coupled with various interrelated components of the 'teacher factor' is involved in fostering the washback effect. Given the complexities underlying the washback phenomenon, the educational change carried out in curriculum and assessment was not sufficient on its own to entail teacher change in terms of pedagogical strategies. It appeared that for fundamental changes in teacher practice to occur, they must be accompanied by other changes in teachers' knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and thinking that inform such practice. It was hoped that the issues identified in this study would serve to inform educational authorities, test designers and teachers, and serve as an impetus to upgrade EFL teaching in China.

Muñoz and Álvarez (2010) conducted a research to determine the washback effect of an oral assessment test on some areas of the teaching and learning of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The research combined quantitative and qualitative research methods within a comparative study between an experimental group and a comparison group. Fourteen EFL teachers and 110 college students participated in the study. Data was collected through the teacher and student

surveys, class observations, and external evaluations of students' oral performance. The data was analysed using descriptive statistics for qualitative information and inferential statistics to compare the mean scores of the two groups by One Way ANOVA. Results showed positive washback in some of the areas examined. The implications for the classroom were that constant guidance and support over time were essential in order to help teachers use the system appropriately to create positive washback on teaching and learning.

Jin, Y. (2010) conducted a research in china to investigate language testing with a reference to the English teachers. This study was designed to investigate the training of tertiary level foreign language teachers in China with a focus on language testing and assessment courses. A nationwide survey was conducted among 86 instructors of such courses for an overview of the current situation in terms of the instructors, teaching content, teaching methodology, student perceptions of the courses, and teaching materials.

The findings of the study revealed that the courses adequately covered essential aspects of theory and practice of language testing. However, educational and psychological measurement and student classroom practice received significantly less attention. Comparison of the teaching content of the different types of courses did not show major differences. Yin Jin (2010) put forwarded some suggestions to highlight some under-addressed aspects of the teaching content and to set up a network of teacher-testers to create opportunities for practitioners to exchange experiences, professional knowledge and skills.

Barnes, M. M. (2010) investigated washback of a high-stakes English language proficiency test, the Test of English as a Foreign Language Internet-Based Test (TOEFL iBT), on general English and TOEFL iBT preparation courses in Vietnam. For the study, the researcher observed and interviewed four teachers. Teaching materials were also collected from four educational institutions in Vietnam. The study revealed that the TOEFL iBT influenced both what and how the teachers taught, particularly in TOEFL iBT preparation courses. Barnes (2010) believed that the findings of this study had important implications for teaching and learning in Vietnam.

### 3.3 Conclusion

The research evidence discussed above illustrates that washback is a highly intricate rather than a simple and a monolithic phenomenon. Over the past decade, there has been a considerable amount of research on washback. This domain of research seeks to answer, in one form or another, one fundamental question – how testing influences teaching and learning. All the research studies reviewed above have provided us with a steady accumulation of knowledge about the nature of washback. However, despite numerous positive qualities demonstrated in the above-mentioned washback studies, we have noticed that they are limited to some extent.

The findings of the washback research discussed above have been inconclusive. Some studies found that teaching content was more likely than teaching methodology to be influenced by tests (Cheng, 1999). Others found that tests influenced both teaching content and teaching methodology, but the extent of the influence of the tests varied from teacher to teacher (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Watanabe, 1996) as well as from student to student (Andrews et al., 2002). The unpredictability of washback effects led researchers to assume that these findings may be due to the variability of the educational contexts of teachers and students. The argument in this thesis is that these washback effects may be powerfully mediated by beliefs that teachers already possess while they introduce new test systems into their current practice.

One obvious limitation of such studies is that since they simply focus on a narrow set of factors associated with testing itself, the authors and researchers are still not able to explain the nature of the washback phenomenon elaborately. Due to the narrow research focus, many assertions and statements made in these studies, though differing in wording, and overlap in meaning. In addition, although the issue of the different factors have been touched upon by a many researchers (Tan, 2008; Tavares & Hamp-Lyons, 2008) and begun to be explicitly and intensively dealt with in Turner (2008, 2009), additional data need to be collected to enable researchers to examine and address the issue more closely and extensively, and above all, to illustrate whether the findings from Canada, Hong Kong and South Africa apply to other contexts as well.

The findings of research on examination impact in the field of education, and on washback in the field of applied linguistics, however, have been mixed. Researchers in both fields have come to a similar conclusion that washback is a very complex phenomenon and that it is likely to be mediated by numerous factors such as contextual factors and stakeholders' beliefs. Despite the link between washback effects and mediating factors discussed in the literature, it is still not known exactly how washback works positively and negatively. Thus, the present research aimed at exploring in details the influence of washback on teachers and students in the context of Bangladesh educational reform through the standards-based assessment known as the HSC public examination. Previous worldwide studies on washback effects have revealed mixed results, indicating the complexity of washback. This interdisciplinary research attempted to explore the role of contextual factors and beliefs held by teachers and students in the process of washback, going beyond just identifying the nature of washback of the HSC public examination.

This chapter has started with an extensive overview of the washback research conducted both in the ESL and EFL context. First, it has examined the research on washback in language education and general education to clarify and summarise some basic concepts and perspectives related to the washback phenomenon. It has then offered a discussion about the washback studies carried out in the world context. After the brief introduction provided in Chapter One to the general context of the present study, and a broad set of theoretical and conceptual framework of washback outlined from multiple sources in Chapter Two, the next chapter presents the research methodology that was used to conduct the present research.

## **Chapter Four**

# **Research Methodology**

Research methodology refers to the systematic procedures and techniques used to carry out a study. This chapter describes the methodological procedures employed to collect and analyse data so as to answer the research questions posed in Chapter One. The chapter starts by presenting the overview of the research methodology. Then, it turns to the rationale for the methodology that has been applied in the study. After that, it describes the methods for data collection, the research design adopted, the instruments used, the participants involved, and the sampling. Finally, the data collection procedures and the process of data analysis are explained.

### **4.1 Research Methodology: An Overview**

There is a general agreement that washback is a complex phenomenon. Many researchers call for empirical studies to explore the concept further. Alderson and Wall (1993) assert that the best way to identify washback is through a combination of teacher and/or student surveys and direct classroom observation. The literature on washback studies is increasing, and the methods employed for data gathering in these studies are diverse. Though the earlier studies on washback simply used a single data source, the later studies embraced multiple data sources. The methods employed in recent research studies tended to involve questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations. (e.g., Herman & Golan, 1991; Shohamy, 1992; Andrews and Fullilove, 1994; Qi, 2004, 2005; Cheng, 2001; Cheng, 2004; Davison, 2008; Shohamy, 1993; Tavares & Hamp-Lyons, 2008; Turner 2008, 2009; Urmston & Fang, 2008; Wall, 1999; Watanabe, 1996, 2004).). The review of washback studies also shows that there seemed to be no instruments that had been developed specifically for washback studies.

It is encouraging to note that during the last decade more and more researchers have expanded to look at issues of the context in order to capture the complexity of the washback phenomenon much more seriously, both theoretically

and empirically. It is also worth mentioning that adopting the mixed-method (MM) approach is the growing trend in current washback research.

#### **4.1.1 Development of Washback Studies**

Research is an ongoing process, and its design evolves over time. The research methods used vary from study to study. It should be noted that the methodologies utilized in washback studies have undergone a developmental change during the last couple of years. There has been an evolution in this field of research from the use of a single method or monomethod (e.g., survey methods) to the use of multiple methods or mixed methods (e.g., survey methods, in-depth interview, complemented by observations).

Between 1980 and 1990, little empirical research had been carried out to investigate the washback effect of examinations either in the field of general education or in the field of language education. Research design during that period was largely dominated by survey methods (usually interviews or written questionnaires), with observation being overlooked. Nevertheless, although the questionnaire data provided a great deal of information on the relationship between teaching, learning and testing, these data alone could hardly provide a clear and accurate portrayal of what was actually happening in the classroom.

It is widely acknowledged that the most substantive contribution in this area, which led to the popularization of the use of multiple methods, is the Sri Lankan Impact Study reported by Alderson and Wall (1993). Most important of all, it has motivated a substantial amount of evidence-based, observational washback research (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Burrow, 2004; Cheng, 1997, 1998; Read & Hayes, 2004; Qi, 2004; Shohamy et al., 1996; Turner, 2002, 2008, 2009; Watanabe, 1996a, 1996b, 2004b). The study of Alderson and Wall (1993) is a benchmark and the torchbearer in the field of the washback research. The research questions in washback research are the best answered with mixed-method research designs rather than with sole reliance on either the quantitative or the qualitative approach. Turner (2005, 2008, 2009) attested the importance of using multiple methods of data collection (a mixed-method design), and provided a good example of how rigorous washback research combining qualitative (QUAL) and quantitative (QUAN) methods could be designed.

## **4.1.2 Mixed Methods (MM) Research: Washback Study Context**

As indicated above, a mixed-methods (MM) orientation has been embodied in the design characteristics of recent washback research (Bailey, 1999; Burrow, 2004; Cheng, 2001, 2003; Qi, 2004; Turner, 2005, 2008, 2009; Wall, 1999; Wall & Alderson, 1993; Watanabe, 2004). It was not until recently that the use of Mixed Methods Research (MMR) as a research design was articulated in researchers' explanations of their methodologies (Turner, 2008; 2009). Then, in what follows, the present researcher examines the theoretical groundings of the mixed methods research (MMR) design as well as some of the unique design features subsumed under it.

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) define a mixed methods (MM) study is one in which the researcher uses multiple methods of data collection and analysis. They argue that the mixed-method approach is underpinned by philosophies of pragmatism. Plenty of evidence shows that the MM approach has gained broad appeal in research from different disciplines (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Greene et al., 1989; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Turner, 2005, 2008, 2009). Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) advocate conducting research along these lines, saying "the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone" (p.18). In light of these practical reasons provided by different researchers, it seems that there is a need to examine the theoretical grounding of this approach.

Greene (2007, p. 20) has noted, "The primary purpose of a study conducted with a mixed methods way of thinking is to better understand the complexity of the social phenomena being studied." As Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p.15) have stated, mixed methods research is "inclusive, pluralistic and complementary...[it] take[s] an eclectic approach to method selection and the thinking about and conduct of research." For them, what is primordial is the research question; research methods are solutions that work to answer the research question(s) best. It is interesting to note that their argument is reinforced by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007); they assert that investigators may view MMR strictly as a "method," thus allowing

researchers to choose any method from different schools of methodology based on diverse philosophical assumptions.

The importance of the MM approach lies in that it allows researchers to mix aspects of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms at all or many methodological steps in the design (Creswell, 1994; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Patton (1990) has conceptualized “methodological mixes” saying that different methods: QUAN (quantitative), and QUAL (qualitative) could be combined across three stages: design, measurement (QUAL data or QUAN data), and analysis (content or statistical). Allwright and Bailey (1991) extend Patton’s (1990) conceptualization saying that various combinations of quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis are possible. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) provide a more elaborate definition of four major types of MM design:

- a. **Triangulation design-** A triangulation design refers to the collection of qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously to understand a problem;
- b. **Embedded design-** An embedded design means using qualitative data in an experiment or correlational study;
- c. **Explanatory design-** An explanatory design explains quantitative results with qualitative data; and
- d. **Exploratory design-** An exploratory design uses qualitative data and analysis in an exploratory function towards developing a quantitative instrument.

It is worthwhile to note that the four types of designs address different objectives. They can serve as a foundation for conceptualizing how to design and conduct feasible MMR. Research in washback studies (e.g. Wall & Alderson, 1993; Cheng, 1997, 1998; Turner, 2002, 2005, 2008, 2009; Wall, 1999) demonstrates that all of the MM designs used triangulation techniques. Such designs stress the importance and predominance of the research question over considerations of either method or paradigm (e.g., the worldview that is supposed to underlie that method). Subsumed under the MM approach is an array of methods combining both quantitative and qualitative research: observations, interviews, document reviews, questionnaires and so on.

Creswell (2009), Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), Greene (2007), Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), and Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) suggest that MMR

produces better outcomes than mono-method research. According to these researchers, MMR has the potential to reduce some of the problems associated with single methods. From their perspective, by utilizing quantitative and qualitative techniques within the same framework, MMR can incorporate the strengths of both methodologies. In light of the above perspective, in order to examine and understand the phenomenon in questions, it is necessary to draw upon both types of data (QUAL and QUAN).

The MMR places on tailoring methods to research questions. As was put by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), research approaches should be mixed in ways that offer the best opportunities for answering important research questions. Based on their explanation, MMR does not dictate the choice of data collection methods. Rather it allows the procedures for conducting research to be dictated by the research question and the context of the study. One of the salient strengths of the MM approach lies is that it allows researchers to mix aspects of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms at all or many methodological steps in the design (Creswell, 1994; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

For its strengths, the MM approach is becoming more and more popular with researchers in the domain of washback research. Except for Watanabe (1996) and Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), the majority of washback studies have embraced this approach. In fact, the Sri Lanka Impact Study as well as the study by Turner (2002, 2006, 2008, 2009) has demonstrated a successful combination of survey research and QUAL procedures. Turner (2005, 2008) clearly states that the research design and analytic procedures of her study have been informed by the principles of the MM approach. Cheng's (1997, 1998) longitudinal study relies heavily on QUAL methods such as observations, interviews, and document analysis, but incorporating a complementary QUAN component (e.g., questionnaires).

From a methodological perspective, Cheng (1997, 1999, 2000) forcefully argues that the complex washback phenomenon necessitates the use of both QUAL and QUAN research methodology. Her argument is strongly supported by Watanabe (1996) and Chen (2002) who also strongly believe that QUAL and QUAN methods can be profitably used together in the study of washback. Because of the role and importance of the mixed-method approach in the washback studies, the present researcher adopted the appropriate methods which most washback research

prescribed. Tsagari (2007) has listed 29 empirical researches and their methods which include questionnaire, observation, interviews, and analysis of documents. Some researchers also use test scores, test analysis, and case studies. The reason why this method has largely been favoured by washback researchers (Alderson & Hamp-Lyon, 1996; Cheng, 2003; Watanabe, 1996a, 1996b, 2004b; Turner, 2002) is that it is held to be able to produce a set of information-rich data (Cheng, 2003; Watanabe, 2004a).

According to Greene (2007), MMR, with its emphasis on holistic, richly detailed descriptions and analyses of teaching behaviours and the multilevel contexts in which those behaviours are nurtured, is best suited for capturing the complexity of the social phenomenon being studied (Greene, 2007). Meanwhile, as noted by Turner (2006, 2007), the MMR has the potential to “help respond to certain types of questions, especially those having to do with classroom contexts” (2009, p.108). In this regard, this approach seems to be best suited for the present research purpose.

## **4.2 Research Methodology for the Present Study**

In the overview of research methodology, an introduction is provided to the MM design as well as the rationale for utilising the MM approach in washback research. Owing to the focus of the study, the decision was made to conduct this study utilising such an approach. The present researcher combined aspects of quantitative and qualitative methods in the stages of data collection and data analysis. Qualitative data collection mainly involved in-depth interviews, classroom observations, and analysis of HSC examination related papers. The quantitative data collection consisted of the completion of a questionnaire. With respect to the choice of research methods, an essential first step to be taken involved an examination of all relevant and available documents related to the HSC examination. In this study, the present researcher conducted an intensive review and analysis of the documents pertaining to the HSC syllabus and curriculum and its objectives targeted by the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) reflecting the EFL education intentions, the HSC question papers in English, and the textbooks used at this stage. The quantitative data collection consisted of the completion of a questionnaire.

The MM approach was deemed an appropriate avenue because of its strength for addressing the research questions of the present study. 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. The purpose of adopting this approach was to devise a solid research design that might maximize the possibility of addressing the research questions thoroughly. The researcher conducted the study in a scientific manner, and proceeded step-by-step applying the following methodology (Table-4.1):

Table 4.1: Research design of the present study

<b>Research Design</b> Methodology Considerations <b>[Mixed Methods Research (MMR) Approach]</b>		
<p><b>Quantitative Method:</b> Questionnaire Design</p> <p><b>1. Teacher survey:</b> <b>2. Student survey:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Five-Grade Likert Scale ( Likert,1932) used</li> </ul>	<p><b>Qualitative Method:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <b>Classroom Observation</b></li> <li>2. <b>In-depth Interview</b> ( EFL teachers, EFL examiners, and curriculum specialists)</li> <li>3. <b>Analysis of the HSC examination related documents</b> (e.g. HSC syllabus and curriculum, textbook, question papers, and the answer scripts).</li> </ol>	
↓		
<b>Data Collection</b> →		<b>Data Analysis</b> →
<i><b>Data Collection</b></i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pilot Study</li> <li>• Baseline Data</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Phase- I</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher and Student Questionnaire Surveys</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Phase- II</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Classroom Observations and Interviews</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Phase- III</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In-depth Interviews</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Phase- IV</li> </ul>
<i><b>Data Analysis</b></i>	Software/Tools Used	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Computer Package SPSS 18.0 for Widows</li> <li>• Microsoft Excels</li> </ul>
	Qualitative analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Comparative method, Inductive logic/analysis Categorize emerging themes,</li> <li>• Developing theory</li> <li>• Organizing the data</li> <li>• Reporting the outcomes</li> </ul>
	Quantitative analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Frequency counts</li> <li>• Descriptive statistics (e.g., frequency counts, means, standard deviations, etc.)</li> <li>• Inferential Statistics</li> </ul>

The above mixed methods (MM) research design was used for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data; it means the data collection process tried to ensure that there could be comparisons made between and within all designated levels and categories across data collection periods and also across the different kinds of data whenever possible. It was believed that the combination of these research methods would allow the present researcher to examine the washback on the EFL teaching and learning from many different angles.

The principle of triangulation is particularly appropriate when investigating complex issues such as washback. For the present study, the data triangulation was achieved by having different sets of data cross-checked. In addition, other standards such as “persistent observation”, “thick description of the content”, and “explicit emphasis on research question(s)” were also taken into account in the present study.

#### **4.2.1 Triangulation of the Present Study**

The principle of triangulation is particularly appropriate when investigating complex issues such as washback. Triangulation is “the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour” (Cohen and Manion 1994, p. 233). To elaborate on this point, Brown (2000), quoting Rossman and Wilson (1985), presents the view that “Data from different sources can be used to corroborate, elaborate, or illuminate the research question” (2001, p. 227). Denzin (1978) uses the term triangulation to define the combination of the data collection sources. Regarding triangulation, Glesne and Peskin (1992) states that the data collected from the multiple sources enhance the trustworthiness and credibility, thereby increasing confidence in research findings. Marshal and Rossman (1989) argue that using a combination of data sources increase the validity of the findings. There are essentially four types of triangulation:

The first one is *data triangulation*, in which data from more than one source are brought to bear in answering a research question (e.g., the data from teachers, language learners, and inspectors in the study by Shohamy et al., 1996).

Second, *investigator (or researcher) triangulation* refers to using more than one person to collect and/or analyse the data.

Third, in *theory triangulation* more than one theory is used to generate the research questions and/or interpret the findings.

Finally, in *methodological (or technique) triangulation* more than one procedure is used for eliciting data, for instance, Wall and Alderson's (1993) use of interviews and classroom observations.

Brown (2002) observes that triangulation must be carefully planned; otherwise there is no guarantee of the validity of the results. He reminds researchers of the importance of acknowledging any preconceptions or biases that might affect their choice of data. Here, for the present study, two forms of triangulation were employed – (i) data triangulation, where data were collected from a number of sources ; (ii) and methodological triangulation, where different techniques were used to elicit the data. This study may be considered a pilot one for future washback studies as it was designed to investigate and learn techniques to explore washback in classrooms, refine classroom washback observation instruments, identify potential differences and variables which might indicate or effect washback, identify useful statistical tools, evaluate the time frames and sample sizes for such investigations, and indicate the necessary scope of future washback investigations.

Wall and Alderson's (1993) study in Sri Lanka provides an excellent example of investigator triangulation and methodological triangulation. Investigator triangulation is illustrated by the fact that "seven Sri Lankan teachers based in five different parts of the country agreed to act as observers" (p. 49), and went through a three-month training programme to prepare for this role. The resulting data included "questionnaires, interviews, materials analysis, and most importantly, observations of classroom teaching" (ibid., p. 44). Therefore, triangulation should be incorporated as a methodological cornerstone in any serious investigation of washback.

From the *data triangulation* point of view, the present researcher explored multiple data sources: language teachers, language learners, examiners, curriculum designers and policy makers. In *methodological (or technique) triangulation* consideration, several instruments such as questionnaire survey, interviews, classroom observation, and analysis of exam related documents were used in the present study to obtain required data. Multiple data sources and using a number of instruments helped the researcher have more authentic and reliable data.

## **4.2.2 Sampling of the Study**

The population is a set of people or entities to which findings are to be generalised. The population must be defined explicitly before a sample is taken. A sample is a subject chosen from a population for investigation. However, random samples are always strongly preferred as only random samples permit statistical inference. In random sampling, all populations have the same chance to be selected, and can be calculated in a study. A random sample is one chosen by a method involving an unpredictable component. Random sampling can also refer to taking a number of independent observations from the same probability distribution, without involving any real population. That is, there is no way to assess the validity of results of non-random samples. The present study used “Simple Random Sampling” while selecting the respondents.

Morris (1996) suggests that the advantage of random sampling is that it is easy to apply when a big population is involved (p.17). Robert (1997) opines that random sampling is inexpensive and less troublesome (p.103). Agresti (1983) suggests that a sample must be large to give a good representation (p.23). Cochran's formula (Cochran, 1977, Wang, 2010) was used to determine an appropriate sample size of students and teachers. The target populations/subjects for the present study were higher secondary students, English language teachers, examiners, policy makers, and the curriculum specialists.

### **4.2.2.1 Subjects**

In the last two decades, most researchers used mostly two types of respondents in washback studies: teachers, and students (e.g. Alderson and Wall 1993, 1996, Turner, 2001, 2002, 2005, 2008, 2009; Shohamy, 1993,1996); the other types of respondents frequently used were: policy makers, curriculum designers, administrators, testers, test developers, textbook writers (e.g. Cheng, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2004). Like the previous washback studies in different countries and contexts, the samples of the present study consisted of teachers, students, and some other stakeholders (examiners, policy makers and the curriculum specialists).

Based upon the consideration of statistical power, three different formulas, developed respectively by Cochran (1977), Krejcie and Morgan (1970), and

Scheaffer et al. (1996), were compared to decide on an appropriate sample size. The respondents were selected both from urban (50%) and rural (50%) colleges. A questionnaire survey was conducted among 500 higher secondary 2<sup>nd</sup> year students and 125 teachers teaching English to the same students. The other participants were 4 EFL examiners and 3 curriculum specialists; the classroom observation participants were 10 English teachers and their students. Among the factors that can mediate the washback effect is the teacher (Wall, 1996) and her/his perceptions about the examination, its nature, purposes, relevance in the context, etc. The participants had the following characteristics:

Firstly, the teachers were currently teaching English at higher secondary level in Bangladesh. So, they could provide the needed information related to the research topic. Some of them were EFL examiners of English subject of the HSC public examination.

Secondly, the students had been studying English at the HSC level; they completed 12 years of schooling with English as a compulsory subject.

Thirdly, the interviewed curriculum specialists had been working in the NCTB. They were selected to elicit information on various issues of EFL testing, teaching, and curriculum objectives; and they were interviewed through semi-structured questionnaires.

Finally, the participants were volunteers, and willing to respond the topic without force. The names of teachers, students, examiners and curriculum specialists are anonymous.

#### **4.2.2.1.1 Research Sites and Selection of Participants**

The participants for the study can be divided into 3 broad categories. The first category of participants took part in the questionnaire surveys. The second category of participants took part in the classroom observations. The third category of participants took part in the semi-structured interviews. The participants were chosen on the basis of their potential for yielding data which could reveal participants' perceptions in general. The research sites included 18 higher secondary government and non-government colleges under 8 districts and the

National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB). The details about these categories of participants and locations are displayed in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Research sites and participants

Name of Districts Participated in the Study	No. of Research Sites	Questionnaire Survey Participants	Classroom Observation Participants	Interview Participants		
				EFL Teachers	EFL Examiners	Curriculum Specialists
1	Dhaka	04	√	√	√	X
2	Gazipur	02	√	√	√	X
3	Narayangonj	02	√	√	X	X
4	Tangail	04	√	√	√	X
5	Narshindi	02	√	X	X	X
6	Jamalpur	02	√	X	X	X
7	Manikgonj	01	√	X	X	X
8	Mymensingh	01	√	√	X	X
9	NCTB	01	X	X	X	√

The present researcher ensured that the participants came from colleges of various geographical locations: large/small cities, rural/urban, north/south. In addition, the selection of participants was also largely based on practical considerations and participants' willingness and interest to discuss specific issues on the HSC examination and its influence on teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

#### 4.2.2.1.2 Questionnaire Participants

The questionnaire survey participants consisted of 500 higher secondary students and 125 EFL teachers selected from 18 higher secondary colleges. They were believed to represent the largest population of the higher secondary education in Bangladesh. The survey was administered during April 2010 - July 2010. The researcher himself administered the survey in the selected higher secondary colleges.

#### 4.2.2.1.3 Classroom Observation Participants

The researcher observed 10 EFL classes in 10 different colleges in Bangladesh. Upon selection of teachers for the study, specific class sessions were chosen for observation. The classes were selected on the basis of the lesson scheduled for that day and its relationship to the HSC examinations. During the observation, 10 EFL teachers and their 511 students were observed; and all of the 10

observed teachers and 355 observed students participated in the questionnaire surveys.

#### **4.2.2.1.4 In-depth Interview Participants**

Taylor and Bogdan (1998) specify that interviews are useful in research contexts where the researcher's interests are fairly well-defined. The interview participants, as already mentioned, were 6 EFL teachers, 4 EFL examiners, and 3 curriculum specialists. They were interviewed through semi-structured questionnaires.

#### **4.2.2.2. Instrumentation**

A good number of previous washback studies elicited data employing questionnaires, interviews, testing measures and classroom observations (e. g. Wall and Alderson, 1996; Herman & Golan, 1991; Shohamy, 1992; Andrews and Fullilove, 1994; Qi, 2004; Tsagari, 2007, 2009; Wang, 2010). In keeping with the general approach outlined above, several instruments were used in the present study. As indicated in the previous sections, the present researcher applied mixed methods research (MMR) approach combining aspects of quantitative and qualitative methods in the stages of data collection and data analysis.

The present researcher used in-depth interviews, classroom observations and analysis of HSC examination related material to elicit qualitative data, and conducted a questionnaire survey for students and teachers to obtain quantitative data, which provided ample insights into the relationship between teachers' perceptions of teaching contents and public examinations. The interviews were semi-structured, conducted in a systematic and consistent order, which nevertheless allowed the present researcher sufficient freedom to probe far beyond the answers to the prepared questions (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998).

#### 4.2.2.2.1 Questionnaire Survey

It is proven that different methods may perform different functions in different studies. In general, many researchers have used surveys (e.g., questionnaires) not only to gather information about participants' characteristics but also to uncover the opinions and attitudes of the participants about washback as well as their views and perspectives on language teaching and learning (Cheng, 2004; Qi, 2005; Turner, 2005, 2008, 2009; Watanabe, 1996a). Cheng (2004) views questionnaires as being able to provide a general picture of how teachers and students react. The strength of survey, based on Watanabe (1996a), lies in that it can detect and explain the reasons behind teachers' behaviours in classrooms. Similarly, but more explicitly, Qi (2005) states that the goal of employing questionnaires in her study is to find out how far the interview results can be applied to a larger group of participants.

If properly designed and implemented, surveys can be an efficient and accurate means of determining information about a given population. The results from questionnaires can be provided relatively quickly; and depending on the sample size and methodology chosen, they are relatively inexpensive. For this reason, the questionnaire has become one of the most popular methods of data collection in education research. It is generally considered an efficient (cheap and fast) method of gathering information from a large number of respondents. Another advantage of using a questionnaire is its high reliability. The questionnaire survey technique involves the collection of primary data about the subjects, usually by selecting a representative sample of the population or universe under a study through the use of a questionnaire. It is very popular since many different types of information can be collected: attitudinal, motivational, behavioural and perceptive aspects. It allows for standardisation and uniformity both in the questions asked and in the method of approaching subjects, making it far easier to compare and contrast answers by the respondent group.

The present researcher used two types of questionnaires: student questionnaire, and teacher questionnaire, to collect quantitative data. Two separate sets of questionnaires were constructed for both students and teachers. The questionnaires were in Five-point Likert scales (Likert, 1932) ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" (strongly agree; agree; no opinion; disagree;

strongly disagree). The 45-item questionnaires were constructed on a number of domains which were affected or influenced by washback such as the syllabus and curriculum, material, teaching method, feelings and attitudes, teaching-learning strategies, and learning outcomes. The researcher developed the questionnaires following the model of Mizutani (2009), Hayes (2003), Chen (2002), Al-Jamal and Ghadi (2008), Tsagari (2007), Green (2007), and Wang (2010). The above models of questionnaires were followed because they dealt with major areas of language testing and teaching, and they were relevant to the present study; their models proved to be appropriate for investigating washback of high-stakes examination, as the HSC examination in Bangladesh. The models of Turner (2002, 2005, 2008, 2009), Latimer (2009), Jin (2010), and Hsu (2009) were consulted for proving the validity, reliability and practicality of the questionnaires.

The researcher prepared the questionnaires in the light of the research questions and the research objectives of the present study. The questions explored the particular washback of the HSC examination and the EFL teaching and learning topics. The items of the questionnaires were straightforward, and the linguistic nature of each question was relatively easy and simple.

The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents directly by the researcher; and the participation was voluntary, and the questionnaires were anonymous. A pilot test was conducted to check the reliability, validity and appropriateness of the questions. Item suitability, item relevance, clarity, and language diction were verified through the pilot test. In line with the recommendations of Wang (2010), the present researcher worked through each of the following areas in sequence: determination of primary and subsidiary aims of the survey, determination of the target population, determination of the approach to recording and analyzing response data, consideration of ethical protocols, production of draft, trailing of the draft, revision of the draft, conducting the survey, and analysing the results.

In the present study, the closed format questions were chosen. They have the following advantages:

- a. Closed format questions have many advantages in respect of time and money.

- b. By restricting the answer set, it is easy to calculate percentages and other statistical data over the whole group, or over any sub-group of participants.
- c. The SPSS makes it possible to administer, tabulate and perform analysis in a relatively shorter period of time.
- d. Closed format questions allow the researcher to filter out useless or extreme answers that might occur in an open format question.
- e. The quality of a questionnaire can be judged by three major standards: (1) validity, (2) reliability, and (3) practicality.

The previous studies show that rather than being a direct and automatic effect, washback is a complex phenomenon. Furthermore, washback exists in a variety of teaching and learning areas (e.g. curriculums, methods of teaching, classroom assessment, student learning, feelings and attitudes of teachers and students). Therefore, the present 45-item questionnaire dealt with the questions related to the areas of the syllabus and curriculum, teaching method, teaching strategies, teachers' and students' perceptions of and beliefs in the examination, textbooks and materials, task and activities, etc.

#### **4.2.2.2.1.1 Student Questionnaire**

The student questionnaire consisted of 45 items covering 6 areas relating to examining the washback of the HSC examination on teaching and learning English as a foreign language such as general comments and their perceptions on the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum, effects on teaching materials, effects on teaching methods, what the learners wanted to learn, what perception and attitudes of the students had as to the public examination, how they practiced EFL skills and linguistics elements, etc.

The student questionnaire (Appendix-1A) was structured in six sections. Section One (from Q1- Q7) aimed to solicit questions about the syllabus and curriculum such as curriculum objectives, teaching the items in the syllabus, skipping items and lessons, etc. Section Two (from Q8-Q17) consisted of a set of questions related to the textbook *English for Today* (EFT) and other materials used in the class. Section Three included questions (from Q18 – Q26) concerned with teaching methods and classroom behaviours. The questions in Section Four (from

Q27- Q32) were about the classroom tasks and activities which usually took place in the class. Section Five included questions (from Q33- Q37) related to practicing the different skills and linguistic elements of EFL. The last section (Q38-Q45) consisted of questions as to the students' attitudes, beliefs, and perception towards the HSC examination.

The questions were closed-ended items in different issues. It included Likert-type questions. The scale used in the Likert-type questions ranged from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' (strongly agree=5, agree=4, no opinion=3 disagree =2, and strongly disagree=1). The survey was conducted from April to July 2010. The completion of the questionnaire took approximately 30 minutes. The questionnaire covered the following domains (Table 4.3) of the EFL teaching and testing.

Table 4.3: Taxonomy of student questionnaire

SL	Components	No. of Items	Question No.
1	Syllabus and Curriculum	7 items	Q1- Q7
2	Textbooks and Materials	10 items	Q8- Q17
3	Teaching Methods	9 items	Q18-Q26
4	Tasks and Classroom Activities	5 items	Q27-Q32
5	Language Skills and Elements	5 items	Q33-Q37
6	Students' Attitudes and Perception related the test and teaching	7 items	Q38-Q-45

The themes of the student questionnaire were based on the issues that were used in many studies to examine the complexity and dimension of the washback on the EFL/ESL teaching and learning in different contexts (e.g., Hayes, 2003; Al-Jamal. and Ghadi, 2008; Wang, 2010; Tan, 2008; Hsu, 2009, Alderson and Wall, 1993,1996; Saif, 1999; Satomi, 2009). Therefore, the reliability, validity, authenticity, and practicality of the present questionnaire were sufficiently maintained from the start. Besides, the present researcher conducted a pilot study twice upon the same students. It was the test-retest method to compute the reliability, validity, and practicality of the instrument. The questionnaire was first administered on 20 higher secondary students (not included in the sample of the study), and then administered once again on the same group three weeks later. Spearman's coefficient of correlation formula (1947) was used in order to find out the reliability coefficient; and the ratings were considered to be sufficient for the purpose of applying the questionnaire, which was 0.93 for the first time of the study, and 0.91 for the second time (a perfect positive correlation):

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d_i^2}{n(n^2 - 1)}$$

The student questionnaire was highly valid with regard to the content, construct, and criterion; the questionnaire dealt with the questions that directly matched the investigation of the study. It is crucially important that a questionnaire must be practical to be administered. Practicality involves the cost and convenience of the test. The student questionnaire of the present study had high level practicality because it was relatively cheap to produce (economic); it took nearly 30 minutes to answer all the questions; and the analysis of the results could be described by descriptive statistics.

#### **4.2.2.2.1.2 Teacher Questionnaire**

It is strongly assumed that questionnaires are versatile, allowing the collection of data through the use of open or closed format questions. The teacher instrument was 45-item questionnaire (Appendix-1B) prepared with the same mechanism as followed in the student questionnaire. The questionnaire covered the issues that were used by many previous studies to examine the complexity of the washback on EFL/ESL teaching and learning in different contexts (e.g., Hayes, 2003; Al-Jamal and Ghadi, 2008; Wang, 2010; Tan, 2008; Hsu, 2009, Alderson and Wall, 1993, 1996; Saif, 1999; Mizutani, 2009). Thus, certain degrees of validity such as construct, predictive, and content can be assumed from the formation level of the questionnaire.

The present researcher tested the reliability and validity of the questionnaire in a number of ways: conducting a pilot study in the form of test - retest, checking by the supervisor of the researcher, reviewing by the senior researchers. Therefore, the reliability, validity, authenticity and practicality of the questionnaire were made confirmed. Besides, the pilot study was conducted to compute the reliability of the instrument. The questionnaire was first administrated on 10 higher secondary English language teachers (not included in the sample of the study), and then administrated again on the same group two weeks later. Like the student questionnaire, Spearman's coefficient of correlation formula was used in order to find out the reliability coefficient of the teacher questionnaire, which was

0.91 for the first time of the study, and 0.89 for the second time (a perfect positive correlation).

The teacher questionnaire followed the model of student questionnaire which was structured in six sections. The first section aimed at soliciting questions about the syllabus and curriculum such as curriculum objectives, teaching the syllabus, skipping items and lessons, etc. The second section consisted of a set of questions related to the textbook *English for Today* and other materials used in the class. The third section included questions on teaching methods and classroom behaviours. The questions in the fourth section were on the classroom tasks and activities that usually took place in the class. The fifth section included the questions on skills and linguistic elements of EFL usually practiced by them. The last section consisted of questions on the attitudes, beliefs, and perception towards the HSC examination. The teacher questionnaire dealt with the following areas of EFL teaching and testing (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Taxonomy of teacher questionnaire

SL	Components	No. of items	Question No.
1	Syllabus and Curriculum	7 items	Q1- Q7
2	Textbooks and Materials	10 items	Q8- Q17
3	Teaching Methods	9 items	Q18-Q26
4	Tasks and Classroom Activities	5 items	Q27-Q32
5	Language Skills and Elements	5 items	Q33-Q37
6	Students' Attitudes and Perception related the test and teaching	7 items	Q38-Q-45

The questions were closed-ended on different issues. The scale used in the Likert-type questions ranges from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' (strongly agree=5, agree=4, no opinion=3 disagree =2, and strongly disagree=1). The final survey was conducted during April - July 2010. The completion of the questionnaire took approximately 30 minutes.

#### 4.2.2.2.2 Classroom Observation

Observation is a primary method of collecting data by human, mechanical, electrical or electronic means. The observation sessions are carried out to address research questions to recapitulate, speculated on the extent to which teachers are

influenced by test contents. According to Wall and Alderson (1993), the perceived value of classroom observation is that it allows researchers to have more direct access to the teachers' behaviours and interaction patterns in the classroom. In their words, it can help determine what teachers teach, and how. Moreover, it eliminates the need to ask individuals about their behaviours or tendencies which are sometimes not reliable (e.g., Alderson & Wall, 1993; Cheng, 1997; Wall & Alderson, 1993; Shohamy, 1993; Turner, 2005).

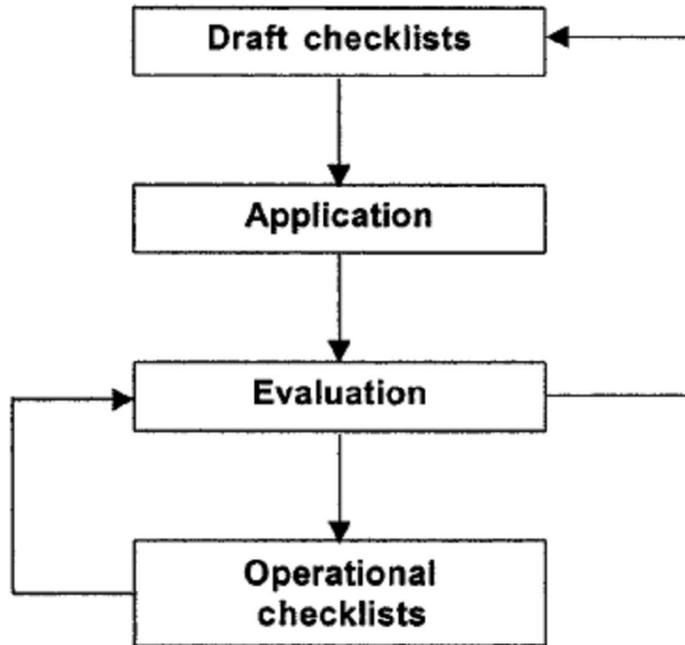
For the present study, the amount of communicative methodology that teachers actually implemented at the classroom level was observed; on average 51 students were found present in each EFL classes during observation. The observation schedules “Communicative Orientation to Language Teaching (COLT)” scheme (Appendix-2A) and “Modified University of Cambridge Observation Scheme (UCOS)” (Appendix-2B) were used. In addition, a self-made checklist for the classroom observation was prepared to elicit additional information that was not in the two schedules above. The observation checklist included examination related classroom activities and the teachers’ personality issues (Appendix-2C). Observation techniques can be part of qualitative research as well as quantitative research techniques.

The main purpose of the observation was to find out whether the HSC examination in English could foster an impact on EFL classroom teaching and learning. Meanwhile, it was hoped that conducting classroom observations might help determine whether teachers’ accounts of their beliefs, their understanding of ELT methodologies as well as their attitudes towards washback conformed to their classroom behaviours.

One distinct advantage of the observation technique is that it records actual behaviours of the teachers. Indeed, sometimes their actual recorded behaviour can be compared to their statements, to check the validity of their responses. Especially, when dealing with behaviour that might be subject to certain social pressure (for example, people deem themselves to be tolerant when their actual behaviour may be much less so) or conditioned responses (for example, teachers say they value communicative competence, but will apply the grammar-translation method and isolated vocabulary teaching), the observation technique can provide greater insights

than an actual survey technique. The present researcher applied a semi-structured observation approach and followed the steps below (Figure 4.1):

Figure 4.1: The development model of the observation checklist



For this study, the present researcher observed the 10 higher secondary EFL classes taught by the English teachers (who also participated in the questionnaire survey), and recorded classroom observations activities while observing. Along with the COLT and UCOS, the present researcher conducted semi-structured observation covering a number of areas to answer the research questions. The present researcher applied this method because it had offered an effective way to accurately record the maximum amount of information describing what occurred in the classroom, and had been used successfully by the researcher in a multitude of classroom observations. The format of the observations sheet allowed the researcher to record everything said by the teacher and the students, with dedicated columns for each. The researcher also recorded the time for each event in the classroom, which enabled him to calculate the percentage of class time spent on each activity, and then calculate how much time teachers spent on specific topics overall.

Reliability of the observations was checked against observations recorded by independent researchers (e.g., Wang, 2010; Fournier-Kowaleski, 2005; Hayes, 2003). Classroom observations were carried out on a small scale among those

teachers who were willing to be observed. As the observation procedure was still in progress, the only changes observed lay in the different language activities teachers employed in their teaching. Ten teachers agreed to participate in the observation. They were three female and seven male; all were qualified teachers. This group of teachers was not meant to be representative of all the teachers of English in Bangladeshi higher secondary colleges. The teachers were selected using purposive sampling (Patton, 1990), and the main purpose was to select teachers based on whether they could provide a rich variety of information about classroom teaching and learning activities in the classrooms in relation to the HSC examination in EFL.

#### **4.2.2.2.1 Rationale for the Classroom Observation Study**

Classroom observation views the classroom as a place where interactions of various kinds take place, affording learners opportunities to acquire. To reiterate, this study dealt with possible impacts that the implementation of the EFL test requirement might bring about in classroom teaching and learning in Bangladesh over a period of time. Therefore, observation was an essential instrument. There are essentially two different approaches to classroom observation: structured observation and unstructured observation. Highly structured observation involves going into the classroom with a specific purpose and with an observation schedule with pre-determined categories, and is usually linked with the production of quantitative data and the use of statistical analyses (Denscombe, 2007).

With the observation schedule, the observer records what participants do, as distinct from what they say they do. Because the observer is not required to make inferences during the data collection process, the schedule effectively eliminates any bias from the observer, and appears to produce objective data. Therefore, with structured observation, it is possible to achieve high levels of inter-observer reliability, in the sense that two or more observers using the same schedule should record very similar data. Unstructured observation, on the other hand, is less clear on what it is looking for, and usually requires the researcher to observe first what is taking place before deciding on its significance for the research study. Thus it involves recording detailed field notes, and produces qualitative data. It allows observers to gain rich insights into the situation, and is suited to dealing with complex realities.

The weaknesses of the two approaches have been debated (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Denscombe, 2007). Structured observation records what happens, but not why it happens. It does not deal with the intentions that motivated the behaviour. In addition, unless a researcher is very clear about what exactly to observe and designs a well-tested observation scheme, the subtleties of the situation can easily be ignored. The data from an unstructured observation usually relies heavily on the researcher's inferences and detailed field notes in a particular context, which create problems with respect to the reliability and representativeness of the data. As the two approaches to classroom observation have their individual advantages and disadvantages, they would better be used complementarily rather than exclusively.

The investigation into the washback effect of English proficiency tests on teaching and learning presented a complicated research situation. It was clear from the start that there would be many intervening factors that interacted in teaching and learning as a result of the implementation of English proficiency tests. This seemed to require a combined approach using both observation approaches, resulting in what might be called a semi-structured observation. Therefore, semi-structured observation was best suited for the present research.

#### **4.2.2.2.2. Observation Schedule**

Observation has long been accepted as an important feature in language education and supervision, but for the past two decades, it has become established as the key process in language classroom research as well. The present researcher conducted classroom observation as one of the major instruments for obtaining relevant data. For this, two observation schedules were designed and applied following the Communicative Orientation to Language Teaching (COLT) Scheme, and University of Cambridge Classroom Observation Schedule (UCOS). The schedules were applied based on the analysis of the data derived from the questionnaires and document analysis.

#### **4.2.2.2.2.3 Use of the COLT, Part- A, and UCOS**

The present researcher mainly used the COLT (Part-A). The UCOS was also used at times as a complement to the COLT when it was necessary. One of the

advantages of COLT (Part-A) is that it can be adapted to different contexts. In this study, Part A of the COLT scheme (Appendix- 2A) was used in its original version to allow the researcher to become familiar with the instrument and to determine its usefulness in this context. The instrument COLT (Part-A) was designed to be completed with the observer coding the classroom events as they occur. In this study, detailed notes of the activities and episodes were taken during the lessons. Part B of COLT, which focuses on the communicative features of classrooms, was not used as this level of linguistic analysis was beyond the scope of the study.

The classroom observation schedule UCOS was used as the second option of the classroom analysis. The instrument contained lists of text-types used in the classroom and a range of task types according to skills. It also identified teacher initiated, exam-related activities as well as grammar and vocabulary activities. On occasions, when activities observed were not adequately represented in by the categories in the original form, the instrument (Appendix -2B) was modified so as to reflect what occurred in the class.

Several significant activities were also observed through a self-made checklist (Appendix-2C) during the lessons, which were not specifically identified by either COLT or the UCOS. 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. Additionally, the study required a more detailed analysis of classroom materials than COLT could provide in its original form. In intensive courses, such as the ones observed, class time was limited; therefore the amount and type of homework given to each group of students was also recorded. Finally, the instances of laughter in each of the lessons were recorded in order to gain some indication of the atmosphere in each lesson, as was done by Alderson and Hamp Lyons (1996) and Watanabe (1996b) in their washback studies.

The objectives of the syllabus and curriculum generated, and the literature review formed the basis of the observations. The instrument was designed to record the following aspects of information:

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.). This was designed to evaluate whether the lessons delivered by the teachers were form-focused or meaning-focused, and to what extent the teachers’ instruction was communicatively oriented.

3) **Relevance to the Test:** The present 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. By examining the materials chosen by the teachers, the present researcher tried to be aware of the contents of teaching.

In addition to the above activities and events listed in the observation schedule, other visible classroom events were recorded in the note-taking sheets (i.e., class notes). 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.

#### **4.2.2.2.3 Evaluation of Examination Related Documents**

In this study, the present researcher conducted an intensive review of the examination related documents pertaining to the HSC syllabus and curriculum, HSC examination papers (English *First Paper* and *Second Paper*), 20 answer scripts, and the textbook *English for Today* for classes 11-12. The HSC examination-related documents, and the aims and objectives targeted by the NCTB are taken as official sources reflecting the EFL education intentions. One purpose of the review was to find out what the HSC examination set out to measure (e.g. linguistic knowledge or language use) and whether or not the HSC examination represented the curriculum. Another purpose was to identify the characteristics of the HSC examination, for they would serve as the basis for a comparison with what was happening in the classroom, and would help determine whether the observed classroom phenomenon was closely test-related (e.g., whether they were similar or there were gaps between the two).

#### **4.2.2.2.4 In-depth Interview**

Both watching and asking are very powerful instruments in any complex research such as washback study. In order to triangulate and possibly extend the findings of the present study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 6 EFL teachers, 4 HSC examiners of EFL, and 3 curriculum specialists. They were all directly involved in HSC education in Bangladesh. This was an interview on a one-to-one basis. It was a supplementary instrument used in the research for eliciting

qualitative data on: how they planned, how they designed the policy, how they delivered inputs, and how they received outcomes. The different sets of semi-structured interview questions (for qualitative data) for EFL teachers (Appendix-4A), EFL examiners (Appendix-4B) and curriculum specialists (Appendix-4C) were designed; and the interviewees answered them in their own ways.

In qualitative research, “interviewing (i.e., the careful asking of relevant questions) is an important way for a researcher to check the accuracy of the impressions he or she has gained through observations” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 455). For the purpose of this study, as in other washback research (Watanabe, 2004), interviews allowed access to reasons behind some of the behaviours observed in the classroom during the research. The format of the interview followed the interview form used by Qi (2004) for her study of the washback effects of the National Matriculation English Test in China. This interview protocol was chosen as the model because of its construction. The researcher had a set of questions pertaining to how the testing programme might be affecting teaching; but in order to allow the participant’s freedom of expression, and to avoid “leading” the participant with focused questions, the researcher engaged the participant in a dialogue, instead of a question and answer session. In the interview with the education planners, the researcher used a small set of questions.

In the qualitative paradigm, interviews provide opportunities for researchers to probe particular variables for detailed descriptions. Concerning the value of the data collected through interviews, Glesne and Peshkin (1992) argue that the potential strength lies in the fact that interviews provide opportunities to learn about the things that might be missed by the researchers to explore alternative explanations of what is seen. All of the interview sessions were noted down minutely in order to avoid missing the interviewees’ comments. In this particular type of interviewing, the present researcher typically told the same questions to each of the participants used. Several reasons for using the structured interviews were:

1. The structured interviews are preferable when there is a limited period of time, and it is possible to conduct each interview only once (Patton, 1990).
2. The structured interviews are systematic (Patton, 1990; marshal and Rossman, 1989).

3. The structured interviews facilitate organization and data analysis as the format of the interview allows researchers to locate each format's response to the same question quickly (Patton, 1990).
4. The standardized interviews increase comparability of responses as each informant is asked the same question (Patton, 1990).

The assent was obtained from all of the participants before the interviews took place. The researcher himself was the moderator and took detailed notes throughout the discussion, including notes on the participants' body language. All of the interview sessions were noted down minutely in order to avoid missing the interviewees' comments.

### **4.3 Pilot Study**

The present researcher conducted pilot study, and used the test-retest method to compute the reliability of the survey instrument. The initial versions of the questionnaires were first piloted in March 2010 on 20 students and 10 higher secondary-level EFL teachers to check the appropriateness of the questions. The results of the pilot study indicated that they were suitable to administer. Yet, some of the student respondents opined that they could not understand the message of 2/3 questions; therefore, they took help from the researcher to understand them. Based on the information gained from the pilot study, they were refined, reworded, revised and reframed for clear understanding; and were administered once again on the same group three weeks later. Spearman's (1947) coefficient of correlation formula was used in order to find out the reliability coefficient, and the ratings were considered to be sufficient for the purpose of applying the questionnaires.

### **4.4 Ethical Considerations**

Ethical issues involved in collecting data, conducting research, and reporting the results were taken into careful consideration. The selection of participants was largely based on their willingness and interest to share their class activities with the present researcher. Early in the interviews, the present researcher informed all the potential participants of the purposes of the research and also

informed them and their respective schools that their identity would be kept concealed through use of pseudonyms. Assurance was given that the confidentiality of each participant's intellectual property and privacy would be maintained throughout the study. The curriculum specialists conditioned that their name should not be disclosed and mentioned in this thesis. The participants' name, identity and their comments were handled with due importance and care.

## 4.5 Timeline and Data Collection Procedures

The data for the present study was collected under a planned procedure and schedule. All the data was collected during February 2010 to November 2010. The researcher used a number of instruments (e.g. questionnaires, classroom observation, in-depth interview, and review of the HSC examination related authentic documents) and collected data from a number of sources (e.g. students, teachers, EFL examiners, curriculum specialists, question papers, answer scripts, textbook, syllabus and curriculum). The analysis of test related authentic documents, the pilot study, the questionnaire survey, classroom observation were all interdependent and interrelated for the study. The research sites were designed both in urban and rural areas. The table below (Table 4.5) shows how quantitative and qualitative data were collected at different stages throughout the data collection process:

Table 4.5: The data collection procedures

Data Collection Phases	Activities/ Procedures	Timetable
<b>Phase-1</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mapping of the site and sample selection</li> <li>• Baseline data</li> <li>• Review of examination related documents (question papers, answer scripts, textbook, syllabus and curriculum, etc)</li> <li>• <i>Literature review</i></li> <li>• <i>Pilot study</i></li> <li>• Planning for survey administration</li> </ul>	<b>January 2010- March 2010</b>

<b>Phase -2</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Visiting survey sites</li> <li>• Seeking permission from authority</li> <li>• <i>Questionnaire Survey Administration</i></li> <li>• Planning for classroom observation</li> <li>• Adopting, drafting and finalizing the Observation Schedule (COLT, Part- A; Modified UCOS; and Semi-structured Checklists)</li> </ul>	<b>April 2010– July 2010</b>
<b>Phase- 3</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Classroom Observations in 10 sites</i></li> <li>• Planning for conducting interviews</li> <li>• Drafting semi structure questions for interviews</li> </ul>	<b>August 2010- September 2005</b>
<b>Phase -4</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>In-depth interview</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• EFL teachers</li> <li>• EFL examiners</li> <li>• Curriculum specialists</li> </ul> </li> <li>2. <i>Data analysis methods and procedures framed</i></li> <li>3. <i>Data from review of documents, and part of questionnaire survey data analysed</i></li> </ol>	<b>October 2010- November 2010</b>

This research design is principally a sequentially exploratory triangulation design (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007). It is sequential because phases of data collection follow each other in a specific sequence over time. When regarded horizontally at each stage, this design has concurrent elements, with quantitative and qualitative data collection. Table 4.5 provides a specific timeline of when each data collection period took place. It also lists the various sources of data, both quantitative and qualitative, that were obtained throughout the entire data collection process. The data collection and data analysis procedures are explained in greater detail in the following sections:

**Phase -1:** The first stage of data collection involved the review and analysis of EFL testing and teaching related documents at the HSC level. The washback effect of the HSC examination at the macro level (e.g., current social and educational context) was examined. The goal of this stage of data collection was to get a broad and holistic understanding of washback and its influence on the EFL teaching–learning areas, and objectives of the syllabus and curriculum, textbook materials, lesson contents, characteristics of the HSC question papers in English, etc. At this stage, the researcher also obtained baseline data from different sources to provide a comparison with the data to be collected later for assessing examination

washback. The researcher carried out a pilot study during this stage. The pilot study took place in February 2010 to March 2010. The first pilot study was conducted during 13 February to 21 February 2010, and again three weeks later during 10 March to 16 March, 2010.

**Phase- II:** The second stage involved the administration of a questionnaire survey. The survey was carried out in different higher secondary colleges through two questionnaires. The researcher visited 18 colleges in urban and rural areas, and collected data from the higher secondary students and teachers. The present researcher distributed typed questionnaires to the respondents, and requested to provide information spontaneously. Survey data collection took place during April 2010 to July 2010. All the questionnaires were administered in the face-to-face classes. Data collection took place without any interference of teacher or the researcher, and thus the researcher guaranteed the reliability of the results. While administering questionnaire survey in different sites, the researcher was planning to conduct the classroom observation. At this stage, he finalised the observation schedules and checklists, and selected the 10 research sites of which 5 sites were in rural areas and 5 were in urban colleges. When the data was collected, the scripts were processed for analysis and interpretation.

**Phase- III:** At the third stage, the classroom observations were conducted in the selected sites. The washback effect at the micro level (e.g., the impact of the HSC examination on classroom teaching and learning) was investigated. Immediately after the classroom observations, in-depth interviews were conducted with the six observed teachers. The data derived from the first and the second stages were taken as the baseline data for this study, and they would be compared with how teachers taught after they had responded to the questionnaire. During this phase (Phase-III), the present researcher conducted a broad spectrum of observations, and chose a true representative sample. At this stage, the focus of the study evolved from an initially broad and holistic set of ideas to more specific questions related to the teachers' reactions to the examination in English. This round of observations was conducted in August 2010 to September 2010. During this phase, he also planned to conduct the in-depth interviews, and drafted the best-suited questions to be asked during the interviews.

**Phase-IV:** The last stage of data collection consisted of in-depth interviews. The purpose of this stage of data collection was to confirm the salient and recurring themes and patterns that had emerged from the data gathered in the earlier stages and to see if the teaching of the target test features accelerated right before the test. In this stage, all data sources were cross-examined to finally develop a theory to explain the findings. The researcher conducted the interviews during the October 2010 to November 2010. During this stage the data analysis methods and procedures were finalised and framed. In this stage, the data collected from the review of documents and questionnaires survey were analysed. When the data were collected, the scripts and raw data were processed for analysis and interpretation.

## 4.6 Data Analysis

A mixed methods (MM) approach combining the qualitative and quantitative methods was used both for data collection and data analysis in this study. According to Bogdan and Biken (1998), data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of collected data. This process entails uncovering patterns, themes, and categories. The review of the literature has demonstrated that there are multiple facets of change of washback that occur at the systemic level as well as within the school and classroom contexts. It was felt that this methodology would be the best suited for capturing the complexity of the processes inherent in educational change. Firstly, a close examination of the pertinent documents (sample test of the HSC examination, NCTB formulated curriculum, textbook, past examination questions, answer scripts, etc.) was performed. An intensive analysis of the characteristics of the HSC examination in English was made; and is reported in the next chapter.

Secondly, qualitative analyses of the classroom observation data as well as the in-depth interview data were conducted. The analyses involved the use of the constant comparative method (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Glasser and Strauss, 1990; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) in which the data were classified into categories. Specifically, the researcher used inductive logic to identify and categorize emerging themes, perspectives and events from a mass of narrative data. Thirdly, quantitative analyses were performed, which involved frequency counts (and/or percentages by

category), descriptive statistics and the following inferential statistical procedures: Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, and T-Test. These were applicable to this study because they were commonly used to analyse interrelationships among large numbers of variables and to explain these variables in terms of their common underlying dimensions.

The science of statistics assists researchers in planning, analyzing, and interpreting the results of their investigations. It provides accurate information about the problem that arouses one's interest. The investigator collects and analyses the data applying appropriate statistical procedures. In the present study, the data were analysed using the SPSS 18.0 for Windows; the descriptive statistics were also used to analyse the responses of the participants. Data were analysed in two phases. Qualitative analysis involved the use of a constant comparative method, while quantitative analysis in this study involved descriptive statistics (e.g., frequency counts, means, standard deviations, etc.). After this initial step, the responses of the participants for each statement were tabulated and converted into percentages. The percentages were then tabulated and graphed to allow a clear view and understanding at a glance of how the responses were distributed across the two groups of participants- teachers and students. Since the responses were actually on a binary scale, the two categories of agreement (Strongly Agree & Agree) and disagreement (Strongly Disagree & Disagree) were respectively collapsed to allow for easier discussion of the results.

Finally, the different types of data sources were synthesized and integrated. To be specific, the qualitative data (through interviews and observations) were compared with the quantitative data (through the questionnaires) in search of patterns of agreement and disagreement. The purpose of the comparison was to find out whether the results from the qualitative data analysis were congruent with those from the quantitative data analysis. As a result of the comparison, the categories were combined and reorganized based on the common features found. The results of the comparison were presented with visual aids (charts, tables, etc.). The data were reviewed in a timely manner so that they could inform subsequent stages of the data collection process. More details of how the data were analysed are reported below in Table 4.6:

Table 4.6: Data analysis procedure

Analysis of the Document	Case Studies	Questionnaire Five-point Likert scale	Integration of Data
(e.g. the HSC Syllabus and Curriculum, textbook, HSC exam papers in English) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>●Goals</li> <li>●Contents</li> <li>●Skills</li> <li>●Methodology</li> </ul>	Observation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Coding</li> <li>● Frequency counts</li> </ul>	Closed items (Likert Scale) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● SPSS 18.0 used</li> <li>●Descriptive stats (frequency counts, SD)</li> <li>●Inferential stats (Levene’s Test, T-Test)</li> </ul>	Questionnaire + Interview + Observation  Qualitative and quantitative
In-depth Interview <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Organizing data</li> <li>● Categorization</li> <li>● Developing theory</li> </ul>		Interview Question (Open-ended questions)-Constant comparative method <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● EFL teachers</li> <li>● EFL examiners</li> <li>● Curriculum specialists</li> </ul>	

#### 4.6.1. Analysis of Questionnaire Data

The questionnaire survey data were analysed in multiple ways. Descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, tables, charts, and graphs were applied to clarify and explain the analysis. Survey results can be presented in different ways: by text, in tables, in figures in charts, graphs and histograms. Tables and figures are useful methods to convey data when the reader or viewer is required to take in information while reading or listening. The tables and graphs can describe larger sets of numbers better than text, and should be used if trying to communicate more than three or four numbers. The computer program Statistical Package of the Social Sciences (SPSS, 18.0) for Windows was used to compute descriptive statistics and perform inferential statistics. A detailed discussion of all these procedures is provided in Chapter Five.

##### 4.6.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

When dealing with the questionnaire data involving various components (such as the syllabus and curriculum, teaching methods, textbook materials, beliefs of test impact on teaching/learning and pedagogical knowledge, etc.), the present researcher first relied on frequency counts to know about the frequencies and

percentages of the teachers' and the students' responses by category, and also examined the mean and standard deviation (STDV) of each question.

#### **4.6.1.2 Inferential Statistics**

The Levene's test for equality of variances and T-Test for equality of means (independent samples test) were performed to examine whether the means of two groups (teachers and students) responded to questions. The independent samples T-Test compare the mean scores of two groups on a given variable. For the independent samples T-Test, it is assumed that both samples come from normally distributed samples with equal standard deviations (or variances). A normally distributed variable is assumed to have a skewness and kurtosis near zero (Arbuckle, 2006). Reliability for internal consistency was calculated using the Cronbach's (1970) Alpha Coefficient.

#### **4.6.2 Analysis of the Data from Classroom Observations**

The data from the classroom observations were first coded according to the categories developed in the observation schedule. Then, frequency counts were applied based on these labelled categories. The analysis involved a calculation of the duration of each classroom activity and instructional pattern in an average percentage of the class time. After that, the percentages of the time spent on each of the categories on the observation schedule were compared to determine the frequency of occurrence of various classroom interaction patterns and activities. After this analysis, the observation data were compared to the data derived from the interviews to see whether they were compatible to each other. As Maxwell (1996) indicated, compatibility of interviews or observations is important.

##### **4.6.2.1 Analysis of Data from COLT, UCOS, and Checklists**

Data collected with the COLT and UCOS observation schedules were processed in different components. Besides, the data collected through the self-prepared observation checklists were compared whether they were overlapped or gone beyond systemic analysis. The instrument COLT (Part-A) was completed with

the observer coding the classroom events as they occurred. Detailed notes of the activities and episodes were taken during the lessons mainly focusing on the communicative features of classrooms. The points of observations were placed in separate categories.

When deciding on the coding of data according to coding categories, it was necessary to reduce the categories in a standardised way. Additional notes taken during the observation and materials collected from the classes were used to inform decisions when identification of an instance was not clear simply from the basic field notes alone. The data collected at this stage was somewhat qualitative, and as such the process was an iterative one. Classroom observation data was recorded in rows and columns in Excel files. Due to the varying lengths of the classes and courses, all the activities were expressed as the percentage of the overall class time. Once the data had been analysed quantitatively, a brief summary of the course was written. The details of the analysis are presented in Chapter Five.

### **4.6.3 Analysis of the Data of Examination Related Documents**

The analysis of the examination related documents aimed at identifying the characteristics of the documents and their relations to classroom teaching, learning and the HSC examination in English, for they would serve as the basis for a comparison with what was happening in the classroom, and would help determine whether the observed classroom phenomenon was closely test-related. The researcher applied different criteria, checklists and guidelines (Appendices 3A to 3F) to review the examination related documents. The analyses of examination related documents determined how these materials influenced the academic behaviours of the teachers and the learners, and exerted washback on EFL teaching and learning at the HSC level.

#### **4.6.3.1 Analysis of the Syllabus and Curriculum**

The present researcher analysed the HSC English syllabus and curriculum following some set guidelines (Appendix -3A) posed by a number of researchers (e.g. Porter, 2002, 2004; Richards, 2001; Brown 1995; 2007). A syllabus refers to the content or subject matter of an individual subject, whereas a curriculum refers to

the totality of contents to be taught and aims to be realised within one school or educational system. A syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists what will be taught and tested. In Bangladesh, the HSC English syllabus directly corresponds and represents to the HSC English curriculum- hence the HSC English syllabus and curriculum can be used interchangeably. So, they are both used as a mutual term in this research. The term "curriculum" in this study is seen to include the entire teaching/learning process, including materials, equipment, examinations, and the training of teachers.

Porter (2004) defines curriculum analysis as the systematic process of isolating and analysing targeted features of a curriculum. Any curriculum analysis most commonly involves describing and isolating a particular set of contents (e. g. language arts content) in a curriculum and then analysing the performance expectations, or cognitive demand, that describe what students are to know and do with the content. Content, is defined as the domain specific declarative, procedural, tactile and situative knowledge targeted by a curriculum. Performance expectations are generally defined as the level at which a student is expected to know and employ the content as a result of the instructional activities and assessments conducted in the curriculum. Through systematic analysis of curricula, educators can begin to compare and contrast various aspects across multiple curricula. Porter (2002, 2004) also makes distinctions regarding the four levels at which curricula analysis may occur. The four levels at which one may analyse a curriculum include intended, enacted, assessed, and learned. The method introduced in this study was only concerned with examining the intended curriculum.

Curriculum and syllabus analysis is a type of methodology within qualitative research. The present researcher followed a systematic process for completing a language-based curriculum analysis to address a critical review of the curriculum expectations which might challenge students with communication difficulties. This analysis leads to the development of strategies for making modifications in the presentation of curriculum material. The history of curriculum development in language teaching starts with the notion of syllabus design. A syllabus design is one aspect of curriculum development but is not identical with it. The present researcher used the following steps to analyse the HSC EFL curriculum and syllabus:

### ***Needs Analysis***

The researcher conducted “needs analysis” of the HSC English syllabus and curriculum because it was a fundamental point to be analysed. Richards (2001) suggests “Needs Analysis” is fundamental to the planning of general language courses. In language curriculum development, Needs Analysis serves the purposes of (i) providing a mechanism for obtaining a wider range of input into the content, design and implementation of a language program through involving such people as learners, teachers, administrators and employers in the planning process, (ii) identifying general or specific language needs which can be addressed in developing goals, objectives, and content, for a language program, and (iii) providing data which can serve as the basis for reviewing and evaluating an existing programme.

### ***Goals Setting or Objectives***

The second step in the curriculum analysis process is to establish goals or objectives. The present study examined the goals and objectives of the HSC English curriculum to evaluate its standard with regard to communicative language teaching and testing. According to Brown (1995, p. 71) goals are broader in their concept as they are general statements concerning desirable and attainable programme purposes and aims”. Objectives on the other hand are much more specific than goals, both in their conception and in their context. Objectives usually refer to aims and purposes within the narrow context of a lesson or an activity within a lesson. Furthermore Graves, (2000, p.93) adds that the goals and objectives are “not set in cement” but “should be clearly stated, as teachers hope to accomplish given what they know about their context, about “students’ needs and our beliefs about how people learn”, and finally “our experience with the particular content”.

### ***Content and Methodology***

A curriculum advocates teaching methods to be used in the class. The teaching methods are recommended on the basis of contents, and the goals and objectives of the syllabus and curriculum. The present study examined which teaching method was recommended to achieve the goals and objectives of the syllabus and curriculum. The study also analysed the contents to be taught in the class. Richards (2001) points out that there are two major forms of curriculum models and teaching method. In the Educational Curriculum context “Methodology

is concerned with choosing learning experiences, activities and tasks, which lead to mastery of the linguistic content of the syllabus, and at the same time, attain the objectives of the language program” (Richards, 2001, p. 15).

### ***Assessment/Testing***

Assessment is an essential part of any curriculum. The present researcher reviewed how the present HSC English curriculum treated EFL testing. Brown (2007) argues “no curriculum should be considered complete without some form of programme evaluation”. He adds that there are three interdependent elements to assess: students, teachers, and programme. Each of these relies on the both the others to be successful, or, conversely contribute to their failure.

Brown (2007, p. 159) explains that there are three possible ways that need to be considered in evaluating the success of the curriculum. First, everybody needs to be consulted (“all the stakeholders/participants”). Secondly the researcher needs to consider the “audience of the evaluation”. Finally, the researcher needs to consider various aspects (Brown, 2007) of the programme evaluation as the following: appropriateness of the course goals, adequacy of the syllabus to meet those goals, textbooks and materials used to support the curriculum, classroom methodology, activities, procedures, the teacher’s training, background, and expertise, appropriate orientation of teachers and students before the course, the students’ motivation and attitudes, the students’ perceptions of the course, the students’ actual performance as measured by assessments, means for monitoring students’ progress through assessments, institutional support, including resources, classrooms, and environment, and staff collaboration and development before and during the course.

#### **4.6.3.2 Analysis of *English for Today* for Classes 11-12**

The present study analysed *English for Today* for classes 11-12 to look into whether the textbook corresponded to the HSC English syllabus and curriculum. The analysis also tried to find out if the HSC examination adequately communicated the lesson objectives of the English textbook. For the textbook analysis, a checklist (Appendix-3B) was applied which was adapted from the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). A number of textbook evaluation checklists and guidelines had also been studied to evaluate *English for Today* for

classes 11-12. Bailey (1999) advocates that textbook washback is a possible result of test use. She suggests that test preparation materials are the indirect evidence of washback. The textbook should give introductory guidance on the presentation of language items and skills. It serves as a syllabus. The analysis looked into whether HSC examination in English had any washback (positive or negative) on *English for Today* for classes 11-12.

#### **4.6.3.3 Analysis of the HSC English Test**

The framework proposed by Bachman and Palmer (1996) is often taken as a theoretically grounded guideline (Appendix-3E) for analysing the characteristics of a test. This conceptual framework consists of a set of principles involving five facets of tasks: setting, test rubric, input, expected response, and relationship between input and response. But here, the present researcher presented and discussed four features in particular which he thought crucial for this study. A test is a part of curriculum, so, the test should reflect and correspond to the syllabus and curriculum. The present study performed the HSC English test: *First Paper* (Appendix-3C) and *Second Paper* (Appendix-3D) analyses to examine the nature, contents, characteristics, and their influence (washback) on classroom teaching and learning.

#### **4.6.3.4 Analysis of the HSC Answer Scripts**

The present researcher conducted “Answer Scripts” analysis to examine whether the examiners’ evaluation/scoring system influenced teaching and learning. The researchers analysed 20 answer scripts of English *First* and *Second Paper* examined by 4 EFL examiners. The present researcher also observed the scoring/ marking procedures of the examiners. Afterward, the examiners were interviewed through semi-structured questionnaire.

Answer script analysis offers in-depth knowledge of the student as a learner on a prescribed course. It can include evidence of specific skills and other items at one particular time and language performance and progress over time, under different conditions, in all four modalities ( such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking) or all three communication modes (interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational). Cheng (2004) suggests that analysis of answer sheets/scripts reflects

students' overall achievement in second or foreign language learning. Like classroom observation, answer sheet analysis is of great value. Bailey (1999) points out that answer sheet analysis is closely linked to instruction, which has two educational benefits. First, linking assessment to instruction means that what is being measured has been taught. Second, it reveals any weaknesses in instructional practices. Andrew (2004) suggests answer per analysis promotes positive student involvement. It is actively involved in and reflecting on their own learning. Li (2009) suggest that answer paper focuses how much positive or negative washback dominates the classroom activities.

Brown (2000) opines that answer papers are the visible evidence of learners' learning outcome. Enright (2004) suggests answer pages highlight how much communicative competence has been achieved opposed to how much it is tested. However, Morrow (1991) argues that answers to tests are more than simply right or wrong, and that they should be assessed on the basis of how far toward an approximation of the native speaker's system they have moved. Tests should reveal the quality of the testee's language performance. For the answer scripts analysis, a checklist (Appendix- 3F) was applied. The checklist was adopted in accordance with the guidelines of Morrow (1991) and Brown (2003).

#### **4.6.4 Analysis of the Data from Interviews**

In general, the data derived from the interviews (e.g. individual) as well as the data from classroom observations were analysed qualitatively by searching for themes and patterns. In the meantime, they were reduced and synthesized using focused summaries pertaining to the research questions and other emerging issues. The general aim of conducting interviews was to explore the breadth and range of views represented by the participants on the topic of the complexity of washback phenomena in relation to the HSC examination and English language teaching and learning. The interviews were also used for the collection of straightforward factual information. Oral consent was obtained from all participants prior to interviews. Face-to-face interviews were then conducted with two EFL teachers, examiners and curriculum specialists. Those participants were members of the target population but not part of the final sample in the main study. The purpose of interviews with teachers was to explore the teachers' beliefs: whether teachers believed that their

teaching had been influenced by the HSC examination in English. The interviews also provided an opportunity for the teachers to give their impressions of the lessons, to describe the rationale behind their choices of activities and materials, and to express their opinions regarding the imposition of English tests as a graduation requirement. The copies of the interview schedule are given in Appendix section (4A, 4B, 4C).

#### **4.6.4.1 Design and Procedure of the Interviews Analysis**

All of the interview questions were derived from the review of the literature and contacts at the preliminary information-gathering stage, and there were parallels between questions in the questionnaires and interviews. All of the interviews were semi-structured with prompts whenever necessary and they were conducted in English and Bengali, and hence the language in which all participants would most likely feel comfortable communicating. All the interviews were audio-recorded and backed up by written field notes in order to trial the data collection procedure and the equipment. At this pilot stage, interviewees expressed no particular difficulties in answering any of the questions. Therefore, the interview schedules were employed for the main study with just occasional minor corrections of wording. All of the interviews lasted about 20 to 30 minutes. Each participant was interviewed once and the interviews were audio-recorded.

All of the interviews of study were transcribed in full in the original language and then translated into English by the researcher. As suggested by Gillham (2005), the transcripts were edited by avoiding repetitions and putting substantive statements in chronological order to make grammatical sense, which facilitated further levels of analysis and provided a relatively tidy and accessible form for interpretation. Morse and Richards (2002) distinguished between three kinds of coding: descriptive coding, topic coding and analytic coding. The process of analysis began with topic coding. The topics were designated according to the categories previously used in designing the interview schedules. The categories were used as preliminary ways of understanding the data as “at the beginning of a study the researcher is uncertain about what will ultimately be meaningful” (Merriam, 1998, p. 179). The researcher then looked for patterns across each of the categories, seeking to identify recurrent

analytical categories. The transcripts were then grouped and edited again according to the new analytic categories.

For the purpose of examining the reliability of the interview data, the researcher went back to the audio-recorded interviews and recoded the previously analysed interviews. The purpose of this approach was to make sure that the present researcher had been consistent with the criteria for analysis. The main study interview data are presented and discussed in Chapter Five (section 5.4). The qualitative data analysis proceeded along the following steps:

#### **4.6.4.1.1 Organizing the Data**

First, the researcher performed minor editing to make field notes and interview summaries manageable and retrievable. Then, he closely examined a small batch of data, and jotted down the emerging themes and patterns. Having developed some preliminary categories of themes, he read through the data, and grouped them according to these categories. He analysed the data logically, and assigned units of data into categories based on shared themes. The method that he used to analyse the data is called the constant comparative method (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The remarks and assertions made by interviewed personnel/examiners during the various interview sessions were constantly compared and contrasted throughout the research process.

#### **4.6.4.1.2 Developing Theories and Reporting the Outcomes**

This step involved simplifying the codes and reducing the number of categories. Specifically, smaller categories were merged into a larger category. This procedure of combining and recombining the categories entailed data reduction. Eventually, this systematic process of induction enabled the present researcher to relate the data to a theory. Drawing on the coding system developed by Strauss and Corbin (1998), he was able to build theoretical explanations, develop concepts and propositions from data. As a result, a grounded theory was developed at this stage. It provides a thick description of the research settings and a comprehensive account of the results. A holistic perspective was adopted when it came to presenting the participants' perspectives and views.

## 4.7 Conclusion

Research outcomes largely depend on the methodology a study applies. Methodology differs from subject to subject and context to context. Since the context may have an impact on results, the researcher needs to be informed of what measures what. Therefore, the present researcher was very careful in applying an appropriate methodology for this research. His attempt was to ensure that methods and approaches utilised were appropriate to capture the washback traces. In general, there are two types of designs adopted by washback researchers: mono-method and mixed methods approaches.

It is a fact that there were not many existing instruments in the area of washback which could be drawn upon. No single uniform questionnaire has emerged as being widely used to survey either teachers or students about language testing washback. Bailey (1999) pointed out that it would be a valuable contribution to the available methodological instruments for washback study to develop a widely usable questionnaire for teachers and for students. The subjects of the present study, the method, the instrument, data analysis procedures, are all validated and supported by the previous research studies carried out during the last decade.

This chapter has presented and discussed several aspects of the research design adopted in the present study. First, an introduction is given to the application of a mixed-methods and emergent design. It has indicated that a mixed-methods strategy is appropriate to this study since each single method has its individual weaknesses. Second, some general background information is given about the participating students, teachers, other professionals, and research sites. Third, a description of the instruments is given, along with a brief rationale for using them. Fourth, the procedures of data collection are explained. The final section has provided a description of the procedures and methods of data analysis.

After analysing all types of data, the researcher made a comparison among data from different methods in order to triangulate and complement the findings. If findings were congruent, interpretations could be made on the basis of the consistent results. When the data showed inconsistency, the researcher tried to speculate on the underlying reasons, and interpreted the divergent results. The next chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Presentation and Discussion of the Findings**

The methods applied to collecting data in the present study have been detailed in the previous chapter. This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the analysis of data collected from varied population and sources in separate sections. It begins with the presentation and discussion of the quantitative findings derived from the questionnaire surveys. After that, the qualitative findings resulted from the classroom observations, analysis of examination related documents and interviews with teachers, examiners, and curriculum specialists are presented and discussed. Given the substantial amount of data yielded from this study, a detailed description of all of the findings of this research is beyond the scope of this thesis. The present researcher was compelled to limit the presentation of results in this thesis to only the findings that specifically addressed the research questions.

#### **5.1 The Questionnaire Surveys**

As introduced in Chapter Four, a survey was administered to the participating students and teachers in this study to poll their beliefs in the HSC examination in English, and their opinion of its influence on EFL education, their views of language teaching and learning, and information about what they considered to be effective ways of teaching. Five hundred students and one hundred twenty five teachers took part in the survey. Both the teachers and the students responded to the questionnaires related to the syllabus and curriculum, materials, teaching methods, classroom tasks and activities, language skills and element, and respondents' beliefs, attitudes and perception as to the test. This section presents the results of statistical analyses. For the purposes of reporting, the decimal numbers calculated were rounded off to the nearest whole number. In the present study, the internal consistency was measured based on the correlations between different items of the student and teacher questionnaires. The questionnaires comprised 6 sections on 6 domains. Under each section, there were several questions. The internal consistency of every section was measured statistically.

Internal consistency reliability defines the consistency of the results delivered in a test, ensuring that the various items measuring the different constructs deliver consistent scores. Internal consistency reliability is a measure of how well a test addresses different constructs and delivers reliable scores. In this study, the internal consistency has been measured with Cronbach's alpha, a statistic calculated from the pair-wise correlations between items. Internal consistency ranges between zero and one.

A commonly accepted rule of thumb is that an  $\alpha$  of 0.60-0.70 indicates acceptable reliability, and 0.80 or higher indicates good reliability. High reliabilities (0.95 or higher) are not necessarily desirable, as this indicates that the items may be entirely redundant. The items produced a reliability estimate of 0.74 (textbook materials) to 0.90 (EFL skills and elements) for teachers, above the desirable threshold of 0.70 (Garson, 2007). The student items reliability ranged from 0.62 (Teaching methods and approaches) to 0.88 (EFL skills and elements). The magnitude of the relationship investigated in the study was described on the basis of the scale delineated by Davies (1971) as shown below:

- 1.0----- Perfect
- 0.70-----0.99 Very high relationship
- 0.50-----0.69 Substantial relationship
- 0.30-----0.49 Moderate relationship
- 0.10-----0.29 Low association
- 0.01-----0.09 Negligible relationship

The present study used two questionnaires: student questionnaire and teacher questionnaire. Every questionnaire had six sections comprising altogether 45 questions. The internal reliability of the questions of every section is as follows:

Table 5.1: Reliabilities estimates

SL	Sections	Items	Students	Teachers
1	Syllabus and Curriculum	7 items	0.79	0.78
2	Textbook Materials	10 items	0.76	0.74
3	Teaching Methods and Approaches	8 items	0.62	0.70
4	Classroom Tasks and Activities	6 items	0.85	0.87
5	EFL Skills and Elements	5 items	0.88	0.90
6	Students' Belief, Attitudes and Perception as to the test	8 items	0.71	0.77

### 5.1.1 The Statistical Analysis

The findings of the study are presented as per themes. The quantitative analysis in this study involved descriptive statistics (e.g., frequency counts, means, standard deviations, etc.) and inferential statistics. The SPSS 18.0 for Windows was used for the statistical analysis.

The responses of the participants for each statement were tabulated and converted into percentages. The percentages were then tabulated and graphed to allow a clear view and understanding at a glance of how the responses were distributed across the two groups of participants. Since the responses were actually on a binary scale, the two categories of 'strongly agree' and 'agree' were collapsed into single category *agreement*, while 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' were collapsed into single category *disagreement* to allow easier discussion of the results. The statements assessing the expected response of the participants were adopted through a five-point Likert scale (Likert, 1932). On the scale, statements were coded as Strongly Agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, and Strongly Disagree=1. Five experts (the supervisor, two senior researchers, and two statisticians) in statistics were consulted in identifying the analytical levels of estimating values of mean scores of each item in the instrument (i.e. questionnaire). What needs to be mentioned here is that the questionnaire statements are reported as if they were questions. For instance, Q1 refers to Statement Number 1.

In the study, the present researcher performed analyses of different issues such as teachers' beliefs, knowledge and experience. However, due to the limited scope of this paper, they are not presented in this thesis. Here, only six major themes are reported: (1) the syllabus and the curriculum and its relation with the HSC examination in English and its (examination) impact; (2) textbook materials and washback effects of the HSC examination on their teaching and learning; (3) teaching methods, respondents' beliefs in teaching and learning, and the ways they teach; (4) classroom activities and knowledge base; (5) practices of language skills and elements; and (6) respondents' belief, attitude, and perception towards test. All the themes pertained to the research questions that were posed in this study.

Some relevant statistical tests had been conducted for data analysis and to draw reliable findings from the current research. Mean (M) scores, mode, median,

standard deviation (STDV), variance, skewness, kurtosis, etc. were mainly performed for the analyses of the data. Some inferential analyses such as reliability, correlation coefficient, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, T-Test significance were performed in the study.

For every question, the mean score was calculated to support the frequency of the findings. The mean score is the average and is computed as the sum of all the observed outcomes from the sample divided by the total number of events. The mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) is a *weighted average*, with the relative frequencies as the weight factors. A distribution can be compared with a mass distribution, by thinking of the test marks as point masses on a wire (the  $x$ -axis) and the relative frequencies as the masses of these points. In this analogy, the mean is literally the centre of mass--the balance point of the wire. Usually,  $\bar{x}$  is used as the symbol for the sample mean. With this in mind, it is natural to define the mean of a frequency distribution by-

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

In statistics, 'n' is the sample size and the  $x$  corresponds to the observed value.

The study calculated the variance and the standard deviation. Both are measures of the spread of the distribution of the mean. The physical unit of the variance is the square of the physical unit of the data. The researcher calculated standard deviation (STDV) because it was a widely used measurement of variability or diversity used in statistics and probability theory. It shows how much variation or 'dispersion' there is from the average (mean or expected value). Standard Deviation (STDV) is the extent to which data differ from the mean.

It should be mentioned that a low standard deviation indicates that the data points tend to be very close to the mean, whereas a high standard deviation indicates that the data are spread out over a large range of values. Standard deviation measures spread in the same physical unit as the original data both measures of spread are considered very useful for the study. The variance is defined to be-

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

and, the standard deviation is defined to be-

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

The standard deviation is a measure of how the data is clustered of the mean. For large sets of data, approximately 68.3% of the data lies within one standard deviation of the mean and approximately 95.4% of the data lies within two standard deviations of the mean.

The fundamental task in the statistical analyses for the present study was to characterise the location and variability of a data set. A further characterization of the data includes skewness and kurtosis. Skewness is a measure of symmetry, or more precisely, the lack of symmetry. A distribution, or data set, is symmetric if it looks the same to the left and right of the central point. Kurtosis is a measure of whether the data are peaked or flat relative to a normal distribution. That is, data sets with high kurtosis tend to have a distinct peak near the mean, decline rather rapidly, and have heavy tails. On the other hand, data sets with low kurtosis tend to have a flat top near the mean rather than a sharp peak. A uniform distribution would be the extreme case. The histogram is an effective graphical technique for showing both the skewness and kurtosis of data set. For univariate data  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_N$ , the formula for skewness is:

$$skewness = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \bar{Y})^3}{(N - 1) s^3}$$

Where  $\bar{Y}$  is the mean,  $s$  is the standard deviation (STDV), and  $N$  is the number of data points. The skewness for a normal distribution is zero, and any symmetric data should have skewness near zero. Negative values for the skewness indicate data that are skewed left and positive values for the skewness indicate data that are skewed right. By the data skewed left, we mean that the left tail is long relative to the right tail. Similarly, the data skewed right means the right tail is long relative to the left tail. Some measurements have a lower bound and are skewed right. For example, in reliability studies, failure times cannot be negative.

Kurtosis characterizes the relative peakedness or flatness of a distribution compared with the normal distribution. Positive kurtosis indicates a relatively peaked distribution. Negative (-) kurtosis indicates higher kurtosis means more of the variance is due to infrequent extreme deviations, as opposed to frequent

modestly-sized deviations. A high kurtosis distribution has a sharper "peak" and fatter "tails", while a low kurtosis distribution has a more rounded peak with wider "shoulders" a relatively flat distribution.

$$\text{Kurtosis} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^4}{ns^4}$$

Here,  $\bar{x}$  is the mean,  $s$  is the standard deviation, and  $N$  is the number of data points.

Skewness characterizes the degree of asymmetry of a distribution around its mean. Positive skewness indicates a distribution with an asymmetric tail extending towards more positive values. In this example, the researcher compared several well-known distributions from different parametric families. Negative skewness indicates a distribution with an asymmetric tail extending towards more negative values. The skewness statistic is sometimes also called the skewedness statistic. As the skewness statistic departs further from zero, a positive value indicates the possibility of a positively skewed distribution (that is, with scores bunched up on the low end of the score scale) or a negative value indicates the possibility of a negatively skewed distribution (that is, with scores bunched up on the high end of the scale).

If skewness is positive, the data are positively skewed or skewed right, meaning that the right tail of the distribution is longer than the left. If skewness is negative, the data are negatively skewed or skewed left, meaning that the left tail is longer. If skewness is zero ( $= 0$ ), the data are perfectly symmetrical. But a skewness of exactly zero is quite unlikely for real-world data. Bulmer, M. G., *Principles of Statistics* (Dover, 1979) suggests this rule of thumb:

- a.) If skewness is less than  $-1$  or greater than  $+1$ , the distribution is highly skewed.
- b.) If skewness is between  $-1$  and  $-1/2$  or between  $+1/2$  and  $+1$ , the distribution is moderately skewed.
- c.) If skewness is between  $-1/2$  and  $+1/2$ , the distribution is approximately symmetric.
- d.) With a skewness of  $-0.1098$ , the sample data for student heights are approximately symmetric.

The present researcher also presents the findings from the inferential statistical analyses. Levene's Test for Equality of Variances and Independent Sample Tests (T-Test) were performed for some advanced level of analysis of data.

### **5.1.2 The Syllabus and Curriculum**

The findings of the syllabus and curriculum have been discussed and analysed in this section. The findings have been tried to be validated through cross referencing. Through the interpretation of the findings, the nature and scope of washback of the HSC examination on EFL teaching and learning in general and on the syllabus and curriculum in particular have been examined.

The test always follows and does not lead the curriculum (Lindvall and Nitko, 1975). Given an inappropriate test, narrowing of the curriculum impedes teaching and learning EFL/ESL (Smith, 1991). Since test contents can have a very direct washback effect upon teaching curricula, it can affect the curriculum and learning (Alderson & Wall, 1993). When a test reflects the aims and objectives of the syllabus of the course, it is likely to have beneficial washback. On the other hand, when the test was at variance with the aims and the syllabus, it is likely to have harmful washback.

A curriculum is a fundamental part of EFL classes. It provides a focus on the class, and sets goals for the student. A curriculum also gives the students a guide and idea to what he/she will learn, and how he/she has progressed when the course is over. The findings from the other instrument show that the test leads to the narrowing of contents in the curriculum. It is common to claim the existence of washback, and to declare that tests can be powerful determiners, both positively and negatively, of what happens in classrooms. The findings of the syllabus and curriculum through the statistical analyses are presented in this section to examine the test's washback on teaching and learning EFL.

To avoid confusion, if a question or statement has negative wording, it is then reverse-coded. The question is coded as 'Q' for shorter presentation. The syllabus and curriculum section of the questionnaire dealt with 7 questions which addressed a number of aspects: (a) awareness of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum (Q1), (b) appropriateness of the syllabus and curriculum (Q2),

(c) treatment and teaching of the syllabus and curriculum contents in the class (Q3, Q4, and Q5), and (d) goals of EFL curriculum and practising and testing of language skills (Q6, and Q7). A number of statistical analyses of the data were carried out to draw results. The findings are presented by themes and step by step.

### **5.1.2.1 The Analysis of Descriptive Statistics**

Since the questions of the questionnaire survey were organised by themes, the statements discussed here are also presented by themes. Both the questionnaires (student questionnaire and teacher questionnaire) were constructed on the same domains of EFL testing and teaching. The number of questions on each domain was equal. Therefore, the findings from both questionnaires are presented and discussed simultaneously comparing the frequency and values from statistical analyses. Now, the first theme touched upon in the surveys concerns the influences of HSC examination on the syllabus and curriculum and their assumptions about the washback effects of the EFL test. Details of the findings of the student survey are also presented in the tables, histograms, and other figures. For the sake of presentation, questions are coded as student question=SQ, and teacher question=TQ.

#### **5.1.2.1.1 Awareness of the Objectives of the EFL Curriculum**

Question 1 (Q1) asked whether the participants (teachers and students) were aware of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum. The results showed that more than 64% students ( $M= 2.55$ ,  $STDV =.1.47$ ) believed (strongly disagree + disagree) that they were not aware of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum, whereas over 59% of teachers admitted (strongly disagree + disagree) that they were also not aware of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum. The objectives of the HSC English (2000) are: to enable the learners to communicate effectively and appropriately in real-life situations, to use English effectively across the curriculum, to develop and integrate the use of the four skills of language, etc. But the teachers and their students were not aware of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum because they only concentrated on the test and test items. They did not teach the syllabus, rather they taught to the test. It is important to mention that the HSC EFL curriculum has a set of objectives to be attained through classroom teaching. If the

teachers themselves are not aware of the objectives, it is hardly possible for them to achieve the curriculum objectives set by the state authority. Details of the findings of Q1 are also presented in the tables numbered 5.2 and 5.3:

The frequency options are coded as Strongly Agree= SA, Agree=A, Disagree= D, and Strongly Disagree= SD

Table 5.2: Frequency counts of awareness of the objectives of the curriculum

No	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ1	172	34.2	321	64.2	7	1.4	-	-	500
TQ1	51	40.8	74	59.2	-	-	-	-	125

As shown in Table 5.3, the variances among the options were 2.176 and 2.675 for the students and teachers respectively. The skewness value for student question was .520 (positive), and kurtosis value was -1.254(negative). On the other hand, the teacher skewness value was 0.312(positive), and kurtosis value was -1.609 (negative). The analysis and discussion of skewness and kurtosis values are presented separately at the latter part of this section. The histograms (Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2) give an overall display of the findings from frequency and descriptive point of view.

Table 5.3: Descriptive statistics on awareness of the objectives of the curriculum

Qno	Mean (M)	Median	Standard Deviation (STDV)	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ1	2.55	2.00	1.475	2.176	.520	-1.254
TQ1	2.78	2.00	1.636	2.675	.312	-1.609

The findings of the question (Q1) are presented in the histograms below (Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2):

Figure 5.1: Awareness of the curriculum objectives (student)

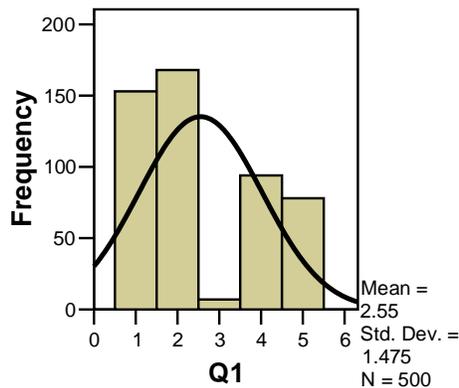
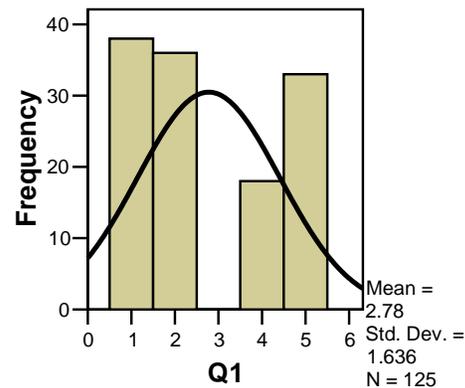


Figure 5.2: Awareness of the curriculum objectives (teacher)



Washback has a deep relation with the syllabus and curriculum. Test contents also can have a very direct washback effect upon teaching curricula. Therefore, curriculum is a vital part of the EFL classes. Very often the test leads to the narrowing of contents in the curriculum. Tests can affect curriculum and learning (Alderson & Wall, 1993). Frontloading alignment of curriculum is commonly practiced in EFL education. A frontloaded curriculum can prevent teaching to the test, which may lead to an extremely narrow and rigid view of the actual goals and objectives of any curriculum. The findings of the study about washback onto the curriculum indicate that it operates in different ways in different situations.

The findings of the Q1 revealed that both groups of respondents were not aware of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum. It is now strongly grounded from a number of studies that the poor knowledge of curriculum objectives is the ultimate outcome negative washback of the examination. The findings of the present study support the studies of Maniruzzaman and Hoque (2010), Maniruzzaman (2011), and Wang (2006) who find that teaching to the test and test preparation are the main concern of the teachers and their learners.

### 5.1.2.1.2 Appropriateness of the Syllabus and Curriculum

Q2 inquires about whether the present syllabus and curriculum enhance EFL teaching and learning. The findings of Q2 (Table 5.4 and Table 5.5) show more than 74% students (M= 3.86, STDV=1.309) and over 64% teachers (M=3.53, STDV= 1.532) suggested that the present HSC syllabus and curriculum could enhance teaching and learning:

Table 5.4: Frequency counts on appropriateness of the syllabus and curriculum

No	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ2	371	74.2	129	24.2	8	1.6	-	-	500
TQ2	80	64	42	33.6	3	2.4	-	-	125

As a cross-referencing question, Q12 asked the participants whether the textbook, *English for Today* for classes 11-12 was well-suited for practising EFL. To this question, 61.6% teachers and 75% students were with the opinion that the textbook (which corresponded to the syllabus and curriculum) were well-suited for developing communicative competence in English.

Table 5.5: Descriptive statistics on appropriateness of the syllabus and curriculum

Qno	Mean (M)	Median	Standard Deviation (STDV)	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ2	3.86	4.00	1.309	1.714	-.910	-.549
TQ2	3.53	4.00	1.532	2.348	-.559	-1.287

The overall objectives of the HSC English curriculum (2000) are: (a) to enable the learner to communicate effectively and appropriately in real life situations, (b) to use English effectively, (c) to develop and integrate the use of the four skills of language (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), (d) to develop an interest in and appreciation of literature, and (e) to recycle and reinforce structures already learned. The findings are also presented in the following figures (Figure 5.3 and Figure 5.4):

Figure 5.3: Appropriateness of the curriculum (student)

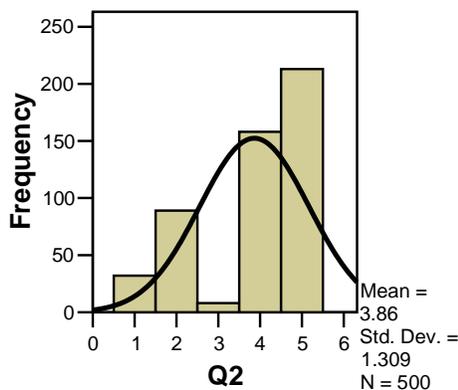
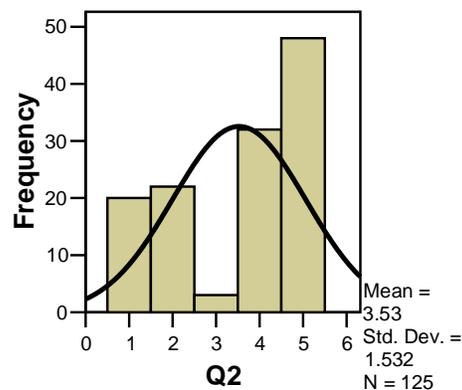


Figure 5.4: Appropriateness of the curriculum (teacher)



In the present study, the findings revealed that though most of the teachers and students were not aware of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum, they believed that the syllabus and curriculum could enhance EFL learning. The view was supported by the classroom observation findings (Section 5.2). It is a well grounded fact that any curriculum cannot ensure that communicative language teaching and learning take place in the classroom. It only provides a set of criteria which, if properly implemented, would give the best possible chance for that to happen. The analysis of the syllabus and curriculum found (section 5.3) that the HSC syllabus was communicative thematically. There is a very strong question whether the set objectives of the curriculum are attainable. Because the teachers do not like to take any risk of teaching the items which are not tested, they consider it simply waste of time.

### 5.1.2.1.3 Teaching of the Syllabus and Curriculum

A group of questions (Q3, Q4, and Q5) asked the respondents to assess their own pedagogical knowledge and their treatment of syllabus contents in the classroom (e.g., whether they knew how to go about things in the course of their instruction and whether they were clear on the principles underpinning CLT). Q3 asked whether the teacher taught every section in the textbook whether those were tested or not. In reply to Q3, 60% teachers (M=2.52, STDV=1.501, Variance=2.252) pointed out that they did not teach every section of the syllabus. About 71% students (strongly disagree +disagree) students (M=2.37, STDV=1.376, Variance=1.894) confirmed that their teachers did not teach all the sections of the syllabus. The following tables (Table 5.6 and Table 5.7) project the findings:

Table 5.6: Frequency counts on treatment of the syllabus and curriculum

	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		Total Sample
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ3	132	26.4	352	70.8	13	2.6	3	0.6	500
TQ3	48	38.4	75	60	2	1.6	-	-	125
SQ4	360	72	129	25.8	10	2	1	0.2	500
TQ4	107	85.6	18	14.4	-	-	-	-	125
SQ5	349	69.8	146	29.2	5	1.0	-	-	500
TQ5	89	71.2	33	26.4	1	0.8	2	1.6	125

As a cross referencing question for Q3, Q11 asked whether they skipped certain sections of the textbook which were less likely to be tested in the examination. The findings of the question (Q11) directly supported the result. To the question Q11, over 70% teachers admitted that they skipped some of the sections of the syllabus, whereas nearly 75% students suggested that teachers skipped certain topics because they were less likely to be tested in the examination. The findings of Q3 are also presented in the figures below:

Figure 5.5: Teaching every section of the syllabus (student)

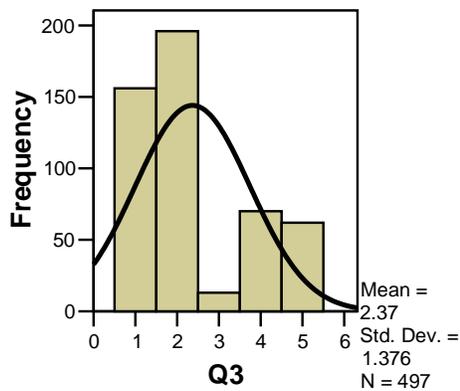


Figure 5.6: Teaching every section of the syllabus (teacher)

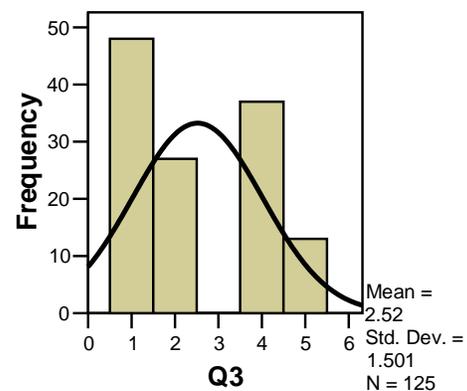


Table 5.7: Descriptive statistics on treatment of the syllabus and curriculum

Qno	Mean (M)	Median	Standard Deviation (STDV)	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ3	2.37	2.00	1.376	1.894	.354	-.731
TQ3	2.52	2.00	1.501	2.252	.354	-1.525
SQ4	3.75	4.00	1.349	1.820	-.834	-.679
TQ4	4.17	5.00	1.183	1.399	-1.580	1.501
SQ5	3.69	4.00	1.400	1.961	-.728	-.944
TQ5	3.78	4.00	1.452	2.107	-.884	-.749

Q4 asked the respondents (teachers and the students) whether they cared about the syllabus and curriculum while preparing for the examination. The results revealed that a huge number of teachers (86%) (M=4.17, STDV=1.183, Variance=1.399) and students (72%) (M=3.75, STDV =1.349, variance= 1.820) did not care about the syllabus and curriculum while preparing for the examination. This findings were also supported by the classroom observation (Section 5.2) using the UCOS, COLT and a self-made checklist, where the present researcher found the teachers

and the students practising the test items (model questions, and past papers) in the class. The findings are supported by Hwang (2003) who finds that learners practise the items that are tested in the examination. The figures below (Figure 5.7 and Figure 5.8) reflect the findings of this question:

Figure 5.7: Caring about the syllabus (student)

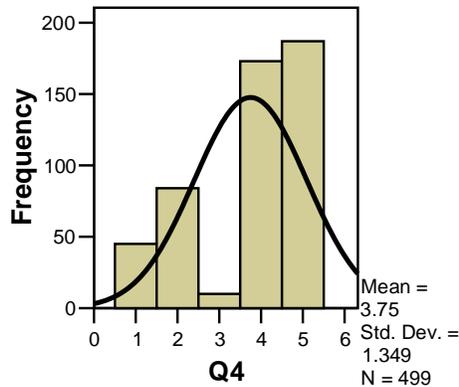
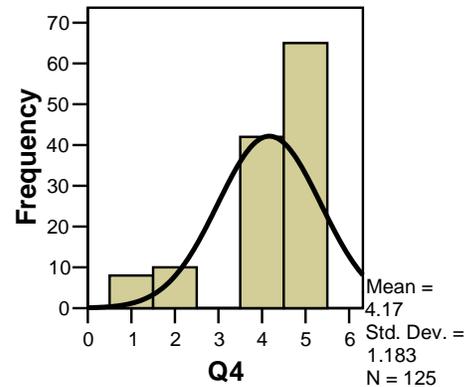


Figure 5.8: Caring about the syllabus (teacher)



From the interview with the EFL teachers, it was found that the teachers went on their own way to prepare their students for the examination. The students also followed their teachers' instruction to prepare themselves. For Q4, Q10 can be used as a cross-referencing question which (Q 10) disclosed that majority of the respondents (75% teachers and over 66% students) believed that the students did not study the textbook materials seriously. The figures below present the frequency of responses of the students and the teachers:

Figure 5.9: Feeling pressure to cover the syllabus (students)

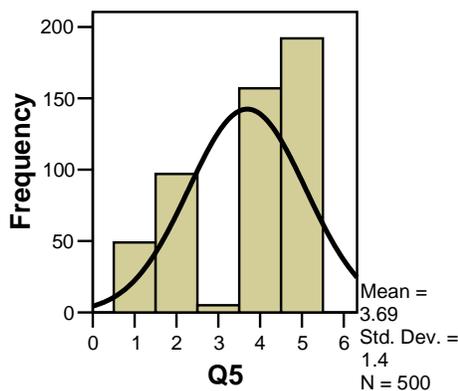
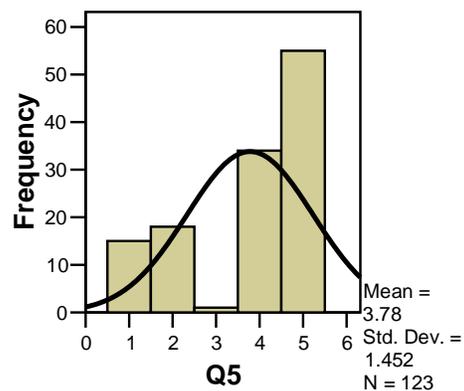


Figure 5.10: Feeling pressure to cover the syllabus (teacher)



It is a well grounded fact that the students do not prefer to study the textbook materials seriously because they have alternative materials such as model questions and test papers. This classroom practice and use of commercially produced materials are the evidences of the existence of negative washback on language teaching and learning English at the higher secondary level.

Q5 asked whether the respondents felt pressure to cover the syllabus before the examination. In response to the question, nearly 70% students and more than 71% teachers pointed out that they felt pressure to complete the syllabus. It is strongly believed that a high-stakes test such as the HSC examination imposes exaggerated pressure both on teachers and students to secure good grades in the examination. This is an observable evidence of negative washback on teaching and learning English as a foreign language. It leads the teachers and students to the narrowing of the curriculum by directing teachers to focus only on those items and skills that are included in the examinations. As a consequence, such tests are said to dominate and distort the whole curriculum (Shepard, 1991).

A test is considered to have beneficial washback when it does not dominate teaching and learning activities by narrowing the curriculum. When a test reflects the aims of the syllabus of the course, it is likely to have beneficial washback, but when the test is at variance with the aims and the syllabus, it is likely to have harmful washback.

#### **5.1.2.1.4 Goals of the EFL Curriculum and HSC Examination**

Q6 asked if the HSC examination reflected the goals of HSC curriculum, that was, communicative competence. In reply to the question, over 69% students ( $M=2.43$ ,  $STDV=1.378$ ,  $Variance=1.9$ ) and more than 59% teachers ( $M=2.76$ ,  $STDEV=1.668$ ,  $Variance=2.78$ ) suggested that the HSC examination in English did not correspond to the objectives of the HSC English curriculum. In this study, their opinion on this question was proved by many ways: analysis of the HSC English test, analysis of the HSC answer scripts, in-depth interview with the EFL teachers and examiners, and above all the classroom observation. The tables (Table 5.8 and Table 5.9) display the detailed findings of Q6 and Q7:

Table 5.8: Frequency counts on practising and testing the competence

	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD+D)		Neutral		Missing		Total Sample
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ6	139	27.8	346	69.2	14	2.8	1	0.2	500
T Q6	50	40	74	59.2	1	0.8	-	-	125
SQ7	137	27.4	353	70.6	9	1.8	1	0.2	500
TQ7	28	22.4	96	76.8					125

Validity of the present HSC examination is found doubtful, because HSC examination does not measure what it is intended to measure. Validity relates to the extent to which meaningful inferences can be drawn from test scores (Bachman, 1990). In contrast, reliability concerns the consistency of measurement. Of the validity considerations for a language test, construct validity is viewed as pivotal.

Table 5.9: Descriptive statistics on practising and testing English

Qno	Mean (M)	Median	Standard Deviation (STDV)	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ6	2.43	2.00	1.378	1.900	.740	-.825
TQ6	2.76	2.00	1.668	2.781	.325	-1.62
SQ7	2.37	2.00	1.365	1.864	.772	-.773
TQ7	2.12	2.00	1.435	2.058	1.111	-.261

It is often used to refer to the extent to which one can interpret a given test score as an indicator of a test takers' language ability. The term can be interpreted to mean that if a test has good construct validity, it is a good indicator of test takers' language ability and vice-versa. The histograms below (Figure 5.11 and Figure 5.25) demonstrate the comparison between teachers' and students' responses:

Figure 5.11: HSC examination and curriculum objectives (student)

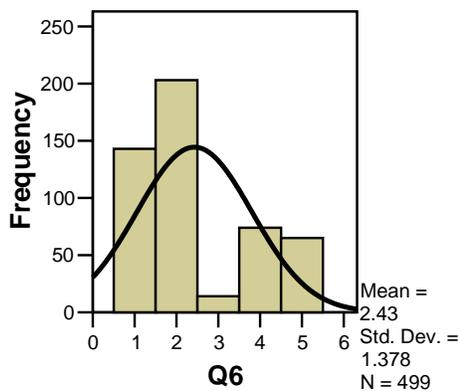
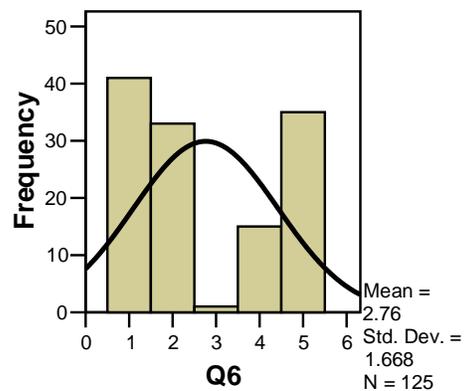


Figure 5.12: HSC examination and curriculum objectives (teacher)



The main objective of the HSC syllabus and curriculum is to attain communicative competence, whereas the HSC EFL examination assesses mainly grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and the writing skills to some extent. The last question (Q7) about the syllabus and curriculum asked if the respondents gave little attention to the examination preparation classes. In replying to the question, nearly 77% teachers (M= 2.12, STDV=1.435, Variance= 2.058) almost 70% students (M= 2.37, STDV=1.365, Variance= 1.864) disagreed with the statement meaning that they usually gave serious attention to the test items. The histograms below display the findings of the question.

Figure 5.13: Concentration on the exam preparation classes (student)

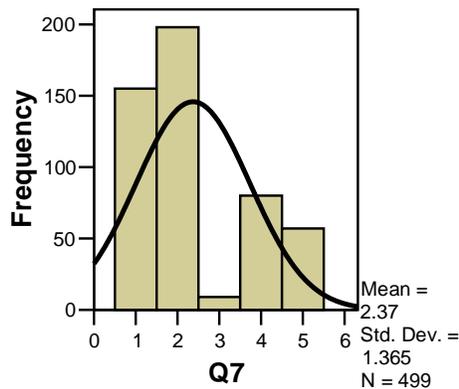
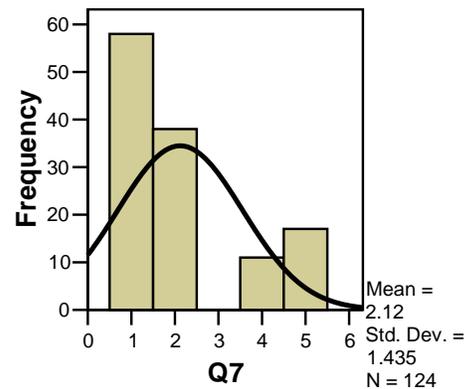


Figure 5.14: Concentration on the exam preparation classes (teacher)



The syllabus and curriculum advocate for the communicative language teaching (CLT), but the HSC examination in English hinders the application of CLT. The study probed into the views on the impact of the EFL examination on learning (e.g., whether the test could motivate students, helped students understand their own learning needs, etc.). The results reflected that the majority of teachers showed negative impression of the impact of the HSC examination on teaching and learning EFL. Thus, the study found mismatches between teaching and testing English.

Chapman and Snyder (2000) suggest that policy makers are responsible for clarifying and elaborating the link between testing and improved teaching and learning. Although Chapman and Snyder (2000) do not articulate the role of beliefs of stakeholders, it can be argued that one of the embedded assumptions is belief change as Fullan (2001) suggests that it plays an important role in promoting desired test impact.

### 5.1.2.2 Skewness and Kurtosis

It was found that the findings of the student questions Q1, Q3, Q6, and Q7 (Table 5.10) had positive skewness (0.520, 0.798, 0.740, and 0.772). On the other hand, the skewness values of the questions: Q2, Q4, Q5 were negative (910, -.834, and -.727) (Table 5.10). The figure 5.15 shows how the histogram skewed positively. On the other hand, the histogram (Figure 5.17) showed how the data skewed negatively:

Table 5.10: Skewness and kurtosis value distribution (student data)

Students		SQ1	SQ2	SQ3	SQ4	SQ5	SQ6	SQ7
N	Valid	500	500	497	499	500	499	499
	Missing	0	0	3	1	0	1	1
Skewness		.520	-.910	.798	-.834	-.728	.740	.772
Std. Error of Skewness		.109	.109	.110	.109	.109	.109	.109
Kurtosis		-1.254	-.549	-.731	-.679	-.944	-.825	-.773
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.218	.218	.219	.218	.218	.218	.218

Similarly, it was observed that the findings from the teachers' (Table 5.11) questions had both positive and negative skewness. It was found that the Q7 had very highly skewed data. In addition, the findings from teacher questions: Q1, Q3, Q6, and Q7 had positive skewness values (.312, .354 .325, and 1.111); therefore, the histogram (Fig. 5.16) skewed positively. On the other hand, the teachers' questions had also negative skewness value (such as in Q2, Q4, and Q5) and the histogram skewed negatively (Figure 5.18):

Table 5.11: Skewness and kurtosis value distribution (teacher data)

Teachers		TQ1	TQ2	TQ3	TQ4	TQ5	TQ6	TQ7
N	Valid	125	125	125	125	123	125	124
	Missing	0	0	0	0	2	0	1
Skewness		.312	-.559	.354	-1.580	-.884	.325	1.111
Std. Error of Skewness		.217	.217	.217	.217	.218	.217	.217
Kurtosis		-1.609	-1.287	-1.516	1.501	-.749	-1.628	-.261
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.430	.430	.430	.430	.433	.430	.431

As mentioned, if the skewness is negative then the data is negatively skewed. For example, the histograms (Figure 5.17 and Figure 5.18) are negatively skewed.

The analysis of skewness on syllabus and curriculum both for student data and teacher data are shown in details in the tables in 5.10 and 5.11. The histograms (Figure 5.15 to Figure 5.18) display the distribution of skewness and kurtosis values. It is found that they are normally distributed:

Figure 5.15: Frequency of responses skewed positively (student)

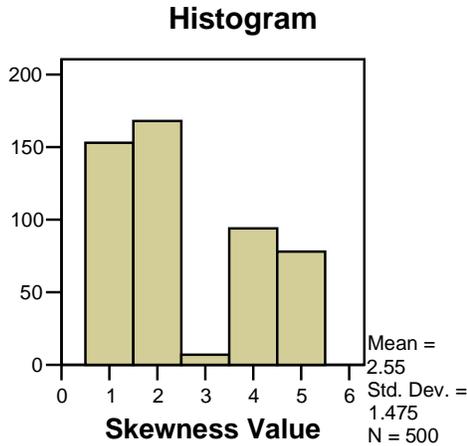
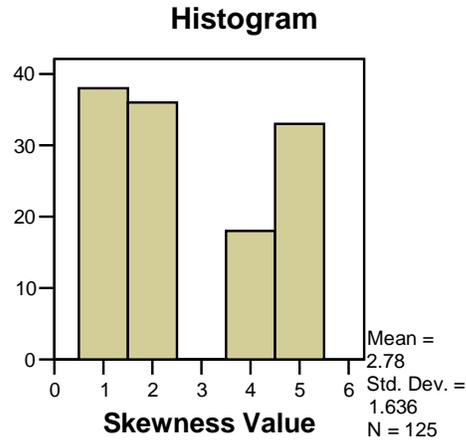


Figure 5.16: Frequency of responses skewed positively (teacher)



From the above discussion, it is now clear that negative skewness indicates that most of the respondents have disagreed with the statement of the question; and the positive skewness suggests that most of the respondents have agreed with statement of the question. The frequency tables (Tables 5.10 and 5.11) show the frequency of responses of agreement and disagreements of the respondents on the syllabus and curriculum. The histograms below demonstrate the skewness and kurtosis values of the questions:

Figure 5.17: Frequency of responses skewed negatively (student)

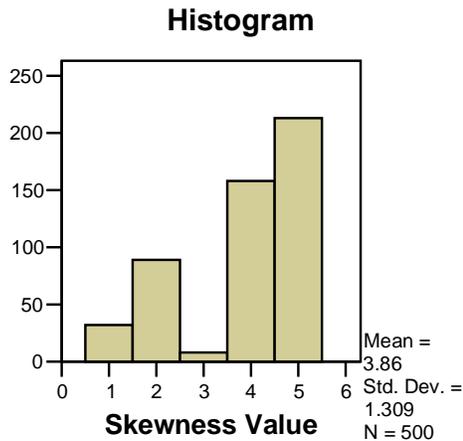
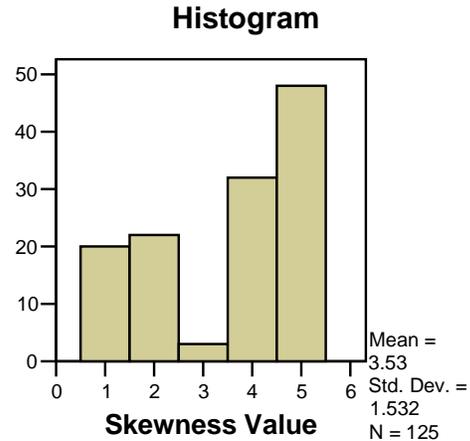


Figure 5.18: Frequency of responses skewed negatively (teacher)



In the study, the kurtosis was calculated to observe whether the findings of questions on the syllabus and curriculum were peaked or flat relative to a normal distribution. That is, data sets with high kurtosis tended to have a distinct peak near the mean, declined rather rapidly, and had heavy tails. Data sets with low kurtosis tended to have a flat top near the mean rather than a sharp peak:

Figure 5.19: Distribution of Kurtosis results (teacher)

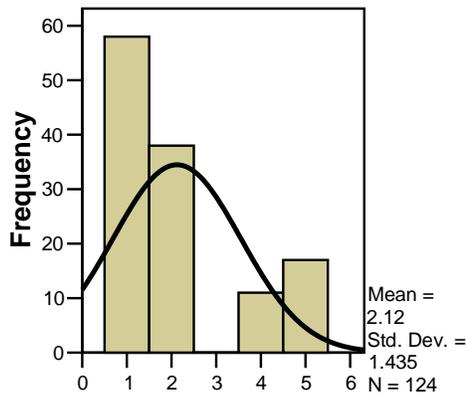
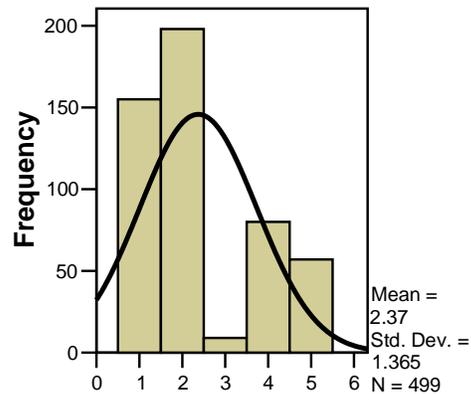


Figure 5.20: Distribution of Kurtosis results (student)



A high kurtosis distribution has a sharper peak and longer, fatter tails, while a low kurtosis distribution has a more rounded peak and shorter thinner tails. The descriptive statistics for the 7 items are presented in the above tables. The means ranged from 1.95 to 3.14 and the standard deviations ranged from 1.30 to 1.47. The medians and modes ranged from 2 to 4. The values for skewness ranged from -1.68 to 1.33, and kurtosis ranged from -.910 to 0.79. All values for skewness and kurtosis were within the accepted limits of  $\pm 3.0$ , indicating that the items appeared to be normally distributed:

Figure 5.21: Distribution of Kurtosis results (student)

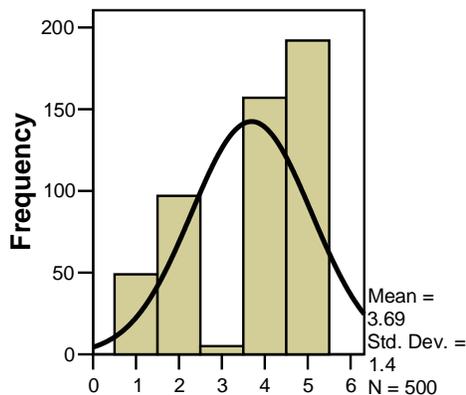
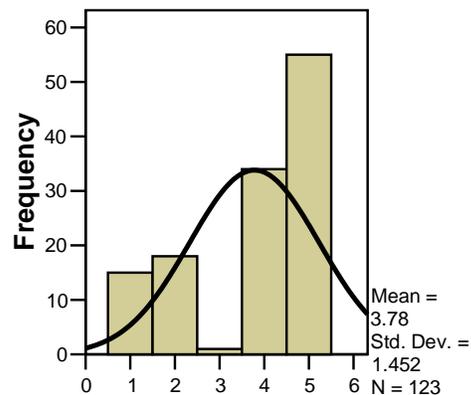


Figure 5.22: Distribution of Kurtosis results (teacher)



Washback has deep relation with the syllabus and curriculum. A test is considered to have beneficial washback, when preparation for it does not dominate teaching and learning activities as narrow the curriculum. When a test reflects the aims and the syllabus of the course, it is likely to have beneficial washback, but when the test is at variance with the aims and the syllabus, it was likely to have harmful washback. Test contents can have a very direct washback effect upon teaching curricula. A curriculum is a vital part of EFL classes. It provides a focus on 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. 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). It is common to claim the existence of washback and to declare that tests can be powerful determiners, both positively and negatively, of what happens in classrooms.

### **5.1.2.3 The Inferential Statistical Analysis**

In the previous section, the survey results from descriptive statistics concerning the principal aspects involved in the washback phenomenon—various components of the syllabus and curriculum are presented. In this section, the major research question of this study “Does washback of the HSC public examination influence EFL teaching and learning?” is answered more extensively. Concretely, the salient findings derived from inferential statistics of the questionnaire data are now presented. Levene's Test (1960) for Equality of Variances and Independent Sample Test (T-Test) were performed for some advanced level of analysis of findings. The researcher performed the internal consistency reliability analyses to examine the homogeneity of the items.

#### **5.1.2.3.1 Internal Reliabilities**

The researcher computed internal consistency reliability estimates (i.e., coefficient alpha) of the syllabus and curriculum variables. The tables below (Table

5.12 and Table 5.13) show the reliability estimates for internal consistency of the 7 items of the questionnaire concerning the syllabus and curriculum:

Table 5.12: Reliability estimate table- (Student items)

Student items	No. Items Used	Question Number	Reliability Estimates (alpha)
Syllabus and curriculum	4 items	1, 2, 3, 4	.79
	2 items	5,6	.69
	4 items	1, 5, 6, 7	.71

For the student- items, the reliabilities of the items ranged from a low 0.69 to a relatively high 0.79 for the students' curriculum knowledge and practice.

Table 5.13: Reliability estimate table- (Teacher items)

Teacher item	No. Items Used	Question Number	Reliability Estimates Cronbach's (alpha)
Syllabus and curriculum	3 items	2, 3, 7	.78
	3 items	5,6, 4	.65
	3 items	1, 5, 6,	.73

For the teacher-items, the reliabilities ranged from .65 to a relatively high .78. In general, the reliability estimated for all the scales were relatively high or moderate. The items produced a reliability estimate of 0.79 for students and .78 for teachers, above the desirable threshold of 0.70 (Garson, 2007).

Table 5.14: Correlation coefficient between teachers and students means

Pearson's product –Moment Correlation				
Correlation coefficient	Standard Error of Coefficient	Degree of Freedom	Two tailed probability	r-squared
0.927	0.053	5	.0026*	.0086

\* = significant at  $p < 0.05$

- Pearson (r) =0.92- among the means in two group of respondents
- $r^2 = .0086$ . The hypotheses for this test are:  $H_0: \rho = 0$   $H_a: \rho \neq 0$

### 5.1.2.3.2 Levene's Test and T-Test Analysis

The present researcher conducted Levene's test and independent sample test (T-Test) to determine whether there was a significant difference between two sets of scores. The significance level of mean differences was examined using independent sample T-Tests. The Levene's test for Equality of Variances was adopted to check the equal distribution in each subgroup. The Independent Samples Test compares the mean scores of two groups on a given variable. The following two hypotheses were dealt with to judge the significance of the difference of two independent sample groups (students and teachers):

- a. Null Hypothesis- The means of the two groups are not significantly different.
- b. Alternate Hypothesis- The means of the two groups are significantly different.

The two groups were independent of one another. The study compared the mean scores of HSC students with the mean scores of EFL teachers on the various issues of syllabus and curriculum to examine whether effect of the HSC examination in English affected the use and teaching the syllabus and curriculum. The Independent Samples T-test determined whether the means of the two groups were significantly different or not. Means and standard deviations of two groups are presented in the table below:

Table 5.15: Group statistics of means

<b>Group Statistics</b>					
	Resp_type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q1	Student	500	2.55	1.475	.066
	Teacher	125	2.78	1.636	.146
Q2	Student	500	3.86	1.309	.059
	Teacher	125	3.53	1.532	.137
Q3	Student	497	2.37	1.376	.062
	Teacher	125	3.03	1.586	.142
Q4	Student	499	3.75	1.349	.060
	Teacher	125	4.17	1.183	.106
Q5	Student	500	3.69	1.400	.063
	Teacher	123	3.78	1.452	.131
Q6	Student	499	2.43	1.378	.062
	Teacher	125	2.76	1.668	.149
Q7	Student	499	2.37	1.365	.061
	Teacher	124	2.12	1.435	.129

For the first question (Q1), students' mean was 2.55 while teachers' mean was 2.78. The teachers' mean (M=2.78) was greater than the students' mean (M=2.55). It was found that the teachers' score is higher than the students' score, but the difference was only (2.78-2.55) 0.23. It proved that both groups of respondents gave almost similar responses to the awareness of the objectives of syllabus and curriculum.

Next, the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances is presented. If the Levene's Test is significant (the value under "Sig." is .05 or less than .05), the two variances are significantly different. If it is not significant (the value is greater than .05), the two variances are not significantly different; that is, the two variances are approximately equal. If the Levene's test is not significant, the second assumption should be met. In Q1, It was found that the significance was .001, which was smaller than .05. It was assumed that the variances were different. If the Levene's test is not significant, the second assumption (Equal variances not assumed) is met. The tables below (Table 5.16, Table 5.17, and Table 5.18) present the results of Levene's test and T-test of different items of syllabus and curriculum:

Table 5.16: Levene's test of equity of variances- significant deference

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
Q1	Equal variances assumed	10.419	.001
	Equal variances not assumed		

\* = significant at  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.17: T-Tests for equity of means for insignificant difference

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Q1	Equal variances assumed	10.419	.001*	-1.485	623	.138	-.224	.151	-.520	.072
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.396	177.722	.165	-.224	.160	-.541	.093

\* = significant at  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.18: Findings from independent sample test

**Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper	
Q1	Equal variances assumed	10.419	.001	-1.485	623	.138	-.224	.151	-.520	.072	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.396	177.722	.165	-.224	.160	-.541	.093	
Q2	Equal variances assumed	17.559	.000	2.462	623	.014*	.334	.136	.068	.600	
	Equal variances not assumed			2.241	171.977	.026*	.334	.149	.040	.628	
Q3	Equal variances assumed	21.879	.000	-4.669	620	.000*	-.664	.142	-.943	-.385	
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.291	173.871	.000*	-.664	.155	-.969	-.358	
Q4	Equal variances assumed	10.467	.001	-3.191	622	.001*	-.421	.132	-.679	-.162	
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.452	212.356	.001*	-.421	.122	-.661	-.180	
Q5	Equal variances assumed	.036	.850	-.623	621	.533	-.088	.142	-.367	.190	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.610	181.926	.543	-.088	.145	-.375	.198	
Q6	Equal variances assumed	30.400	.000	-2.298	622	.022*	-.331	.144	-.614	-.048	
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.052	168.852	.042*	-.331	.161	-.650	-.013	
Q7	Equal variances assumed	.088	.767	1.805	621	.072	.250	.138	-.022	.522	
	Equal variances not assumed			1.752	182.314	.082	.250	.143	-.032	.531	

F= P<.001 \* = significant at p < 0.05

For Q1, F value was 10.419 (P<.001), equal variance assumed. When the equal variance is not assumed, the Levene's test for Equality of Error Variances still offers the valid t-test. In the bottom line, the T value was -1.396 and sig. (2-tailed) was .165 which was bigger than .05 (P>.05) that is, the difference was statistically insignificant (not Significant). The findings indicated that both groups of

respondents gave almost same opinion that they were not aware of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum.

For Q2, the bottom line (equal variances not assumed) was again taken. It was found value of  $t = -2.241$ ,  $df = 171.977$  and the significance (2-tailed) (.026) was smaller than .05. It indicated that the difference between students' response and teachers' response was significant. The students' score was bigger than the average score of Q2, that was, students' score was greater than teachers' score  $-t (171.977) = -2.241$ ,  $P < .05$ .

For Q3, in the upper row, the significance of F was less than .05 in the upper row, so the t value of lower row was considered for interpretation. It was found that the significance of t in the lower row was less than .05. Here, the difference between teachers and students are negative. The t-test showed that teachers' score was bigger than students' score. In the case of Q4, the score of equal variances not assumed was considered for interpretation. The different values were: t value =  $-4.291$ ,  $df = 212.356$ , sig (2-tailed) = .001. It indicated that the difference between teachers' scores and students' scores was statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis (the means of the two groups are not significantly different) was rejected.

For Q5, the top line (equal variances assumed) is used because the F significance was .850 which was greater than .05. The t-value was =  $-.623$ ,  $df = 621$ , and the p-value = .533 (2-tailed) which was quite bigger than ( $P > .05$ ) .05. Therefore, the means difference was insignificant indicating that both groups of respondents had almost same opinion that they felt pressure to cover the syllabus before the final examination. Therefore, the alternate hypothesis was rejected.

In Q6, it was found that there was a significant difference between teachers' responses and students' responses because sig (2-tailed) was found .042 which was smaller than .05. In Q7, the top line was used for interpretation. Here, values were  $t = 1.805$ ,  $df = 621$ , mean difference = .250, and significance of P (2-tailed) = .072. The significance (.072) was greater than threshold value .05; therefore, t-test indicated that the difference between two means was statistically insignificant which meant that the respondents gave more attention on practising test items.

### 5.1.3 Textbook Materials

This section presents the findings of the perception and attitudes of the respondents towards the materials, and their real practices in the class. The assumptions about the washback effect of the HSC examination in English are also drawn from their responses. The theme of this section focused on the 11 questions (Q8- Q17) which were asked to both teachers and students. Bailey (1999 p. 30) refers to 'textbook washback' as a possible result of test use. She points out that test preparation materials are indirect evidence of washback". The appropriateness of a textbook and therefore any consideration of the possible existence of washback must be considered within the specific context in which it is being used as it might be assumed that EFL textbook content and layout vary to some extent.

Though Lam (1994) notes some innovative use of materials generated by the introduction of the revised exam (e.g. the use of teacher-produced authentic materials), he speaks of teachers as 'textbook slaves' and 'exam slaves' with large numbers of the former relying heavily on the textbook in exam classes, and of the latter relying even more heavily on past papers. He reports that teachers do this as 'they believe the best way to prepare students for examination is by doing past papers' (ibid., p. 91).

Williams (1983) points out that the importance of considering the context within which a textbook is used, writing that the textbook is a tool, and the teacher must know not only how to use it, but how useful it can be. Andrews (1994) points out that examination-specific materials end up limiting the focus of teachers and learners, and resulting in what is referred to as "narrowing of the curriculum". This term is also used by Shohamy (1992, p.514) who states that "... negative washback to programs can result in the narrowing of the curriculum in ways inconsistent with real learning and the real needs of ... students". The opinion that there is the potential for texts to narrow the curriculum and encourage negative washback is also reported by Cheng (1997), Shohamy et al. (1996) and Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996). The findings from the descriptive and the inferential analyses are presented in the preceding pages according to themes.

### **5.13.1 The Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics used in the study were discussed in the previous section. This section presents the findings of the survey results of the textbook materials from the quantitative data analysis. A number of statistical methods are used for data analyses. The findings are interpreted from different statistical point of view. For clear view of understanding, sufficient data tables, histograms, charts are used. Throughout the questionnaire, Five-grade Likert Scale (Likert, 1932) was used to obtain data from the respondents.

Like the previous section, 'strongly agree' and 'agree' were collapsed into 'agreement', and on the other hand 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' were collapsed into 'disagreement' as a single category for easier discussion of the results. The histograms included mean score standard deviation, and the sample size to give a complete view of findings of each question. The skewness and kurtosis values were also deeply reflected in the histograms

The findings from the statistical analyses were grouped to have a clear look on the results. Then, the scores for individual statements belonging to each cluster were summed up. In the previous section, the survey results concerning the principal aspects involved in the washback phenomenon—various components of the survey findings on the syllabus and curriculum, and teacher practice were presented. In this part, the major research topic of this study—"how the 'materials' are manifested in the washback effect in Bangladesh context"—is discussed more broadly. The decimal numbers calculated were rounded off to the nearest whole number when the researcher reported the percentages.

### **5.1.3.2 Major Aspects of *English for Today* for Classes 11-12**

The section includes 11 questions. Both groups of respondents were asked the same questions. Since the questions of the survey were organised by themes, the statement discussed here are also presented by themes. The internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of student items was 0.76 whereas the teacher items' reliability was 0.74. In the study, the researcher performed some correlation analyses on the respondents' beliefs, practice, and knowledge of textbook material (EFT). However, all of them are not presented in this thesis.

Here, five major themes related to textbook material are reported: (a) teachers' communicating the lesson's objectives with students (Q8), (b) contents and exercises of the textbook material and the washback effects of the HSC examination on their teaching and learning EFL (Q9 and Q10), (c) their narrowing down the contents of the syllabus and textbook contents, "how to teach and the ways that they teach" (Q11 and Q15), (c) their knowledge on the appropriateness of the textbook for the development of the Communicative competence, (Q12 and Q14), (d) their reliance on the test-related materials (Q13 and Q16), and (e) their use of modern equipment in the EFL class (Q17). All the themes pertained to the research questions that were posed in this study.

### 5.1.3.2.1 Communicating the Lesson Objectives

The first theme touched upon in the survey concerned the EFL teachers' communicating the lesson's objective, beliefs, and their assumptions about the washback effects of the HSC examination on teaching and learning. Question 8 (Q8) asked whether the teacher told the objectives of the lesson while teaching. As the tables (Table 5.19 and Table 5.20) displayed, nearly 72% students ( $M= 2.22$ ,  $STDV=1.395$ ,  $Variance=1.95$ ) opined that their teacher did not communicate the lesson objectives, while almost 74% ( $M=2.25$ ,  $STDV=1.441$ ,  $Variance= 2.075$ ) teachers admitted of not focusing the lesson objectives of *English for Today* (for 11 and 12) to their learners.

Table 5.19: Frequency counts on communicating the lesson's objectives

No.	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	Percent (%)	Freq	PCT %	Freq	%	
SQ-8	129	25.8	359	71.8	11	2.2	1	0.2	500
TQ-8	32	25.6	92	73.6	1	0.8	-	-	125

It indicated that the teachers did not care about the lesson objectives set by the authority, rather their objectives were to communicating the examination instructions, which was about the preparation for the HSC examination. It is found that the evidence of washback clicked from the very first minute of starting the lesson. Both the histograms below (Figure 5.23 and figure 5.24) skewed negatively,

and the kurtosis values were normally distributed supporting the findings of the study:

Figure 5.23: Communicating the lesson's objectives (student)

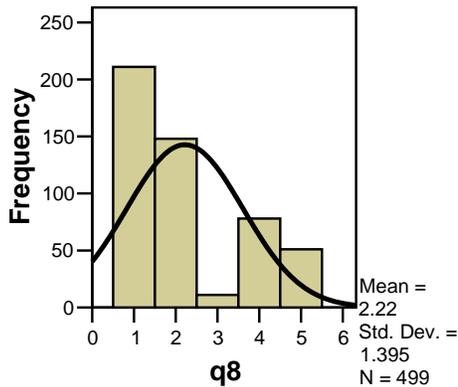
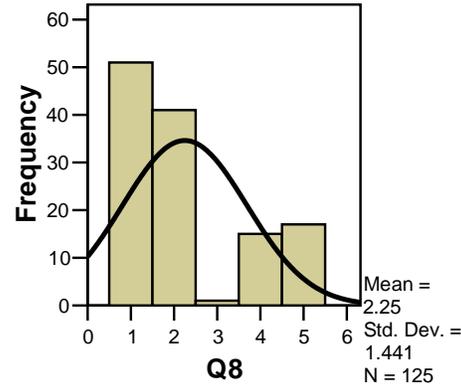


Figure 5.24: Communicating the lesson's objectives (teacher)



As a cross-referencing question, Q1 asked whether the participants (teachers and students) were aware of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum. The results showed that more than 64% students and over 59% of teachers were not aware of the objectives of the syllabus. It is worth mentioning that since the textbook (*English for Today*) corresponds to the syllabus, this reference is considered to be appropriate for interpretation of the results of Q8. The table (Table 5.20) below shows the results of the descriptive statistics of Q8:

Table 5.20: Descriptive statistics on communicating the lesson objectives

Qno	Mean (M)	Median	Standard Deviation (STDV)	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ8	2.22	4.00	1.395	1.946	-.862	-.706
TQ8	2.25	2.00	1.441	2.075	-.920	-.635

### 5.1.3.2.2 Contents and Exercises in *English for Today* for Classes 11-12

The issues, focused on in Q9 and Q10, were related to characteristics of the contents and exercise, and how the students treated with them. Responses to the Q9 indicated that more than 74% students (M=3.87, STDV =1.309, Variances=1.713) and 66% teachers (M=3.81. STDV = 1.479 Variance=2.189) maintained that the

textbook *English for Today* for classes 11-12 covered sufficient exercises that the syllabus and curriculum claimed (Table 5.21):

Table 5.21: Frequency counts of contents and exercises of the textbook material

No	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD+D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ-9	377	75.4	114	22.8	8	1.6	1	0.2	500
TQ-9	90	72	35	28	-	-	-	-	125
SQ-10	330	66	157	31.4	11	2.2	2	0.4	500
TQ-10	93	74.4	31	24.8	-		1	0.8	125

Figure 5.25: Exercises of the textbook (student)

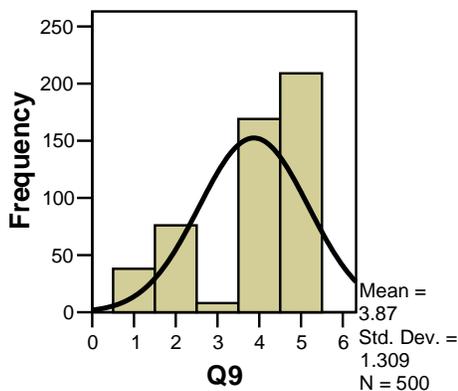
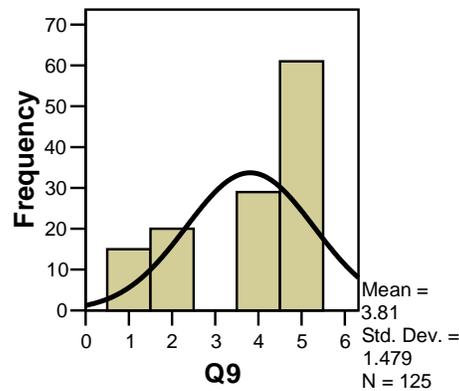


Figure 5.26: Exercises of the textbook (teacher)



As a cross referencing question, Q2 asked whether the syllabus would enhance EFL learning. The results showed that more than 74% students and 64 % teachers believed that the present HSC syllabus and curriculum could enhance learning. Therefore, it is principled that the textbook and its contents do not influence negatively on teaching and learning, but it is the influence of examination (washback) that hinders them practising those exercises for attaining communicative competence.

The detailed findings including skewness and kurtosis are presented in table below (Table 5.22): The histograms skewed negatively because skewness values were negative. The kurtosis values were also negative with proper shape and peak (Figure 5.25 and Figure 5.26) indicating that they were normally distributed:

Table 5.22: Descriptive statistics on contents and exercises of the textbook

Qno	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ9	3.87	4.00	1.309	1.713	-.986	-.353
TQ9	3.81	4.00	1.479	2.189	-.878	-.831
SQ10	3.61	4.00	1.408	1.984	-.599	-1.127
TQ10	3.85	4.00	1.407	1.979	-.985	-.514

In response to the Q10, 66% students (M= 3.61, STDV =1.408, Variance=1.984) admitted that they did not study the textbook materials seriously while more than 74% teachers (M= 3.85, STDV =1.407, Variance=1.979) pointed out their students were reluctant in studying the textbook materials. The findings of this question can be validated through the cross-referencing by Q11 and Q13. The findings of both the questions (Q11 and Q13) supported the views of teachers and students on this (Q10) issue. The details of findings from the descriptive statistical analyses, skewness and kurtosis values are displayed in the tables (Table 5.21 & Table 5.22). The histograms (Figure 5.25 to Figure 5.28) have displayed the multilevel findings including the distribution of skewness and kurtosis values of Q9 and Q10:

Figure 5.27: Studying of the textbook materials (student)

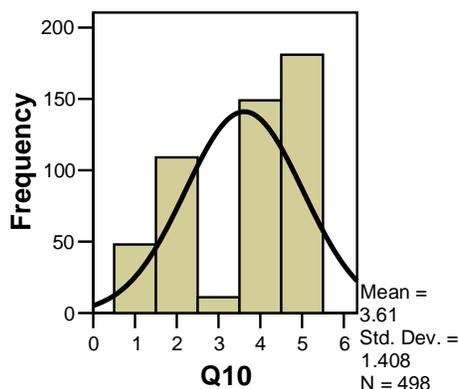
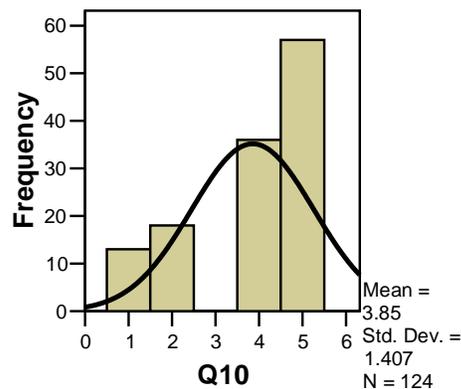


Figure 5.28: Studying of the textbook materials (teacher)



It was found that the students did not study the prescribed textbook (EFT) material because they preferred commercially produced test-related materials for the preparation of the examination. Furthermore, the students preferred to study some selected lessons and exercises likely to be tested. The findings are supported by the study of Han et al. (2004) in China. Their study finds that the teachers and the

learners are greatly dependent on commercially produced test related materials for the preparation of College English Test (CET).

Lam, (1994, p. 83) mentions that "... about 50% of the teachers appear to be "textbook slaves" in teaching the sections of the test related to listening, reading, and language systems, and practical skills for work and study". This reliance on textbooks in this context is evidence of negative washback because instead of introducing more authentic materials (the teachers) prefer to use commercial textbooks, most of which are basically modified copies of the examination paper.

### 5.1.3.2.3 Skipping and Narrowing the Contents of *English for Today*

The issues focused on in Q11 and Q15 were related to the respondents' views of skipping and narrowing the contents of the textbook (*English for Today* for classes-11 and 12), their concern about the test, and their role in the language classroom. Responses to Q11, nearly 75% students (M=3.85, STDV=1.29) commented that the teachers skipped certain sections of the textbook because they were unlikely to be tested in the examination. On this issue, more than 70% teachers (M=3.75, STDV=1.54) agreed with the students' claim (Table 5.24). The histograms were negatively skewed (-.912 (student) and -.831 (teacher) indicating that most of the respondents of both groups agreed with the statement of the question. The kurtosis values for students (-.511) and teachers (-.959) are negative and normally distributed (Figure 5.29 and Figure 5.30):

Figure 5.29: Skipping and narrowing the contents (student)

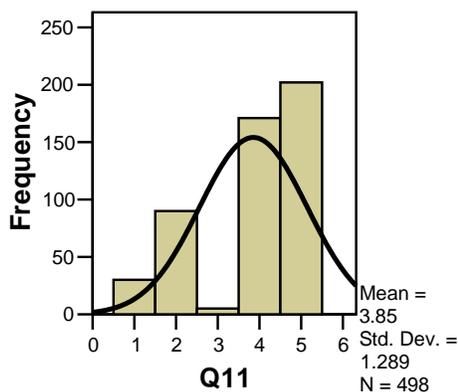
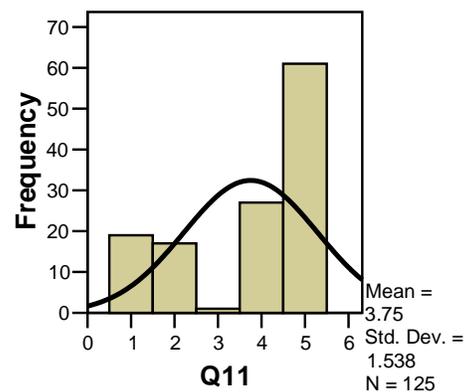


Figure 5.30: Skipping and narrowing the contents (teacher)



With regard to Q15, about 74% students (Table 5.23) believed that they would perform badly in the examination if they studied the whole textbook. To respond to the same question, more than 63% teachers agreed with the statement of the students on studying whole textbook (EFT). The histograms below (Figure 5.31, Figure 5.32) display the skewness and kurtosis of Q15 for both groups of respondents:

Figure 5.31: Studying of the whole textbook (student)

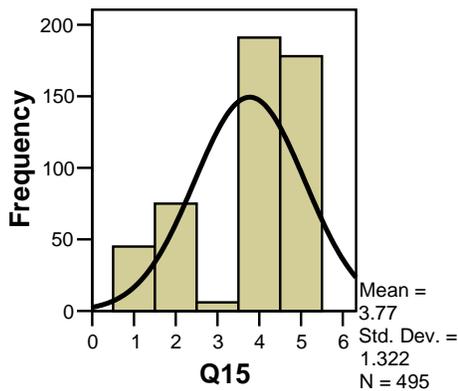


Figure 5.32: Studying of the whole textbook (teacher)

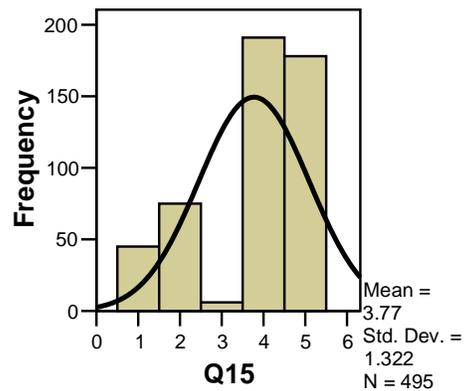


Table 5.23: Frequency counts on skipping and narrowing the contents

Qno.	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	PCT %	Freq	PCT %	
SQ-11	373	74.6	120	24	5	1.0	2	0.4	500
TQ-11	88	70.4	36	28.8	1	0.8	-	-	125
SQ-15	369	73.8	120	24	6	1.2	5	1.0	500
TQ-15	79	63.2	44	35.2	2	1.6	-	-	125

The findings of both the questions were validated through a number of instruments (e.g. interview). The findings of these two questions further validated through cross referencing with the findings of Q3 and Q7 which gave almost similar results indicating that the teachers made their students practise those items which are usually tested and ignored those which were less likely to be tested in the examination. The table below (Table 5.24) presents the findings from descriptive statistics:

Table 5.24: Descriptive statistics on contents and exercises of the textbook

Qno.	Mean	Median	Standard. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ11	3.85	4.00	1.289	1.663	-.912	-.511
TQ11	3.75	4.00	1.538	2.365	-.831	-.959
SQ15	3.77	4.00	1.322	1.747	.110	-.466
TQ15	3.53	4.00	1.574	2.477	-.532	-1.379

From the findings described above and shown in the tables (Table 5.34 & Table 5.35), it very clear that there is enough evidence of negative washback of the HSC examination on the teaching and learning English in general and on the use of textbook (English for Today) material in particular.

#### 5.1.3.2.4 Awareness of the Usefulness of *English for Today*

Q12 and Q14 were about the respondents' views on the characteristics and the usefulness of the textbook contents. Q12 asked whether the *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) was well-suited one to practise for developing the communicative competence. About 75% students (M=3.79, STDV =1.285, Variance=1.652) and nearly 62% teachers (M=3.39, STDV =1.550, Variance=2.402) confirmed that the textbook was well-suited one to practise for developing the communicative competence (Table 5.25 and 5.26). Referring to the Q14, almost 72% students (M=3.79, STDV =1.424) and almost 70% teachers (M=3.72, STDV =1.457) pointed out that the textbook (English for Today) contents were interesting (Table 5.25). The findings supported the claims of NCTB that the textbook, *English for Today* was written with communicative view of teaching and learning with interesting materials:

Table 5.25: Frequency counts on the characteristics of the present textbook

	Significant Frequency				Negligible frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
No	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	PCT %	Freq	PCT %	
SQ-12	374	74.8	121	24.2	4	0.8	1	0.2	500
TQ-12	77	61.6	45	36	3	2.4	-	-	125
SQ-14	358	71.6	132	26.4	7	1.4	3	0.6	500
TQ-14	87	69.6	37	29.6	1	0.8	-	-	125

Figure 5.33: Characteristics of the textbook (student)

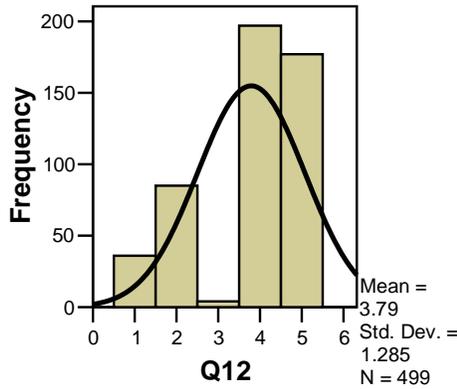
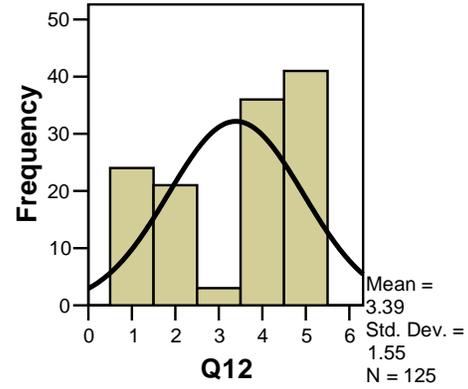


Figure 5.34: Characteristics of the textbook (teacher)



There are strong consistency and correlation in the participants' responses. For the cross-referencing of the findings, Q9 may be mentioned which asked whether the textbook covered sufficient exercises and opportunities for practising EFL. The results of this question coincided with the above two questions (Q12 and Q14). The figures (Figure 5.33 to Figure 5.36) display frequencies, means and standard deviations. The histograms are skewed negatively supporting the responses of teachers and students. The findings of these two questions are supported by Gu (2005) who finds that students give more attention when the tasks are interesting:

Figure 5.35: Quality of the textbook lessons (student)

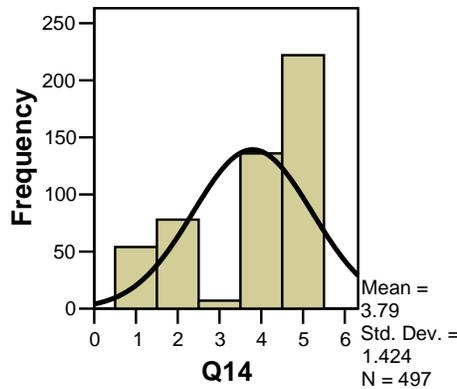


Figure 5.36: Quality of the textbook lessons (teacher)

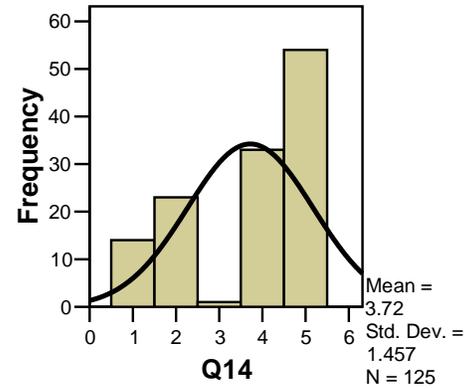


Table 5.26: Descriptive statistics on contents and exercises of the textbook

Qno	Mean (M)	Median	Standard Deviation (STDV)	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ12	3.79	4.00	1.285	1.652	-.906	-.462
TQ12	3.39	4.00	1.550	2.402	-.455	-1.396
SQ14	3.79	4.00	1.424	2.028	-.981	.219
TQ14	3.72	4.00	1.457	2.123	-.756	-.983

The washback of the HSC examination compels the respondents to avoid practising any appropriate textbook like this, *English for Toady* (for classes 11-12). The strong evidence of negative washback is found in this section. It was found that the teachers did not teach to the contents of textbook, rather they taught to the test. Though the textbook contents were interesting, both groups of respondents preferred to practise commercially produced materials for the preparation of HSC examination. The illustrated tables (Table 5.25 and Table 5.26) project the findings in detail.

### 5.1.3.2.5 Types of Materials Used in the Class

Q13, Q16 and Q17 asked about the use of test-related materials and equipment used in the class. In reply to Q13, about 76% students (M=3.91, STDV =1.265, Variance=1.600) and 69% teachers (M=3.70, STDV =1.529, Variance= 2.339) disclosed that they relied on the test-related materials in the classroom for the preparation of the examination (Table 5.27 and Table 5.28). In stead of using the textbook (*English for Today*), most of the teachers were heavily dependent on the test papers, guidebooks, suggestion book, past questions, etc.

The findings are supported by the classroom observation, where the present researcher found that nearly 80% EFL teachers used commercially produced guide books, test papers, model questions, etc. The findings are further validated by the findings of the interviews with the EFL teachers. The interviewed teachers revealed that they used test related guide book, suggestion book, etc. to prepare their students. The tables and figures below demonstrate the detailed findings of the 3 questions:

Table 5.27: Frequency counts on the types of materials used

	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
Qno.	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	PCT %	Freq	PCT %	
SQ-13	378	75.6	110	22	10	2.0	2	0.4	500
TQ-13	86	68.8	38	30.4	1	0.8	-	-	125
SQ-16	31	24.8	92	73.6	2	1.6	-	-	125
TQ-16	89	17.8	398	79.6	11	2.2	2	0.4	500
SQ-17	112	22.4	376	75.2	8	1.6	-	-	500
TQ-17	17	13.6	106	84.8	2	1.6	-	-	125

Figure 5.37: Reliance on test-related materials (student)

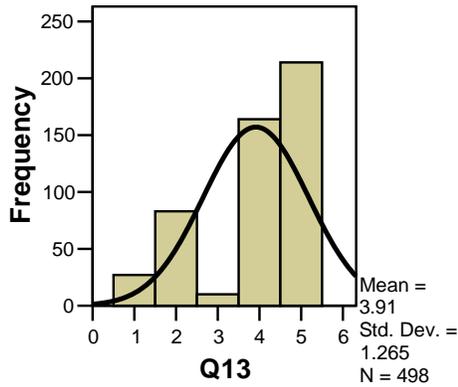
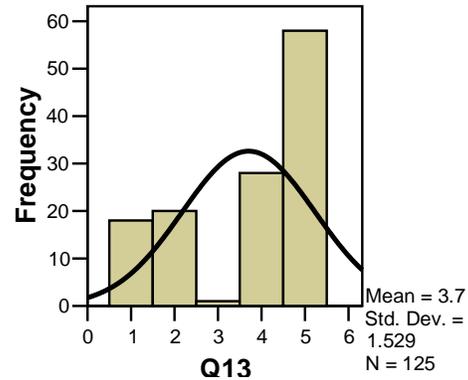


Figure 5.38: Reliance on test-related materials (teacher)



This findings are again supported by Cheng (1997, p.50) who notes the existence of workbooks specifically designed to prepare students for examination papers in the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination and the heavy reliance of teachers on these workbooks. On the topic of textbook evaluation, Williams (1983, p.254) highlighted the importance of considering the context within which a textbook is used.

For cross- referencing of the findings, the results of the Q3, Q7, and Q27 were checked and coordinated; and it was found that the findings were valid. The reliability of the findings was once again proved by a number of ways such as the classroom observation, and interview with the teachers. During the classroom observation the researcher found that most of the observed teachers (80%) used the direct test related materials in their class while 30% observed teachers did not bring the original textbook for the practice in the class:

Table 5.28: Descriptive statistics on the types of materials used

Qno	Mean	Median	Standard. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ13	3.91	4.00	1.265	1.600	-.981	-.343
TQ13	3.70	4.00	1.529	2.339	-.752	-1.071
SQ16	2.08	2.00	1.241	1.541	1.213	.385
TQ16	2.26	2.00	1.442	2.079	.935	-.595
SQ17	2.05	1.00	1.418	2.011	1.098	-.315
TQ17	1.96	2.00	1.174	1.377	1.508	1.481

Figure 5.39: Use of authentic materials (student)

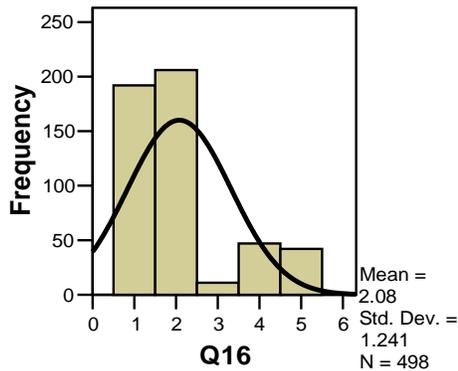
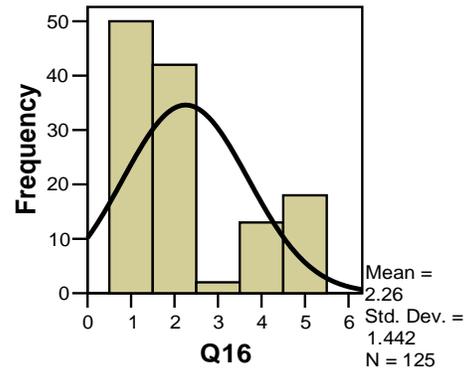


Figure 5.40: Use of authentic materials (teacher)



For Q16, nearly 74% students (M=2.26, STDV = 1.442, Variance= 1.241) and 80% teachers (M= 2.26, STDV = 1.442, variance= 2.079) commented that teachers did not use authentic materials in the classroom. Authenticity is very important, as Bailey (1996, p.276) referring to a test promoting positive washback states, "... a test will yield positive washback to the learner and to the programme to the extent that it utilises authentic tasks and authentic texts".

For the Q17, approximately 85% teachers admitted that they did not use any modern equipment in the class while more than 75% students supported their teacher's statement of not using the modern technology in the language classroom (Table 5.27). The histograms (Figure 5.39 to Figure 5.42) display the detailed findings along with the projection of skewness and kurtosis values. The figures display that they are properly skewed and shaped with properly distribution. Hoque (2008) reveals that the EFL teachers at the HSC level used only board, chalk, and textbook for teaching English as a foreign language.

Figure 5.41: Use of modern equipment (student)

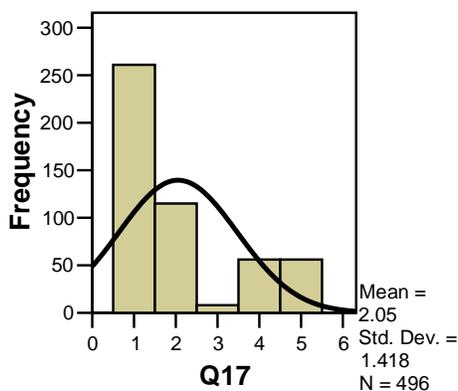
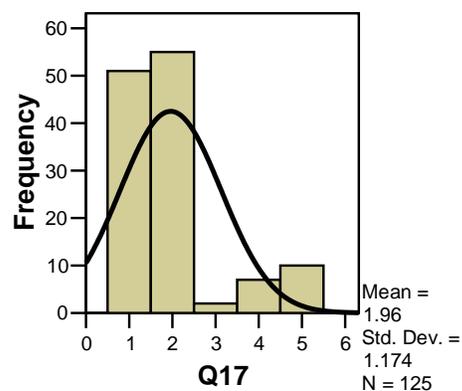


Figure 5.42: Use of modern equipment (teacher)



The CLT classroom requires equipment and technology, but there is no facility of using modern technology such as multimedia projector, overhead projectors and the like in language classrooms at the higher secondary level in Bangladesh. The twenty-first century is the age of modern technology, globalization and changes which have a great impact on teaching and learning. Foreign language (FL) teachers have now been leaders in the use of technology in the classroom, from short wave radio and newspapers, to film strips, to tape recorders, to records, films, video, computers, multimedia, and now internet, as a means of bringing authentic language and culture to their students.

The Twenty- first century foreign language teachers must learn to use technology effectively and meaningfully. But in Bangladesh, the language teachers teach English through the Grammar Translation Method, the language teachers heavily rely on the textbooks, wall boards and other traditional teaching aids and equipment. As a result, the teachers' effort becomes unsuccessful in teaching English language, a very vibrant and living language. Now- a- days, modern technologies are found available in some urban colleges, but due to lack of technical training and experience, the teachers cannot use them in their English language classes.

### **5.1.3.3 Internal Reliability**

The internal reliability of questions for every section (e.g., syllabus and curriculum, textbook materials, teaching methods, etc) had been performed separately. Like the previous section, the researcher computed internal consistency reliability estimates (i.e., coefficient alpha) of textbook materials variables.

The internal reliability of the items was estimated, and it was found that the Cronbach's alpha value ranged from 0.69 to 0.81 (group reliability 0.74) for the teacher items (Table 5.28) and ranged from 0 .68 to 0.77 (group reliability 0.76) for student items (Table 5.30). The reliability estimates for the scale were relatively high. It was assumed that the reliability of the items was significant for both groups; therefore, the findings were valid and applicable, above the desirable threshold of 0.70 (Garson, 2007):

Table 5.29: Internal consistency reliability (teacher items)

Reliability Estimates for 'Textbook Materials			
	No. of Items used	Question	Reliability Estimates (alpha)
1	3 items	8,10,13	0.71
2	5 items	9, 12,14, 17	0.73
3	3 items	10,16,17,	0.69
4	3 items	13,15,16	0.81
Reliability (Cronbach's alpha)			=0.74

Table 5.30: Internal consistency reliability (student items)

Reliability Estimates for 'Textbook Materials -Cronbach's alpha			
	No. of Items used	Question	Reliability Estimates (alpha)
1	4 items	8,9,13 , 14	0.68
2	4 items	9, 10,14, 17	0.71
3	5 items	11,12, 13, 16,17,	0.77
Reliability (Cronbach's alpha)		= 76	

#### 5.1.3.4 T-Test Analysis of Textbook Materials

The researcher performed Levene's test and independent samples test to examine whether the means of two groups (teachers and students) responded to the questions regarding textbook materials normally. The independent samples t-test compares the mean scores of two groups on a given variable. For the independent samples T-Test, it is assumed that both samples come from normally distributed samples with equal standard deviations (or variances). In the table (5.31) below, the means of two groups are presented to compare the scores on the particular textbook materials sections. The present study applied the MMR approach for data collection and data analysis; the findings from the descriptive statistics on this area are already presented. In this section, the findings from inferential statistics are presented to show whether washback effect influenced the teaching and learning English in general and textbook materials in particular. This domain included 10 questions of different issues; the findings of those questions are analysed through Levene's Test for Equality of Variances as well. The group statistics of textbook material are presented in the table below:

Table 5.31: Group statistics of means on textbook materials

	Resp_type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q8	Student	499	2.22	1.395	.062
	Teacher	125	2.25	1.441	.129
Q9	Student	500	3.87	1.309	.059
	Teacher	125	3.81	1.479	.132
Q10	Student	498	3.61	1.408	.063
	Teacher	124	3.85	1.407	.126
Q11	Student	498	3.85	1.289	.058
	Teacher	125	3.75	1.538	.138
Q12	Student	499	3.79	1.285	.058
	Teacher	125	3.39	1.550	.139
Q13	Student	498	3.91	1.265	.057
	Teacher	125	3.70	1.529	.137
Q14	Student	497	3.79	1.424	.064
	Teacher	125	3.72	1.457	.130
Q15	Student	495	3.77	1.322	.059
	Teacher	125	3.53	1.574	.141
Q16	Student	498	2.08	1.241	.056
	Teacher	125	2.26	1.442	.129
Q17	Student	496	2.05	1.418	.064
	Teacher	125	1.96	1.174	.105

In Q8 (Table 5.32), the Levene's value (F) is = .788 (sig) which was greater than  $P=.05$ ; therefore, top line parameter was used for the T-Test results interpretation. Here,  $t=-.210$ ,  $df=622$ , mean differences=-.030, and  $P=.833$  ( $P>0.05$ ) which was greater than standard value of 0.05. The Levene's test revealed that the difference between two groups was not statistically significant:

Table 5.32: Levene's test of equity of variances- significant deference

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
Q8	Equal variances assumed	.072	.788
	Equal variances not assumed		

\*= significant at  $p < 0.05$

It was found that students' mean ( $M=2.22$ ) and teacher's mean ( $M=2.25$ ) were very close, and the difference was negligible. It indicated that both groups of respondents admitted that the textbook lesson objectives were not communicated with the students. The table (Table 5.33) below shows how the deference between two groups of respondents was insignificant:

Table 5.33: Levene's test for equality of variances

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Q8	Equal variances assumed	.072	.788	-.210	622	.833	-.030	.140	-.305	.246
	Equal variances not assumed			-.206	186.545	.837	-.030	.143	-.312	.253

\*= significant at  $p < 0.05$

The T-Test results were supported by a number of ways: questionnaire survey, classroom observation, and in-depth interview. Levene's Test for Equality of Variances (Sig. is greater than .05) in Q9, the two variances were not significantly different; that was, the two variances were approximately equal. Here, the students' mean (M=3.87), teachers' mean (M=3.87) were nearly equal. The values were: t value = .461, df=623, and p=.645, sig, (2-tailed). Here, the significance (p) (2-tailed) is 0.645 which was greater than standard level ( $p < 0.05$ ). The findings indicated that the difference between teachers' mean and students' mean was statistically insignificant. The findings accepted the null hypothesis of homogeneity. Details of findings are presented in the table (Table 5.34) below:

Table 5.34: Results of the independent samples test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Q8	Equal variances assumed	.072	.788	-.210	622	.833	-.030	.140	-.305	.246
	Equal variances not assumed			-.206	186.545	.837	-.030	.143	-.312	.253
Q9	Equal variances assumed	7.594	.006	.461	623	.645	.062	.134	-.202	.326
	Equal variances not assumed			.429	175.588	.669	.062	.145	-.224	.348
Q10	Equal variances assumed	2.043	.153	-1.701	620	.089	-.240	.141	-.518	.037
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.702	189.159	.090	-.240	.141	-.519	.038
Q11	Equal variances assumed	14.495	.000*	.755	621	.451	.101	.134	-.162	.365
	Equal variances not assumed			.680	170.290	.498	.101	.149	-.193	.396
Q12	Equal variances assumed	25.694	.000*	2.961	622	.003*	.398	.134	.134	.661
	Equal variances not assumed			2.649	169.178	.009	.398	.150	.101	.694
Q13	Equal variances assumed	19.730	.000*	1.585	621	.113	.210	.132	-.050	.469
	Equal variances not assumed			1.416	168.997	.159	.210	.148	-.083	.502
Q14	Equal variances assumed	.646	.422	.508	620	.611	.073	.143	-.208	.354
	Equal variances not assumed			.501	188.025	.617	.073	.145	-.214	.359
Q15	Equal variances assumed	23.365	.000*	1.769	618	.077	.244	.138	-.027	.514
	Equal variances not assumed			1.595	170.753	.113	.244	.153	-.058	.545
Q16	Equal variances assumed	10.840	.001*	-1.383	621	.167	-.178	.128	-.430	.075
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.265	172.941	.208	-.178	.140	-.455	.100
Q17	Equal variances assumed	16.950	.000*	.687	619	.492	.094	.137	-.175	.364
	Equal variances not assumed			.769	224.434	.443	.094	.123	-.148	.336

\*= significant at  $p < 0.05$

The difference was again insignificant in the case of Q10; here, Levene's significance (sig) was .153, quite bigger than .05. So, the Equal variances assumed (top line) was used for interpretation. In this, the values included  $t = -1.701$ ,  $df = 620$ , means difference =  $-.240$ , and  $p = .089$  (greater than .05). It indicated that the two variances were statistically insignificant. For Q11, Q12, and Q13, Equal variances not assumed (bottom lines) were used for t value interpretation because Levene's significances (sig) in those questions were less than .05. In Q11, the parameters were:  $t = .680$ ,  $df = 170.290$ , mean difference =  $.101$  and  $p = .498$ . It indicated that the variances were not significantly different.

In Q12, the findings were:  $t = 2.649$ ,  $df = 169.178$ , mean difference =  $.398$ , and  $p = .009$  ( $p > .05$ ). It suggested that two variances were significantly different because the  $p = .009$  was smaller than .05. It was also found that the mean difference (.398) was relatively big. In reply to this question (Q12), nearly 75% students suggested that the textbook, *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) was well suited for developing the communicative competence, whereas more than 61% teachers believed that the textbook was well- suited. It was found that the variances in the mean score in Q13 were statistically different. For this case, the results were  $t = 1.416$ ,  $df = 168.997$ , and  $p = .159$  (sig, 2-tailed). The significance of p ( $p > 0.05$ ) is bigger than desirable threshold at the significance level 0.05 which was greater than .159; it was assumed that variances were significantly different. So, the null hypothesis was rejected here.

For the case of Q14, 'Equal variances assumed' (top line) parameter was used to determine the variances. The top line parameter was taken because the Levene's significance (sig) was greater than .05. Here, the findings were:  $F = .646$ , Levene's significance (F) =  $.422$ ,  $t = .508$ , and  $p = .611$  (2-tailed). The t significance (2-tailed) was greater ( $P > .05$ ) than .05. So, it was concluded that the responses of teachers and students were not significantly different indicating that the learners found interest in studying the present EFL textbook, *English for Today* (for classes 11-12).

For the case of Q15, Levene's significance was less than .05 ( $P < .05$ ); therefore, 'Equal variances not assumed' was used. Here, the findings were:  $t = 1.595$ ,  $df = 170.753$ , mean difference =  $.244$ , and most importantly,  $p = .113$ . The significance (.113) (2-tailed) was greater than .05. It indicated that variances were

not significantly different (insignificant). The findings showed that the variance in Q16 was insignificant. The findings were:  $t=-1.265$ ,  $df=224.434$ , mean difference=-.178, and  $p=.208$ . The  $p=.208$  were greater than .05 indicating that the mean differences were insignificant. Similarly, in Q17, it was found that  $t=.769$ ,  $df=224.434$ , and the mean difference (.094) between teachers and students on this issue was statistically insignificant. Furthermore, the significance (2-tailed) = .443 which was greater than standard threshold level ( $p<0.05$ ). It was found that both groups of respondents largely agreed that modern equipment was not used in the language class. For this case, the null hypothesis was accepted indicating that the difference of responses was insignificant.

### **5.1.4 The Teaching Methods and Approaches**

Andrews et al. (2002) point out that the exam leads to teachers' use of explanation of techniques for engaging in certain exam tasks. Cheng (1997) suggests that teaching methods may remain unchanged even though activities change as a result of the revision of an exam (p, 52) while Alderson and Wall's (1993, p. 127) Sri Lanka study shows the exam 'had virtually no impact on the way that teachers teach'. The high-stakes EFL exam such as the HSC examination in English leads teachers to teach through simulating the exam tasks or through carrying out other activities that directly aim at developing exam skills or strategies. Watanabe's (2000, p. 45) findings for this area are once again significant. He reports that the teachers in his study 'claimed that they deliberately avoided referring to test taking techniques, since they believed that actual English skills would lead to students' passing the exam'.

Some of the studies (e.g. Hwang, 2003) indicate that the methods used to teach towards exams vary from teacher to teacher. Alderson and Hamp Lyons (1996), and by Watanabe (1996) find large differences in the way teachers teach towards the same examination or examination skills, with some adopting much more overt 'teaching to the test', 'textbook slave' approaches, while others adopted more creative and independent approaches (p, 292). They discuss various teacher-related factors that may affect why and how a teacher works towards an examination for attaining high scores.

Teacher attitude towards an examination would seem to play an important role in determining the choice of methods used to teach exam classes. There has been a perception that washback affects teaching content and teaching methods. Other findings on teaching methods relate to interaction in the classroom. Alderson and Hamp Lyons (1996) note that the examination classes spend much less time on pair work, that teachers talk more and students less, that there is less turn taking, and the turns are somewhat longer. Watanabe (2000, p. 44) notes that 'students rarely asked questions even during exam preparation lessons'. Cheng (1998) points out that while teachers talk less to the whole class as a result of the revised exam, the teacher talking to the whole class remains the dominant mode of interaction.

#### **5.1.4.1 Descriptive Statistics**

This section presents the findings of the survey results of the teaching methods and approaches the teachers apply while teaching EFL at the HSC level in Bangladesh. The findings of this section follow the similar styles as applied in the previous sections of the findings. The findings from frequency counts, mean score, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, etc for each question are presented step by step. The histograms are used to focus mean score, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of every individual finding. One of the crucial benefits of using histograms is that they can display a number of statistical results simultaneously. The findings have also been shown in a number of tables. They are derived from inferential statistical analyses of the questionnaire data and are presented in next section.

#### **5.1.4.2 Major Aspects of the Methods and Approaches**

The section includes altogether 9 questions on different issues on the use of teaching methods in the class. The questions in this section different aspects of teaching methods used in the class are: (a) teachers' care on students' understanding (Q18), (b) teachers' language of instructions (Q19, Q22, and Q24), (c) teachers' encouragement and motivation (Q20, and Q21), (d) teaching to the test (Q23, and Q25), and (e) indication of examination results.

### 5.1.4.2.1 Teachers' Care of Students' Understanding

In response to Q18, over 75% students (M=3.92, STDV=1.346, Variance=1.813) and more than 66% teachers (M=3.63, STDV=1.516, Variance=2.299) confirmed that teachers took care of their students whether they (students) understood teacher's instruction. The tables below (Table 5.35 & Table 5.36) display the findings of this question:

Table 5.35: Frequency counts on teacher's care for students' understanding

	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
No	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Fre q	pct %	
SQ18	376	75.2	112	22.4	11	2.2	1	0.2	500
TQ18	83	66.4	39	31.2	3	2.4	-	-	125

Table 5.36: Descriptive statistics on teacher's care for students' knowledge

Qno	Mean (M)	Median	Standard Deviation (STDV)	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ18	3.92	4.00	1.346	1.813	-1.033	-.338
TQ18	3.63	4.00	1.516	2.299	-.666	-1.153

The histograms below (Figure 5.43 and 5.44) show that they are negatively skewed (to the left) meaning that most of the students and teachers showed their agreement towards the statement of the question. As shown in the histograms, the scores of kurtosis of this question for both groups are also negative (Table 5.36). They are frequent modestly-sized deviations with normal peaks and flats:

Figure 5.43: Teachers' care (student)

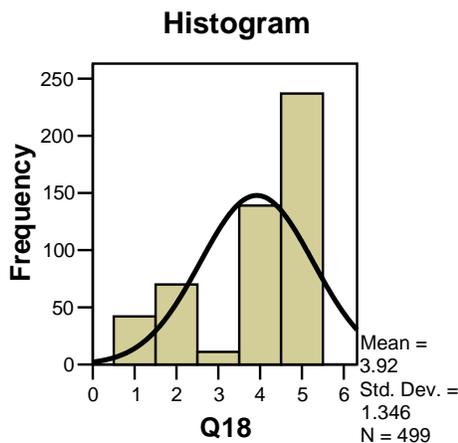
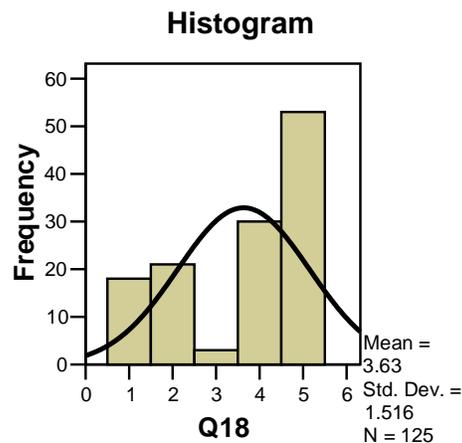


Figure 5.44: Teachers' care (teacher)



### 5.1.4.2.2 Teachers' Language of Instruction

Q19, Q22, and Q24 asked about the explanation of text and the medium of instructions in the class. For question Q19, nearly 50% teachers (M=3.10, STDV=1.527, Variance=2.332) and more than 66% students (M=2.52, STDV=1.455, Variance=2.117) confirmed that the teachers did not explain the text in English. Q22 was used as a cross-referencing question, where nearly 69% teachers (M=3.73, STDV=1.472) as well as over 72% students (M=3.89, STDV=1.319) indicated that teachers used Bengali along with English as the languages of instructions in the class. The findings of this section are presented in the tables below (Table 5.37 and Table 5.38):

Table 5.37: Frequency counts on teacher's care for students' understanding

No	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ19	155	31	331	66.2	11	2.2	3	0.6	500
TQ19	61	48.8	62	49.6	1	.8	1	.8	125
SQ22	371	74.2	110	22	11	2.2	8	1.6	500
TQ22	86	68.8	39	31.2	-	-	-	-	125
SQ24	362	72.4	130	26	6	1.2	2	.4	500
TQ24	76	60.8	47	37.6	2	1.6	-	-	125

Figure 5.45: Explanation of text (student)

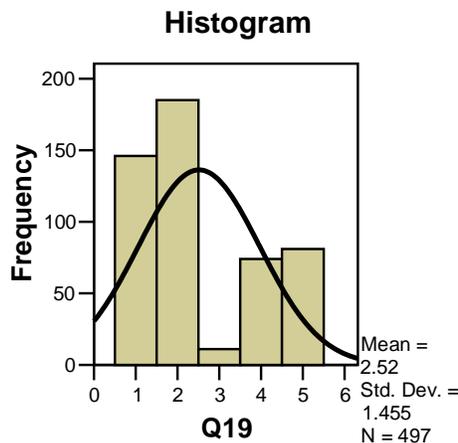
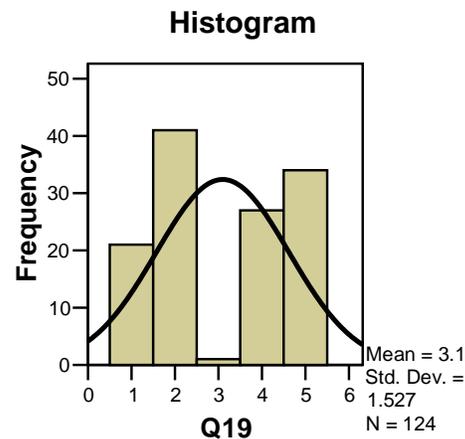


Figure 5.46: Explanation of text (teacher)



The figures above show both the histograms skewed positively (skewness, student=.626, teacher=.015) indicating that major parts of respondents disagreed with the statement of question (Q19). The kurtosis (student = -1.092, teacher = -1.616) is also significantly distributed in proper shape:

Table 5.38: Descriptive statistics on teacher's instructions of language

Qno	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ19	2.52	2.00	1.455	2.117	.626	-1.092
TQ19	3.10	2.50	1.527	2.332	.015	-1.616
SQ22	3.89	4.00	1.319	1.741	-1.006	-.331
TQ22	3.73	4.00	1.472	2.167	-.720	-1.090
SQ24	3.80	4.00	1.4	1.958	-.881	-.697
TQ24	3.14	4.00	1.50	2.231	.414	-1.436

Figure 5.47: Language of instruction (student)

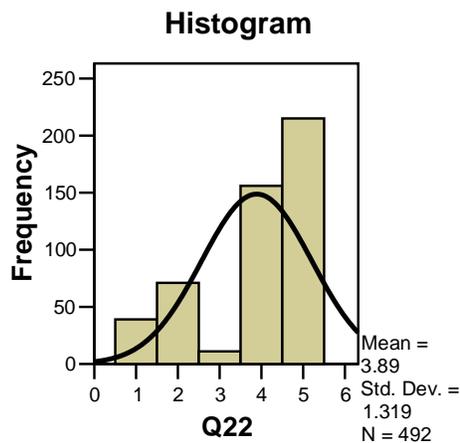
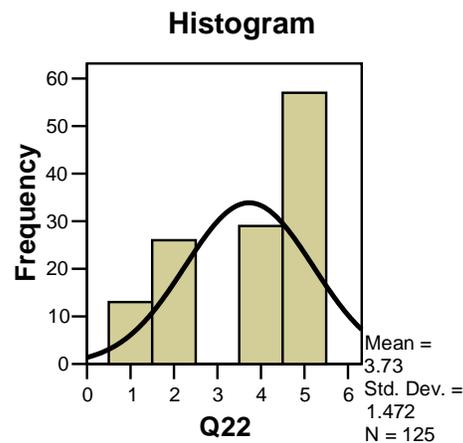


Figure 5.48: Language of instruction (teacher)



Responses to Q22 indicated that more than 74% students (M=3.89, STDV=1.319 Variance=1.741) and about 69% (M=3.73, STDV=1.472, Variance=2.167) teachers were with the opinion that teachers used Bengali, their mother tongue, as a medium of instruction, that was; they used Bengali along with English while teaching English.. Q19 and Q22 were used to check the internal reliability and for cross referencing questions for each other. Q22 asked what methodology they believed was used in their instruction; more than 74% students and nearly 69% teachers reported that teachers' mode of instruction was a combined one. It provided

sufficient evidence that, they did not use the target language adequately in the class which directly opposed the principle of CLT.

Regardless of the respondents' accounts of the HSC examination impact, their responses to the above questions seem to indicate that the HSC examination in EFL has induced a certain degree of negative washback on their teaching practices in terms of time allocation, teaching focus, and teaching contents. However, to confirm the washback effects of the HSC examination, these responses need to be triangulated with other data sources (e.g. observations, interviews, and classroom observation). Q24 asked the respondents to assess their own pedagogical knowledge (e.g., whether they knew how to go about things in the course of their instruction and whether they were clear on the principles underpinning CLT). Correspondingly, Q6 and Q12 were designed to assess the respondents' actual understanding of CLT. The histograms (Figure 5.47 to Figure 5.50) present overall findings of this subsection.

Figure 5.49: Teaching the meaning (student)

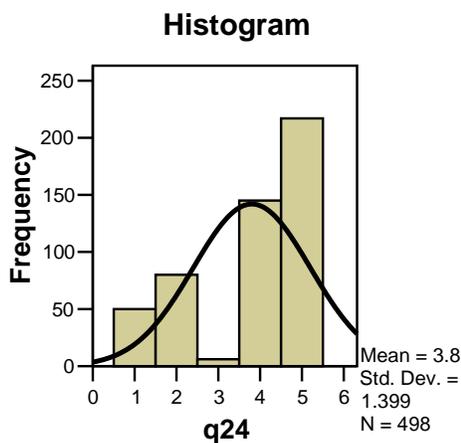
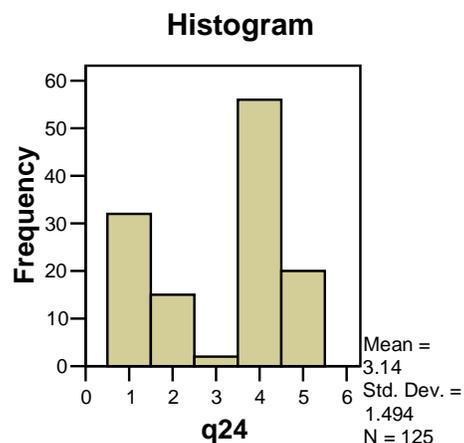


Figure 5.50: Teaching the meaning (teacher)



The results of Q24 revealed that over 72% (M=3.80, STDV=1.34) students and nearly 61% (M= 2.86, STDV=1.50) teachers demonstrated a poor understanding of the meaning of CLT; therefore, the teachers taught the meaning and theme of the topic and content of the textbook, *English for Today* (for classes 11-12). The findings indicated that the EFL teachers communicated the knowledge and meaning of the topic it contained as if they were teaching subjects such as history, or geography.

Language teachers should teach any lesson or topic from linguistic point of view. They must not put so much emphasis in providing subject matter and its inherent knowledge. Such evidence reveals that quite a number of teachers still have not achieved a good understanding of CLT or they do not understand CLT adequately.

### 5.1.4.2.3 Teachers' Encouragement and Motivation

Q20 and Q21 asked whether their teachers encouraged the students to speak English and ask question in the class. Over 61% students (M=2.66, STDV =1.53) suggested that their teacher did not encourage them to ask any question while more than 55% teachers (M=2.83, STDV =1.52) supported the students' view (Table 5.39). In replying to Q21, more than 54% students (M=2.83, STDV =1.51) commented that teachers did not motivate them to speak English, but nearly 53% teachers (M=3.19, STDV =1.53) claimed that they did encourage their students:

Table 5.39: Frequency counts on teachers' encouragement and motivation

No	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	%	
SQ20	183	36.6	306	61.2	5	1.0	6	1.2	500
TQ20	52	41.6	69	55.2	1	.8	3	2.4	125
SQ21	222	44.4	271	54.2	2	.4	5	1.0	500
TQ21	66	52.8	56	44.8	3	2.4	-	-	125

Figure 5.51: Teachers' motivation (student)

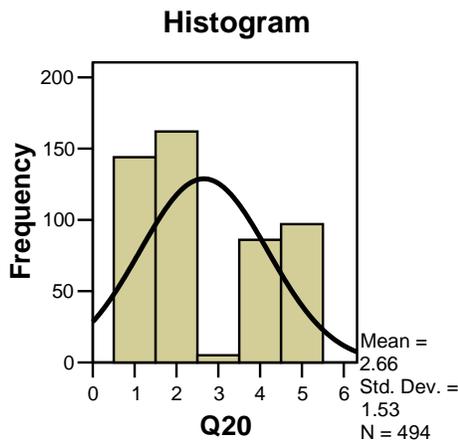
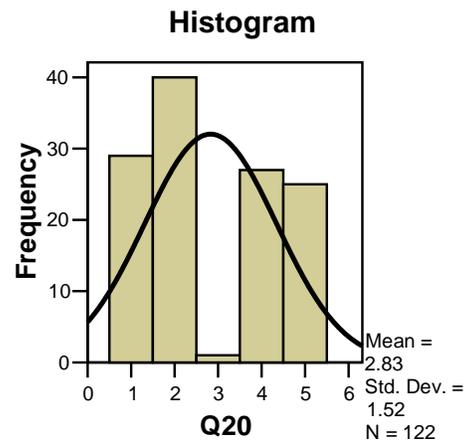


Figure 5.52: Teachers' motivation (teacher)



The variance for the Q20, and Q21 were respectively 2.34 and 2.30 for the student respondents; on the other hand, 2.30 and 2.35 for the teacher respondents. The medians for students were 2.00 for both questions while for teacher 2.00 and 4.00 for the questions Q20 and 21 respectively. These are normally distributed. The table (Table 5.40) below demonstrates the findings from descriptive statistics:

Table 5.40: Descriptive statistics on teacher's instructions of language

Qno	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ20	2.66	2.00	1.530	2.340	.432	-1.397
TQ20	2.83	2.00	1.520	2.309	.239	-1.528
SQ21	2.83	2.00	1.518	2.304	.167	-1.556
TQ21	3.19	4.00	1.533	2.350	-.138	-1.581

As shown in the figures (Figure 5.51 and Figure 5.52), the histograms for Q20 (Skewness=.432 for students, and skewness= .239 for teachers) are skewed positively which means both groups respondent disagreed with the statement of the question indicating teachers encouraged did not encouraged their students to asks questions in the class. In the case of Q21, the histogram of students is skewed positively while the teacher histogram for Q21 is skewed negatively (Figure 5.53 and Figure 5.54) which means that teachers disagreed with the students indicating that they encouraged their students to speak English. As shown in the histograms for both questions, the kurtosis values are properly distributed, and tails are proportionately shaped, indicating that the items appeared to be normally distributed.

Learners' active participation in the classroom activities is a precondition for an effective classroom. Learners' active participation in the language classroom is one of the principles of applying CLT. In Bangladesh, the classroom is still teacher-dominated where learners remain inactive as passive listeners. Wang (2008) shows that teacher factors influence teaching practices in the classroom. Teacher beliefs are consistent with their prior experience and instructional approaches. Watanabe (2000, p.44) notes that 'students rarely asked questions even during exam preparation lessons'. Cheng (1998) points out that while teachers talk less to the whole class as a result of the revised exam, the teacher talking to the whole class remains the dominant mode of interaction:

Figure 5.53: Encouragement and motivation (student)

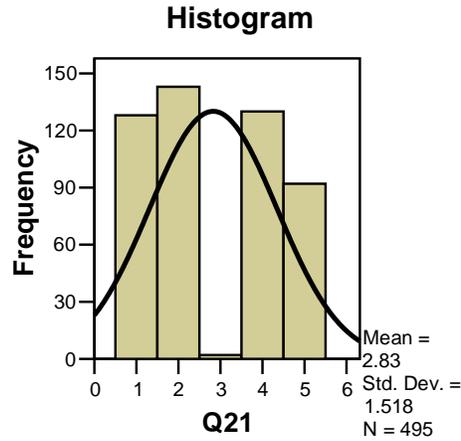
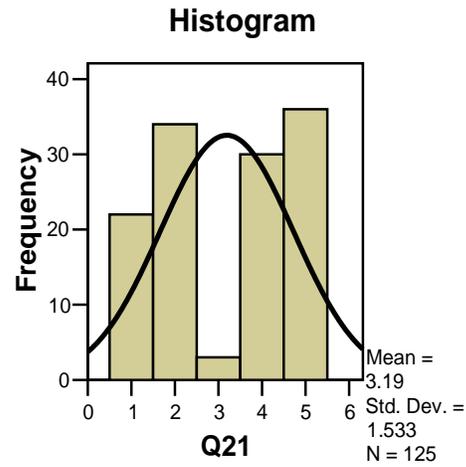


Figure 5.54: Encouragement and motivation (teacher)



The concept, the ‘teacher factor’, has made its appearance in ELT in Bailey et al. (1996). In ELT and general education, there is a widely accepted assumption that teacher internal attributes such as encouragement, motivation, beliefs, assumptions, knowledge and experience make up the ‘teacher factor’ and this ‘teacher factor’ plays a powerful role both in determining teachers’ perceptions of teaching and shaping their practices or actions in teaching ( Richards, 2008)

#### 5.1.4.2.4 Teaching to the Test

Q23 asked whether the teacher taught whatever he liked. In reply, over 70% students and over 71% teachers indicated that teacher taught whatever they preferred. It is now strongly grounded from the study that the dictates of high-stakes tests reduce the professional knowledge and status of teachers and exercise a great deal of pressure on them to improve test scores which eventually makes teachers experience negative feelings of shame, embarrassment, guilt, anxiety and anger:

Table 5.41: Frequency counts on teachers’ teaching to the test

	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD+D)		Neutral		Missing		
No	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ23	351	70.2	141	28.2	7	1.4	1	.2	500
TQ23	89	71.2	34	27.2	2	1.6	-	-	125
SQ25	386	77.2	110	22	4	.8	-		500
TQ25	83	66.4	38	30.4	4	3.2			125

Valette (1994) opines 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:

Table 5.42: Descriptive statistics on teachers' teaching to the test

Qno	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ23	3.64	4.00	1.404	1.970	-.757	-.858
TQ23	3.74	4.00	1.442	2.079	-.836	-.805
SQ25	3.89	4.00	1.323	1.750	-1.066	-.198
TQ25	3.82	5.00	1.405	1.974	-.659	-1.225

In response to Q25, over 77% students (M= 3.89, STDV=1.323) pointed out that the teachers did not make them practise on how to learn and speak English, rather they taught how to answer the question to secure high score. Supporting the students' response, more than 66% teachers (M=3.82, STDV=1.405) suggested out that they taught how to prepare their students for the examination.

Swain (1985) says, "It has frequently been noted that teachers will teach to a test: that is, if they know the content of a test and/or the format of a test, they will teach their students accordingly" (p. 43). Tests are often perceived as exerting a conservative force which impedes progress. It is generally accepted that public examinations influence the attitudes, behavior, and motivation of teachers, learners and parents.

Figure 5.55: Teaching to the test (student)

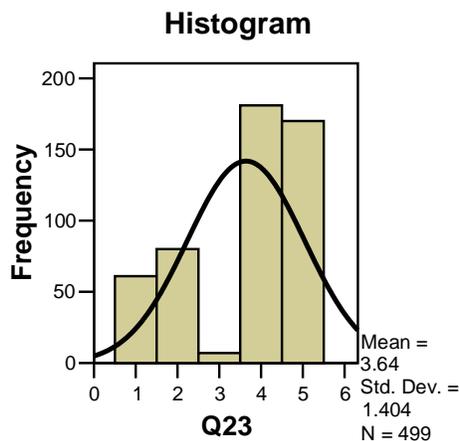
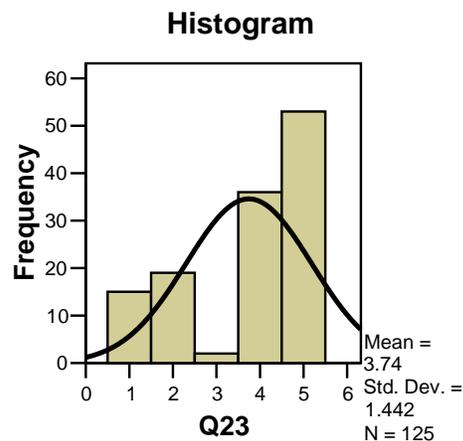


Figure 5.56: Teaching to the test (teacher)



The tables (5.41 and 5.42) display the findings of the statistical analysis of the quantitative data. The mean scores, standard deviation, medians, variances, skewness and kurtosis values for each question are presented. The figures (Figure 5.55 to Figure 5.58) present the findings distributing the descriptive statistics along with skewness and kurtosis value. The histograms show the frequency, means, standard deviations, and valid sample size for each question. The main purpose of the presentation of histograms is to project the values of skewness and kurtosis of responses to the above questions:

Figure 5.57: Learning and speaking English (student)

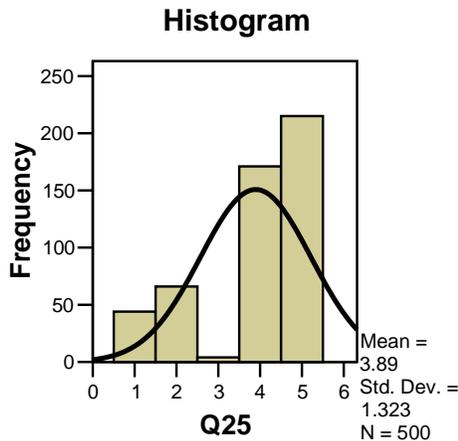
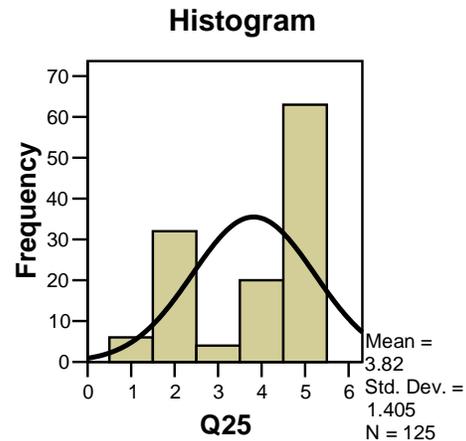


Figure 5.58: Learning and speaking English (teacher)



Empirical studies done by a number of researchers ( e.g. Wang 2010) point out that the potential tests have to positively influence the methodology teachers usually use in classrooms, goes largely unrealized (Alderson and Wall, 1996; Watanabe, 1996; Nambiar and Ransirini: 2006). Communicative language tests, which include authentic test tasks, are fertile ground to be exploited in this regard. Theoretically, such tests have the potential for influencing teachers to step aside from the routine to create more innovative, student centered classrooms. As Hughes (2003) points out test impact is one of the most crucial considerations in communicate language teaching and testing.

#### 5.1.4.2.5 Indication and Reflection of the HSC Examination Results

Question 26 (Q26) asked whether the participants believed that the test scores of the HSC examination in English were an appropriate indicator of a

student's English ability. The results revealed that over 63% students (M=2.64, STDV=1.488, Variance=2.214) believed that the HSC examination results would not indicate their language proficiency, whereas approximately 77% teachers (M=2.21, STDV=1.303, Variance= 1.698) agreed with the students indicating that HSC examination results would not reflect the students' language proficiency. The details of findings of this question are presented in the tables (Table 5.43 and Table 5.44) and histograms (Figure 5.59 and Figure 5.60):

Table 5.43: Frequency counts on teachers' teaching to the test

Qno.	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ26	172	34.4	317	63.4	9	1.8	2	.4	500
TQ26	28	22.4	96	76.8	1	.8	-	-	125

As a cross-referencing question, Q6 asked whether the HSC examination tested student's proficiency in English. In reply to this question, nearly 70% students and about 60 % teachers believed that that the test was not valid and could not reflect actual teaching and learning or proficiency in English. Both the histograms are positively skewed indicating that respondents disagreed with the statement of the question. The values of kurtosis are distributed normally and frequently (Figure 5.59 and Figure 5.60):

Table 5.44: Descriptive statistics on teaching to the test

Qno	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ26	2.64	2.00	1.488	2.214	.507	-1.276
TQ26	2.21	2.00	1.303	1.698	1.027	-.180

The present study performed analyses HSC EFL test (English question papers) and answer scripts (section 5.53). While conducting analyses of HSC examination papers, and the HSC EFL answer scripts, it was found that the validity of the HSC examination in English, in respect of communicative language testing, was doubtful. The HSC examination did not test all the skills of English language

(e.g. speaking, listening). The reliability of the grading/scoring system was found faulty and motivated; the scoring unexpectedly varied from examiner to examiner to a large extent. The findings of the interview with the EFL examiners supported the findings of the questionnaire survey. Since the present HSC examination does not test listening and speaking skills at all, the examination results can not be an indicator of students' language proficiency:

Figure 5.59: Indicator of English language proficiency (student)

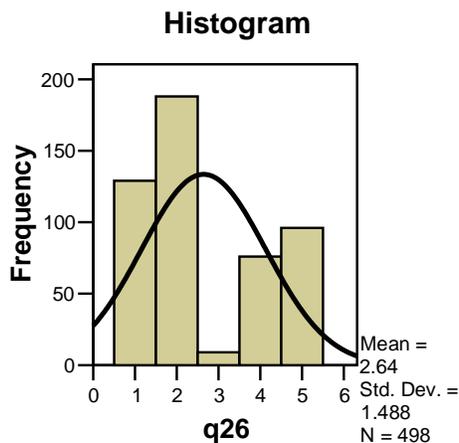
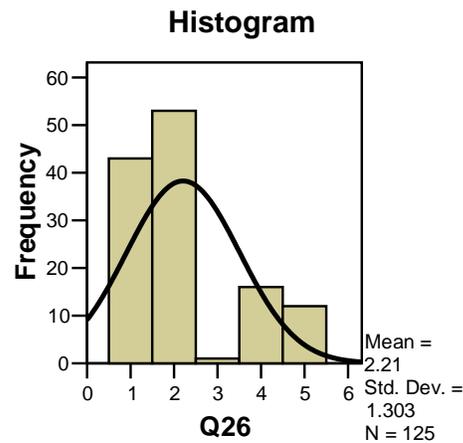


Figure 5.60: Indicator of English language proficiency (teacher)



The findings are supported by Karabulut (2007) who finds that high school students and teachers focus more on the immediate goal of language learning which was to score high on the test and be admitted to the university by cramming for the test, and learning and practicing the language areas and skills that were measured on the test (grammar, reading, vocabulary) and ignored the ones that were not tested (listening, speaking, writing).

Pierce (1992) states “the washback effect, sometimes referred to as the systemic validity of a test (p.687). Cohen (1994) describes washback in terms of “how assessment instruments affect educational practices and beliefs” (p. 41). Pierce (1992, p.687) specifies classroom pedagogy, curriculum development, and educational policy as the areas where washback has an effect. On the other hand, Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) take a view of washback which concentrated more on the effect of the test on teaching. They refer to washback as “... the influence that writers of language testing, syllabus design and language teaching believe a test will have on the teaching that precedes it” (ibid, p. 280). Bailey’s

(1999) extensive summary of the current research on language testing washback highlights various perspectives, and provides deeper insight into the complexity of this phenomenon.

It is found that washback of the HSC examination in English exerts harmful influence on teaching methods and classroom instructions. Furthermore, it is clear from the study that it is the examination that generates less interaction in classes, or whether this is due to teachers believing, for whatever reason, that this is the way exams should be prepared for. The type and amount of washback on teaching methods appears to vary from context to context and teacher to teacher. It varies from no reported washback to considerable washback. The variable in these differences appears to be not so much the exam itself as the teacher. In this study, adequate evidences are found, which can determine that the washback influence the teaching methods and the ways they teach at the HSC level in Bangladesh context.

### **5.1.5 Classroom Tasks and Activities**

The section discusses the findings of the 6 questions (Q27- Q32) related to the classroom tasks and activities, and their relation with washback effect of HSC public examination in English. The findings from frequency counts, mean score, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, etc for each question are discussed and presented by themes and issues. The skewness values, kurtosis, variances of the response are shown in histograms. Main issues presented and discussed here are: (a) tasks preferences (Q27 and Q29), (b) practise of model test (Q28 and Q30), and (c) examination pressure and teaching learning strategies (Q31 and Q32). The presentation, discussion, and reference proceed in coherent manner. The findings derived from inferential analyses of the questionnaire data are also presented.

#### **5.1.5.1 Classroom Tasks and Activities Preferences**

Question 27 and Q29 were asked to find out which activities were preferred by the teachers and students in the class. Q27 sought to find out whether the respondents had ever been exposed to task-oriented activities. The results suggested that nearly 78% students ( $M=3.95$ ,  $STDV=1.317$ ) and closely 62% teachers ( $M=3.43$ ,  $STDV=1.552$ ) immensely concentrated on task-oriented activities and

ignored the tasks and activities that are not directly related to passing the examination (Table 5.45 and Table 5.46):

Table 5.45: Frequency counts on tasks and activities preferences

No	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ27	389	77.8	103	20.6	8	1.6	-	-	500
TQ27	77	61.6	47	37.6	1	.8	-	-	125
SQ29	353	70.6	141	28.2	5	1.0	1	.2	500
TQ29	85	68	38	30.4	2	1.6			125

There is a natural attitude for both teachers and students to tailor their classroom activities to the demands of the test, especially when the test is very important to the future of the students, and pass rates are used as a measure of teacher success.

In response to the question Q29, about 71% students (M=3.72, STDV=1.322, Variance= 1.748) replied that they spent more time practising grammar, and vocabulary related items because they (items) were tested in the examination. This view was supported by 68% teachers (M=3.58, STDV=1.466, Variance=2.148). The histograms below display skewness and kurtosis values along with other distribution of findings:

Figure 5.61: Ignoring tasks and activities (student)  
**Histogram**

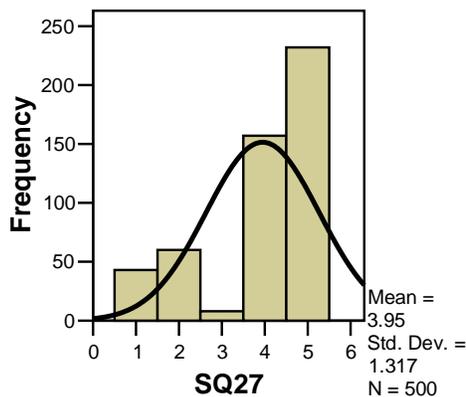
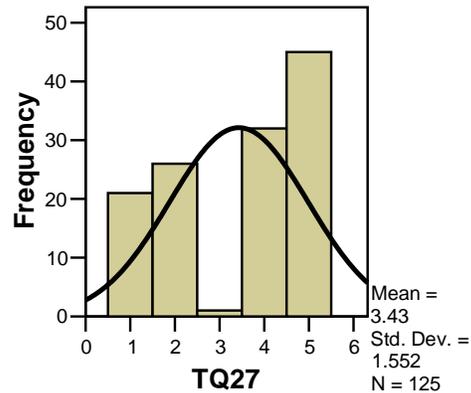


Figure 5.62: Ignoring tasks and activities (teacher)  
**Histogram**



In recent years, though under researched, washback has become a much discussed topic among many linguistic and educational experts, and many of them admit that washback does exist and plays an important role in language teaching and learning. The histograms below (Figure 5.63 and Figure 5.64) show how the tails are skewed negatively and kurtosis values are distributed:

Figure 5.63: Practice of grammar and vocabulary items (student)

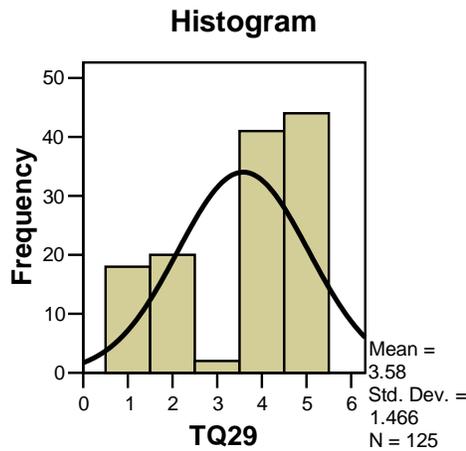


Figure 5.64: Practice of grammar and vocabulary items (teacher)

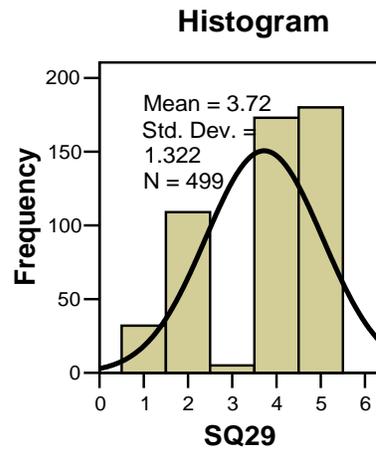


Table 5.46: Descriptive statistics on tasks and activities preferences

Qno	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ27	3.95	4.00	1.317	1.735	-1.133	-.045
TQ27	3.43	4.00	1.552	2.409	-.437	-1.441
SQ29	3.72	4.00	1.322	1.748	-.718	-.891
TQ29	3.58	4.00	1.466	2.148	-.684	-1.044

The findings of Q27 and Q29 are supported and cross-examined by the findings of classroom observation and interviews. While observing the teachers (during classroom observation), the present researcher found that most of the time they were teaching grammar, vocabulary, etc. The evidence of harmful washback is observed on classroom tasks and activities. The interviewed teacher stated that it was their responsibility to prepare their students for the forthcoming HSC examination. The findings are authenticated by the study of Lopez (2005). The researcher finds that there are matches and mismatches between the task and classroom practices. This influence of the test on the classroom (referred to as washback by language testers) is, of course, very important; this washback effect can be either beneficial or harmful (Buck, 1988).

### 5.1.5.2 Practice of Model Tests and Preparation Tests

Q28 asked whether teachers gave model test as a means of examination preparation. In response, about 80% students (M=3.95, STDV=1.252, Variance=1.567) replied that their teachers gave model examination before the final examination started. Again, more than 90% teachers (M=4.22, SRDV=.972, Variance=.945) confirmed that they used to give model tests so that their students could get familiar with the examination system and test contents (Table 5.47 and Table 5.48):

Table 5.47: Frequency counts on practice of model test and preparation test

No	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
Q28	398	79.6	95	19	7	1.4	-	-	500
Q28	113	90.4	12	9.6	-	-	-	-	125
Q30	411	82.2	83	16.6	4	.8	2	.4	500
Q30	102	81.6	22	17.6	1	.8			125

Washback is the power of examinations over what takes place in the classroom (Alderson and Wall, 1993). Swain succinctly suggests that it has frequently been noted that teachers will teach to a test: that is, if they know the content of a test and/or the format of a test, they will teach their students accordingly (Swain, 1985, p. 43). The figures below (Figure 5.65 to Figure 5.68) present the skewness and kurtosis values of Q28 and Q30:

Figure 5.65: Practice of model tests (student)

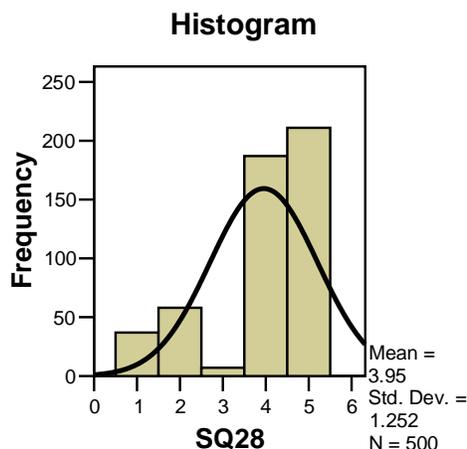
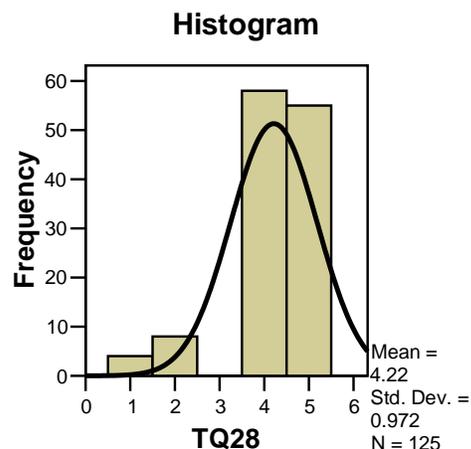


Figure 5.66: Practice of model tests (teacher)



Responses to Q30, over 82% learners (M= 4.05, STDV= 1.181, Variance= 1.395) pointed that their teachers made them practise and solve the questions of past examinations so that they could be acquainted with test format and nature of items types; whereas nearly 82% teachers (M=4.00, STDV=1.270, Variance=1.613) disclosed that they made their students solve and practise the questions of past examination. Linguists often decry the 'negative' washback effects of examinations and regard washback as an impediment to educational reform or 'progressive' innovation in schools. Heyneman (1987) comments it's true that teachers teach to an examination. The table below presents the descriptive statistics of Q28 and Q30:

Table 5.48: Descriptive statistics on practice of model test and preparation test

Qno	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation.	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ28	3.95	4.00	1.252	1.567	-1.181	-.045
TQ28	4.22	4.00	.972	.945	-1.733	3.010
SQ30	4.05	4.00	1.181	1.395	-1.311	.674
TQ30	4.00	4.00	1.270	1.613	-1.320	.583

Figure 5.67: Practice of past questions (student)

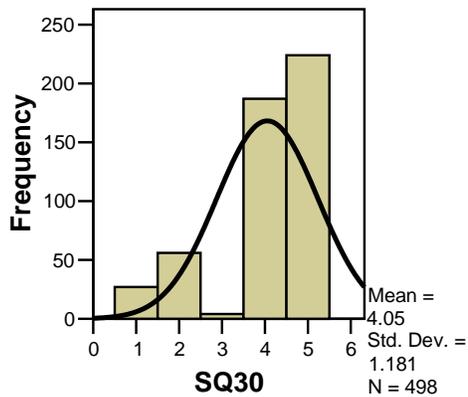
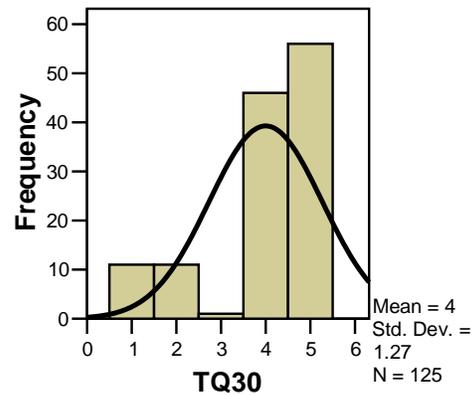


Figure 5.68: Practice past questions (teacher)



As the histograms (Figure 5.65 to Figure 5.67) have negative skewness (e.g. SQ28= -1.181, and TSQ28= -1.733) and therefore are negatively skewed; when the tails of histograms are negatively skewed, it indicates that most of the respondents agree with the statement. It was also found that the kurtosis values of the histograms were properly distributed as per the frequency of responses.

### 5.1.5.3 Examination Pressure and Teaching-Learning Strategies

Q31 asked the respondents whether the examination hindered and discouraged teaching and learning EFL. In reply to the question, nearly 70% students (M=3.70, STDV=1.388) replied that they gave little attention to learning English under test pressure and thus the HSC examination hindered their EFL learning while more than 70% (M=3.76, STDV=1.382) teachers supported the students' view on this issue indicating that test hindered their EFL teaching. The tables below (Table 5.49 and Table 5.50) present different levels of findings of this sub-section:

Table 5.49: Frequency counts on examination pressure and teaching learning

No.	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
Q31	349	69.8	144	28.8	5	1.0	2	.4	500
TQ31	88	70.4	35	28	2	1.6	-	-	125
SQ32	385	77	106	21.2	8	1.6	-	-	500
TQ32	103	82.4	20	16	2	1.6	-	-	125

The histograms (Figure 5.69 and Figure. 5.70) project the skewness, kurtosis, mean, standard deviation, and frequency of the findings (Q31). The histograms below show how they are skewed; the kurtosis values are distributed. The study found that the histograms were properly shaped with peaks and flats, and were normally distributed:

Table 5.50: Descriptive statistics on examination pressure and teaching learning

Qno	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation (STDV)	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ31	3.70	4.00	1.388	1.928	-.734	-.923
TQ31	3.76	4.00	1.382	1.910	-.769	-.883
SQ32	3.96	4.00	1.328	1.764	-1.113	-.139
TQ32	4.12	5.00	1.182	1.397	-1.368	.797

Figure 5.69: Examination and language learning (student)

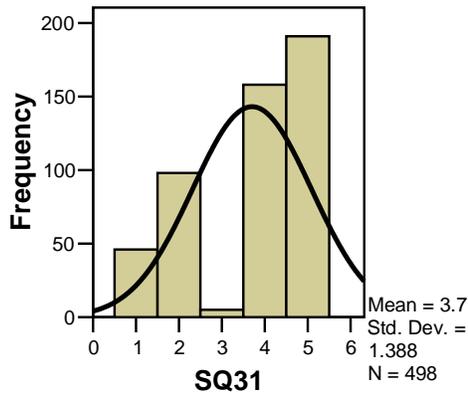
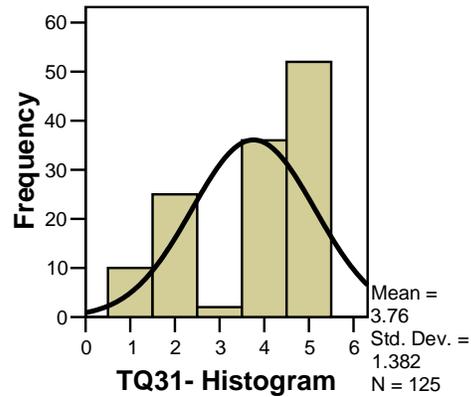


Figure 5.70: Examination and language teaching (teacher)



Q32 asked the respondents whether the teachers gave guidelines or taught test taking strategies. As shown in the tables (Table 5.49 and Table 5.50) and histograms (Figure 5.71 and Figure 5.72), 77% students (M=3.96, STDV= 1.328, Variance=1.764) confirmed that the teachers taught them test taking guidelines and strategies. Similarly, more than 82% teachers (M=4.12, STDV=1.182, Variance=1.397) pointed that they really taught their students test taking strategies. The result showed that the students were motivated more and spent more time in preparing HSC examination. The findings are validated and cross-examined by the findings of classroom observation and interview results. During the classroom observation, the present researcher found that the EFL teachers spent a large amount of time giving instructions on how to answer the questions in the examination:

Figure 5.71: Test- taking strategies (student)

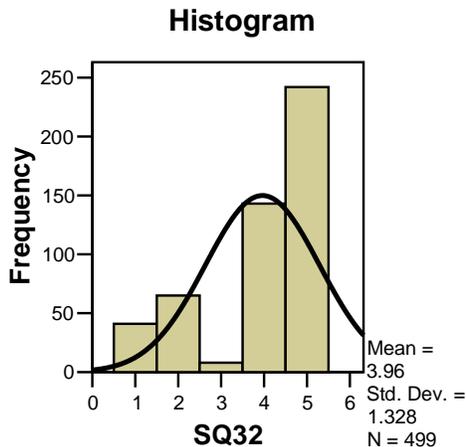
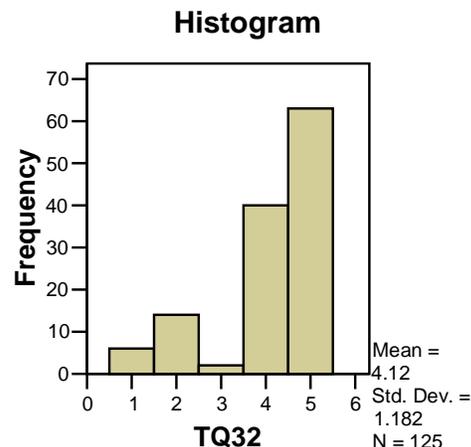


Figure 5.72: Test-taking strategies (teacher)



Test design and test-taking strategies are more closely identified with washback direction, while logistical issues are more closely identified with washback intensity (Kellaghan and Greene, 1992; Hughes, 1993). Through this study, it is adequately proved that the washback influences the test takers directly by affecting language learning (or non-learning), while the influences on other stakeholders affect efforts to promote language learning. The test-takers themselves can be affected by: the experience of taking and, in some cases, of preparing for the test; the feedback they receive about their performance on the test; and the decisions that may be made about them on the basis of the test.

### 5.1.6 Teaching of Language Skills and Elements

A group of questions (Q33- Q37) were asked to both students and teachers to know which skills were taught in the class. Question 33 (Q33) asked whether they practiced the EFL skills and elements as per the teacher's design and decision. More than 69% of the students (M= 3.73, STDV= 1.462, Variance=2.138) answered that their teacher designed the class activities himself. For the same question (Q33), more than 71% teachers (M= 3.83, STDV=1.474, Variance=2.173) agreed that they designed their class on their own decision. It was found that the class activities were teacher dominated; teacher taught whatever they liked. The teachers preferably taught those items which were related to test contents. The tables below (Table 5.51 and Table 5.52) present the details of findings in this section:

Table 5.51: Frequency counts on teaching of language skills and elements

No.	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	pct %	Freq	pct %	
SQ33	346	69.2	141	28.2	10	2.0	3	.6	500
TQ33	89	71.2	36	28.8	-	-	-	-	125
SQ34	123	24.6	356	71.2	6	1.2	14	2.8	500
TQ34	21	16.8	104	83.2	-	-	-	-	125
SQ35	137	27.4	349	69.8	6	1.2	8	1.6	500
TQ35	40	32	84	67.2	1	.8	-	-	125
SQ36	380	76	106	21.2	6	1.2	8	1.6	500
TQ36	70	56	55	44	1	.8	2	1.6	125
SQ37	418	83.6	69	13.8	3	.6	10	2.0	500
TQ37	106	84.8	16	12.8	1	.8	2	1.6	125

Q34 was asked to ascertain if listening was practiced in the class. In response, over 71% students (M= 2.34, STDV=1.677, Variance= 2.814) replied that listening was not practised in the class, whereas 83% teachers (M=2.04, STDV=1.125, Variance=1.265) reported that they did not help students practise listening. Q35 probed whether speaking was practiced in the class. Nearly 70% students (M=2.30, STDV=1.539, Variance=2.144) reported that speaking was not practised in the class, while 67% teachers (M= 2.61, STDV=1.539, Variance= 2.369) confirmed that they did not help students practise speaking.

Table 5.52: Descriptive statistics on teaching of language skills and elements

Qno	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SQ33	3.73	4.00	1.462	2.138	-.780	-.934
TQ33	3.83	5.00	1.474	2.173	-.856	-.897
SQ34	2.34	2.00	1.677	2.814	3.827	37.567
TQ34	2.04	2.00	1.125	1.265	1.269	.802
SQ35	2.30	2.00	1.464	2.144	.809	-.872
TQ35	2.61	2.00	1.539	2.369	.616	-1.227
SQ36	4.00	5.00	1.316	1.731	-1.113	-.169
TQ36	3.38	4.00	1.463	2.142	-.175	-1.625
SQ37	4.17	4.50	1.121	1.258	-1.491	1.307
TQ37	4.23	5.00	1.085	1.177	-1.563	1.616

Q36 asked whether reading was practiced in the class. In replying to this question, more than 76% students (M=4.00, STDV=1.463, Variance=2.142) confirmed that it was practised. Furthermore, 56% teachers (M=3.38, STDV=1.121, Variance=1.258) suggested that they practised reading skills in the class. The histograms below (Figure 5.73 to Figure 5.76) display the findings of the questions mentioned along with the distribution of skewness and kurtosis values:

Figure 5.73: Practice of reading (student)  
**Histogram**

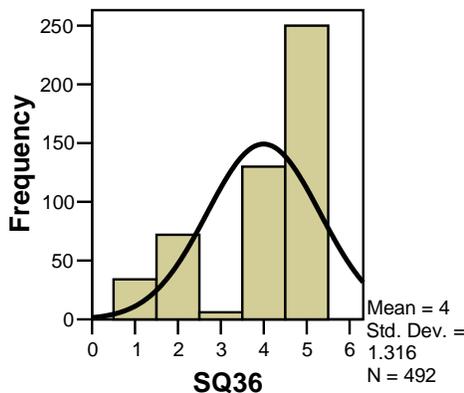
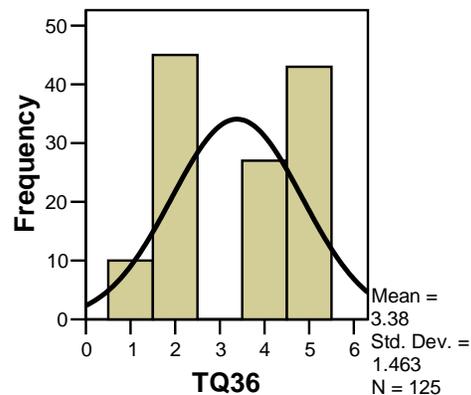


Figure 5.74: Practice of reading (teacher)  
**Histogram**



Q37 asked whether writing was practiced in the class. To reply to this question, approximately 84% students (M=4.17, STDV=1.121, Variance=1.258) commented that writing skills were practised, while almost 85% teachers (M=4.23, STDV=1.085, Variance=1.177) confirmed of practising the writing skills:

Figure 5.75: Practice of writing (student)

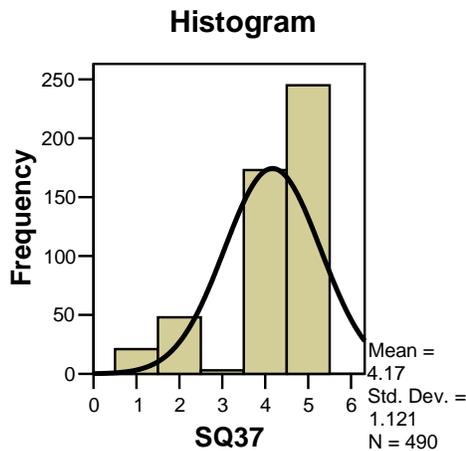
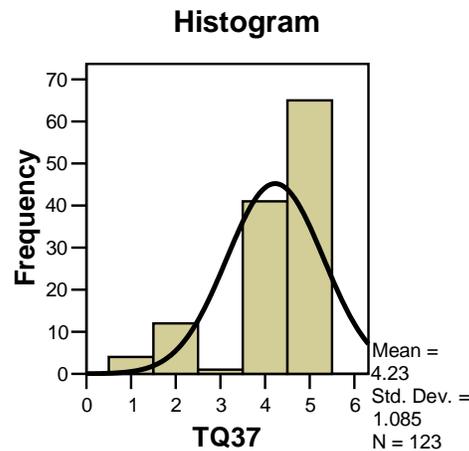


Figure 5.76: Practice of writing (teacher)



It was found that teachers taught those skills and elements (e.g. writing, reading, grammar, vocabulary, etc.) that were usually tested in the examination. There are some reasons for not practising two important skills: listening, and speaking. One of the reasons is that these skills (listening, and speaking) are not tested on the one hand, and they have little or no training in teaching the skills, on the other hand. The findings of this section were validated and cross-referenced with the findings of classroom observation and interview results.

During the classroom observation, the researcher found that most of the teachers (except T1) did not teach listening and speaking. The interviewed teachers also confessed that they avoided teaching of listening and speaking. Washback influences the teachers and test takers directly by affecting language. The teachers can affect both teaching and learning. The test-takers themselves can be affected by: the experience of taking and, in some cases, of preparing for the test; the feedback they receive about their performance on the test; and; the decisions that may be made about them on the basis of the test. Of the 15-washback hypotheses of Alderson and Wall's (1993, p. 120-121), five are directly address learner washback.

## **5.1.7 Beliefs, Attitudes and Perception as to the Test**

Teachers' and students' beliefs in tests are likely to correspond to their beliefs in language teaching and learning. Their beliefs in language teaching and learning are likely to follow their conceptions of what is meant by learning as well as their beliefs in what language is. The relationship between beliefs in language teaching and beliefs in language learning is also interactive and interconnected. All these beliefs and attitudes are crucial in the sense that they may not only influence but also affect the way they interpret and react to washback. Such a basis not only helps to clarify the complexity of the innovation process, but also helps to improve further innovation endeavours.

### **5.1.7.1 The Descriptive Statistics**

Washback may affect learners' actions and/or their perceptions, and such perceptions may have wide ranging consequences. This section dealt with 8 questions on different aspects. The internal reliabilities of the questions were:  $\alpha = 0.71$  (Cronbach's alpha) for student questions, and  $\alpha = 0.77$  (Cronbach's alpha) for teacher questions. The question addressed particular aspects of HSC EFL testing and its underlying influence on academic and personal behaviour. Major aspects addressed in this section were: (a) external and internal pressure for good results (Q38, Q44, and Q43), (b) anxiety and tension for examination (Q41), and (c) perception on HSC examination and its impact on future course of actions, (Q39, Q40, Q42, and Q45).

#### **5.1.7.1.1 Perception of External Pressure and EFL Proficiency**

Q38, Q44 and Q43 were asked to know about various issues on teachers' and students' perceptions on the HSC EFL test. Q 38 asked whether the respondents felt pressure for good results. More than 67% students ( $M=3.64$ ,  $STDV= 1.530$ ,  $Variance= 2.341$ ) replied that their parents, college authorities, and relatives pressurised them to make good results. HSC examination is a high-stakes test and its result is of high importance for future career and education. Therefore, the parents and relatives feel concerned about their ward's results. In replying to the same question, 64% teachers ( $M=3.54$ ,  $STDV=1.604$ ,  $Variance=2.573$ ) pointed out that

they felt external pressures (e.g. authority, guardians) to improve the pass rate and high scores in the examination. Very often, their reputation largely depends on the success rate in the examination. The tables below (Table 5.53 and Table 5.54) present the findings:

Table 5.53: Frequency counts on external and internal pressure and language proficiency

Qno.	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total Sample
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	Percent (%)	Freq	PCT %	Freq	PCT %	
SQ38	336	67.2	155	31	8	1.6	1	.2	500
TQ38	80	64	45	36	-	-	-	-	125
SQ43	400	80	93	18.6	6	1.2	1	.2	500
TQ43	104	83.2	19	15.2	1	.8	1	.8	125
SQ44	409	81.8	77	15.4	12	2.4	2	.4	500
TQ44	114	91.2	6	4.8	5	4.0	-	-	125

In response to Q43, 80% students (M= 4.05, STDV=1.278, Variance=1.634) believed that they could learn English better if there was no pressure for good results in the examination, while more than 82% teachers (M=4.00, STDV=1.176, Variance=1.382) pointed out that they could teach English better if there was no pressure. Pressure for good results impedes language teaching and learning; both external and internal pressure should be minimized for creating a good teaching and learning atmosphere. The histograms below (Figure 5.77 and Figure 5.78) display different levels of findings and distribution of skewness and kurtosis:

Figure 5.77: Pressure for good results (student)

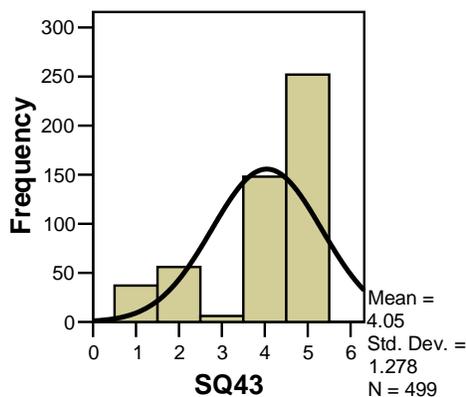
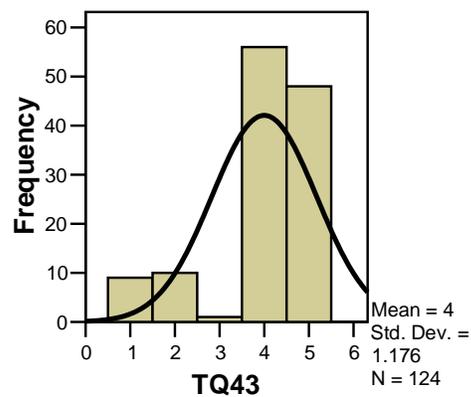


Figure 5.78: Pressure for good results (teacher)



Q44 asked the respondents whether the students could make good results without improving their proficiency in English. Nearly 82% students (M=4.17, STDV=1.222, Variance= 1.493, skewness= -1.45, kurtosis=.912), and over 91% teachers (M=4.17, STDV=1.222, skewness=-1.912, kurtosis=4.547) believed that the learners could make their score relatively higher without attaining required level of proficiency in EFL. Test results have a significant impact on the career or life chances of individual test takers (e.g. educational/employment opportunities). They also impact on educational systems and on society more widely:

Table 5.54: Descriptive statistics on external and internal pressure and language proficiency

Qno	Mean	Mdn	STDV	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SQ38	3.64	4.00	1.530	2.341	-.685	-1.142	3.51	3.77
TQ38	3.54	4.00	1.604	2.573	-.546	-1.411	3.26	3.82
SQ43	4.05	5.00	1.278	1.634	-1.267	.316	3.94	4.16
TQ43	4.00	4.00	1.176	1.382	-1.404	1.117	3.79	4.21
SQ44	4.17	5.00	1.222	1.493	-1.45	.912	4.06	4.28
TQ44	4.36	5.00	.865	.748	-1.912	4.547	4.21	4.51

The histograms below (Figure 5.79 and Figure 5.80) are negatively skewed indicating that most of the respondents agreed with the statements of the question. The kurtosis values in histograms are normally shaped, and the tails are normally distributed as per the frequency of the findings:

Figure 5.79: Language proficiency versus good results (student)

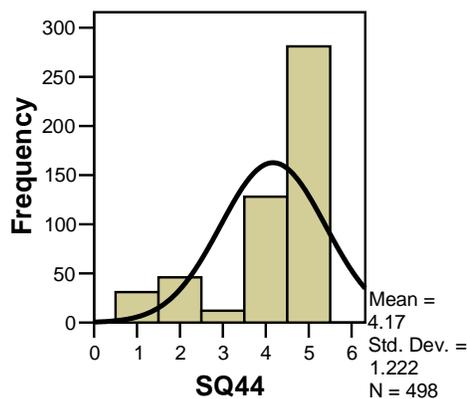
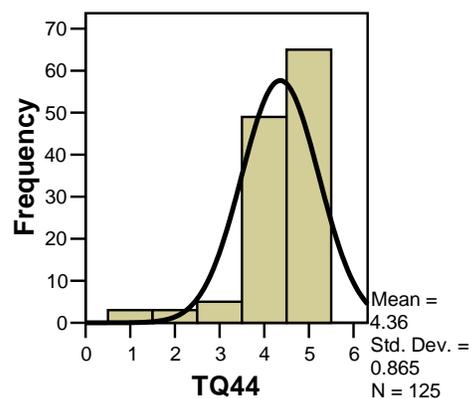


Figure 5.80: Language proficiency versus good results (teacher)



### 5.1.7.1.2 Anxiety and Tension for Examination

Q41 asked whether the students suffered from anxiety and tension for the HSC examination in English. 79% students (M=3.99, STDV=1.236, Variance=1.528) confirmed that they suffered from tension and anxiety, whereas more than 78% teachers (M=3.92, STDV= 1.323, Variance=1.752) supported the students' reply (Table 5.55 and Table 5.56):

Table 5.55: Frequency counts on anxiety and tension for examination

No.	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total Sample
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	Percent (%)	Freq	PCT %	Freq	PCT %	
SQ41	395	79	98	19.6	4	.8	3	.6	500
TQ41	98	78.4	24	19.2	3	2.4	-	-	125

Since the HSC examination is a high-stakes test, its impact on learners and teachers are manifold. Q38 was used as a cross-referencing question for this item where it was found that the both groups of respondents suffered from external pressures and those pressures generated anxiety and tension. The teachers as well as the learners are adequately aware of the consequences of failure or poor results in the examinations:

Table 5.56: Descriptive statistics on anxiety and tension for examination

Qno	Mean	Mdn	STDV	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SQ41	3.99	4.00	1.236	1.528	-1.147	.094	3.88	4.10
TQ41	3.92	4.00	1.323	1.752	-1.187	.154	3.69	4.15

### 5.1.7.1.3 Perception of the HSC Examination in English

Q39, Q40, Q42 and Q43 asked the respondents how they felt with the EFL examination in English. Q39 asked whether the students could make high score without improving their language proficiency. For this, 72% teacher (M=3.69, STDV=1.431, Variance=2.048) replied in the affirmative, while nearly 74% teachers (M=3.92, STDV=1.423, Variance =2.026) agreed with the students (Table 5.57):

Table 5.57: Frequency counts on perception and belief

No.	Significant Frequency				Negligible Frequency				Total Sample
	Agreement (SA+A)		Disagreement (SD +D)		Neutral		Missing		
	Freq.	Percent (%)	Freq	Percent (%)	Freq	PCT %	Freq	PCT %	
SQ39	360	72	135	27	3	.6	2	.4	500
TQ39	92	73.6	31	24.8	2	1.6	-	-	125
SQ40	255	51	236	47.2	7	1.4	2	.4	500
TQ40	101	80.8	22	17.6	1	.8	1	.8	125
SQ42	127	25.4	365	73	5	1.0	3	.6	500
TQ42	34	27.2	88	70.4	3	2.4	-	-	125
SQ45	423	84.6	65	13	10	2.0	2	.4	500
TQ45	104	83.2	18	14.4	3	2.4	-	-	125

Washback may affect learners' actions and/or their perceptions, and such perceptions may have wide ranging consequences. Sturman (1996) uses a combination of qualitative and quantitative data to investigate students' reactions to registration and placement procedures at two English language schools in Japan. The placement procedures included a written test and an interview. He finds that students' perceptions and beliefs towards test contribute to the learning in school and at home.

In replying to Q40, asked 51% students (M=3.16, STDV=1.527, Skewness=-.065, Kurtosis= -1.6) considered the examination results as the feedback of their learning while nearly 81% teachers (M= 4.10, STDV= 1.174) believed that they got feedback of their teaching from the students' results (Table 5.57 and Table 5.58):

Table 5.58: Findings from descriptive statistics on perception and belief

Qno	Mean	Mdn	STDV	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SQ39	3.69	4.00	1.431	2.048	-.838	-.771	3.56	3.82
TQ39	3.92	5.00	1.423	2.026	-1.000	-.554	3.67	4.17
SQ40	3.16	4.00	1.527	2.332	-.065	-1.599	3.06	3.32
TQ40	4.10	4.50	1.174	1.379	-1.247	.365	3.89	4.31
SQ42	2.30	2.00	1.383	1.913	.884	-.608	2.18	2.42
TQ42	2.34	2.00	1.449	2.098	.802	-.830	2.09	2.59
SQ45	4.28	5.00	1.120	1.254	-1.611	1.549	4.18	4.38
TQ45	4.14	4.00	1.134	1.286	-1.401	1.032	3.94	4.34

Q42 asked whether the present HSC examination in English helped the students improve language proficiency. In reply, 73% students (M=2.30,

STDV=1.383, Variance=1.913) replied in the negative saying that the present examination system did not help them improve language proficiency. Similarly, almost 74% teacher (M=2.34, STDV=1.449, Variance=2.098) agreed with the maximum students. Q44 was used as a cross-referencing question for checking the validation of the results. As an another cross-referencing question, Q6 was used which asked whether the examination tested student's overall competence in English; it was found that more than 69% students and over 59% teachers replied that the overall competence in English was not tested:

Figure 5.81: Feeling embarrassed (student)

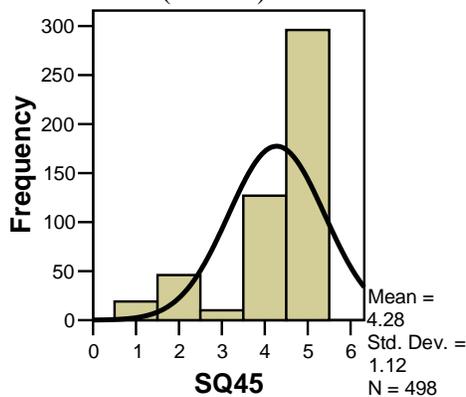
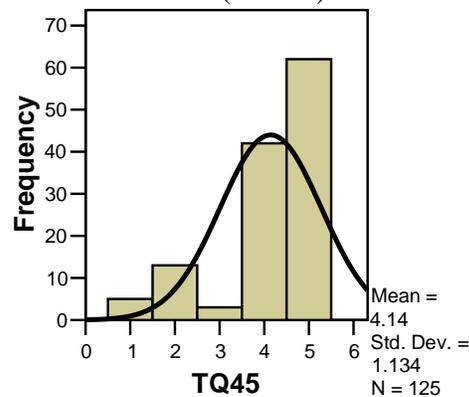


Figure 5.82: Feeling embarrassed (teacher)



Q45 asked whether the respondents were frustrated or embarrassed incase of failure or poor performance in the examination. Almost 85% students (M=4.28, STDV=1.120, Variance=1.254) replied that they were frustrated if they failed or performed badly in the examination. Over 83% teachers (M= 4.14, STDV=1.134, Variance=1.286) commented that they were embarrassed about failure and poor performance in the examination. The histograms are skewed negatively (Figure 5.81 and Figure 5.82). The tables (Table 5.57 and Table 5.58) present the details of findings. Along with the mean and the standard deviation the histograms display the distribution of skewness and kurtosis values. A large number of teachers help students cope with the examinations in order to preserve their reputation as good teachers. This situation is unavoidable because of the extrinsic values of examinations (Khaniya, 1990).

Herman and Golan (1991 and 1993) indicated that teachers in schools with increasing test scores felt more pressure to improve their students' test scores from different external sources than teachers in schools with stable or decreasing scores did. The external sources included their principals, school administrators, other

teacher colleagues, parents, the community, and/or the media. In this study, the external forces, which existed within society, education and colleges, that influenced teachers' curricular planning and instruction, were examined. Teachers' perceived external pressure in teaching was measured by summing the total score of the items related to this domain on the survey questionnaire.

Linguists and EFL practitioners worldwide are now raising their voice for “testing for teaching, not teaching for testing”. Test should be used as a lever of promoting learning. But in many countries like Bangladesh, due to adoption of poor education policy, the test itself hinders learning, especially, learning English as a foreign language. Tests can aid learning and teaching both if aimed to assess the required skills. It is now accepted that public examinations influence the attitudes, behaviour, and motivation of teachers, learners and parents. Many studies have been carried out on washback explicating that it can be either beneficial or harmful depending upon the contents and techniques.

The test is compulsory a part of education. All classes have tests, and all students are expected to perform to the best of their abilities on tests. Therefore, teachers and students place significant emphasis on tests despite the stakes. Andrews and Fullilove point out, "Not only have many tests failed to change, but they have continued to exert a powerful negative washback effect on teaching" (Andrews and Fullilove, 1994, p. 57). Tests are often perceived as exerting a conservative force which impedes progress. Heyneman (1987) has commented that teachers teach to an examination. In Bangladesh context, it is a proven fact that that the pass rate in the examination is the only measure to assess institutional success. It is a very common phenomenon that many candidates commit suicide and get absconded due o failure or poor performance in the examination. For many institutions, the salary of the teachers remains held up for poor success rate in the examination.

### **5.1.7.2 Levene's Test and T-Test Analysis**

As mentioned, the independent-samples T-Test evaluates the difference between the means of two independent or unrelated groups. That is, it evaluates whether the means for two independent groups are significantly different from each other. The independent-samples T-Test is commonly referred to as a between-groups

design, and can also be used to analyze a control and experimental group. With independent-samples T-Test, each case must have scores on two variables, the grouping (independent) variable and the test (dependent) variable. The grouping variable divides cases into two mutually exclusive groups or categories, here, students and teachers. The T-Test evaluates whether the mean value of the test variable (e.g., test performance) for one group (e.g., students) differs significantly from the mean value of the test variable for the second group (e.g., teachers):

Table 5.59: Statistics on belief, attitudes and perception towards the test

	Resp_type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q38	Student	499	3.64	1.530	.068
	Teacher	125	3.54	1.604	.143
Q39	Student	498	3.69	1.430	.064
	Teacher	125	3.92	1.423	.127
Q40	Student	498	3.16	1.529	.069
	Teacher	124	4.10	1.174	.105
Q41	Student	497	3.99	1.236	.055
	Teacher	125	3.92	1.323	.118
Q42	Student	497	2.30	1.378	.062
	Teacher	125	2.34	1.449	.130
Q43	Student	499	4.05	1.278	.057
	Teacher	124	4.00	1.176	.106
Q44	Student	498	4.17	1.222	.055
	Teacher	125	4.36	.865	.077
Q45	Student	498	4.28	1.120	.050
	Teacher	125	4.14	1.134	.101

In this section, the findings of Levene's test for equality of variances and independent sample test (T-Test) are presented. This section includes 8 questions (Q38-Q45) about different issues on belief, attitudes and perception of the teachers and the students towards the HSC examination in English and its impact on their academic and personal behaviours.

In the present study, the researcher used T-Test (the Independent Samples T-Test) to compares the mean scores of students and teachers on a given variable. As mentioned, the first step in using the independent-samples T-Test statistical analysis is to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance, where the null hypothesis

assumes no difference between the two group's variances ( $H_0: \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ ). The Levene's F Test for Equality of Variances is the most commonly used statistic to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance. The Levene's test uses the level of significance set a priority for the T-Test analysis.

- There is not a significant difference if the sig. value is greater than alpha(.050)
- There is a significant difference if the sig. value is less than or equal to alpha (.05) (e.g.,  $\alpha = .05$ ) to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance.

Table 5.60: Levene's test of equity of variances- significant deference

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
Q40	Equal variances assumed	91.471	.000*
	Equal variances not assumed		

\* = significant at  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.61: T-Test for equity of means for significant difference

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Q40	Equal variances assumed	91.471	.000	-6.406	620	.000*	-.942	-1.231	-.653
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.492	238.23	.000*	-.942	-1.190	-.694

\* = significant at  $p < 0.05$

For Q40 (shown above), the F value for Levene's test was 91.471 with a Sig. (p) value of .000 ( $p < .001$ ). Since the Sig. value was less than alpha of .05 ( $p < .05$ ), the null hypothesis was rejected (no difference) for the assumption of homogeneity of variance. There was a significant difference between the two groups' variances (students and Teachers). That is, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met. If the assumption of homogeneity of variance is not met, the data results

associated with the “Equal variances not assumed,” is taken. If the assumption of homogeneity of variance is met, the data results associated with the “Equal variances assumed,” is taken and interpreted the data accordingly Table 5.60 and Table 5.61).

For this example (Q42), since the  $t$  value ( $-7.492$ , which indicates that the second group was higher than the first group) resulted in a Sig. ( $p$ ) value that was (.000) less than the alpha of .05 ( $p < .05$ , which puts the obtained  $t$  in the tail) – the study rejected the null hypothesis in support of the alternative hypothesis, and concluded that students and teachers differed significantly on the same variable.

By examining the group means for this sample of subjects (not shown here), the study found that the teachers (with a mean of 4.10) responded significantly higher on this domain than students did (with a mean of 3.16). Similarly, for the Q43 (table: 5.71), the  $F$  value for Levene’s test was 4.950 with a Sig. ( $p$ ) value of .026 ( $p < .001$ ). Because the Sig. value was less than alpha of .05 ( $p < .05$ ), the study rejected the null hypothesis (no difference) for the assumption of homogeneity of variance and concluded that there was a significant difference between the two groups’ variances (students and Teachers). Therefore, the bottom line data was used for T-Test results on variances. It was found that the  $t$  value = .384, and significance sig (2-tailed) = .702. The  $p$  value was greater than alpha value  $p > .05$  which indicated that the variances were not significantly different.

For Q44,  $F$  value for Levene’s test was 13.521 with a Sig. ( $p$ ) value of .000 ( $p < .001$ ). Since the Sig. value was less than alpha of .05 ( $p < .05$ ), the study rejected the null hypothesis (no difference) for the assumption of homogeneity of variance and concludes that there is a significant difference between the two group’s variances (students and Teachers). The Levene’s test uses the level of significance set *a priori* for the  $t$  test analysis. Now the bottom line data “Equal variances not assumed” is used for T-Test analysis. It was found that  $t$  value =  $-2.019$ ,  $df=262.796$ , and the sig (2-tailed) = .045. The significance of  $t$  ( $p$ -value) was smaller than the alpha value  $p < .05$  which indicated that the variances between the two groups (students and teachers) were significantly different:

Table 5.62: Levene's test of equity of variances- insignificant deference

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
Q38	Equal variances assumed	2.652	.104
	Equal variances not assumed		

\* = significant at  $p < 0.05$

For the Q38, the F value for Levene's test was 2.652 with a Sig. ( $p$ ) value of .104 ( $p < .001$ ). As the Sig. value was more than alpha of .05 ( $p > .05$ ), the study accepted the null hypothesis (no difference) for the assumption of homogeneity of variance and concluded that the two groups were not significantly different (students and Teachers). That is, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met (Table 5.62):

Table 5.63: T-Test for equity of means for insignificant difference

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means					
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Q38	Equal variances assumed	2.652	.104	.591	622	.555	.091	-.212	.395
	Equal variances not assumed			.574	184.574	.567	.091	-.222	.405

\* = significant at  $p < 0.05$

If the Levene's Test is significant (the value under "Sig." is less than .05), the two variances are significantly different. If it is not significant (Sig. is greater than .05), the two variances are not significantly different; that is, the two variances are approximately equal (Table 5.63). If the Levene's test is not significant, the study has met the second assumption. Here, it was found that the significance was .104, which is greater than .05. We can assume that the variances are approximately equal. The students mean and teachers mean (Students Mean=3.64, and Teachers

Mean=3.54) are nearly equal. Therefore, the results associated with the “Equal variances assumed was taken (Top line)” and interpreted the findings accordingly.

For Q38, it was found that t value=. 591, df= 622, and sig (2-tailed) =.555 which was greater than alpha value (p) .05. Therefore, it concluded that the two variances were not significantly different. That is, the both group of respondents gave similar opinion on the issue that the teachers took care of their students whether the students could follow their teacher’s instruction:

Table 5.64: Finding of T-Tests analysis: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Q38	Equal variances assumed	2.652	.104	.591	622	.555	.091	-.212	.395
	Equal variances not assumed			.574	184.574	.567	.091	-.222	.405
Q39	Equal variances assumed	.066	.797	-1.604	621	.109	-.229	-.510	.051
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.608	191.730	.109	-.229	-.510	.052
Q40	Equal variances assumed	91.471	.000	-6.406	620	.000*	-.942	-1.231	-.653
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.492	238.231	.000*	-.942	-1.190	-.694
Q41	Equal variances assumed	.834	.361	.541	620	.588	.068	-.179	.314
	Equal variances not assumed			.520	182.191	.604	.068	-.190	.326
Q42	Equal variances assumed	1.489	.223	-.346	620	.729	-.048	-.322	.225
	Equal variances not assumed			-.336	184.454	.737	-.048	-.331	.235
Q43	Equal variances assumed	4.950	.026	.365	621	.715	.046	-.202	.294
	Equal variances not assumed			.384	201.611	.702	.046	-.191	.283
Q44	Equal variances assumed	13.521	.000	-1.650	621	.100	-.191	-.419	.036
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.019	262.796	.045*	-.191	-.378	-.005
Q45	Equal variances assumed	.030	.862	1.167	621	.244	.131	-.089	.352
	Equal variances not assumed			1.159	189.331	.248	.131	-.092	.354

\* = significant at p < 0.05

The Levene’s (F) values for the Q39, Q41, Q42, and Q45 were .066, .834, 1.489, and .030 respectively. The Levene’s significances (sig) of all those questions

were ( $P > .05$ ) .797, .361, .223, and .862. The significances were greater than .05 which indicated that their variances were insignificantly different. Therefore, the 'Equal variances assumed' (top lines) output was used for T-Test analysis. For (variable) Q39, the t value was 1.604,  $df=621$ , and most importantly the sig (2-tailed) was .109. This indicated that the variances between two groups were insignificantly different or nearly equal. Q39 asked whether the students could score good marks without improving their English proficiency. Levene's test for Equality of Variances as well as t-test proved that the both group of respondents gave almost same responses (students mean=.3.69, teachers mean=3.92) and agreed with statement of questions (Table 5.64).

The t value for Q41 was .541;  $df$  was 620; and the significance (2-tailed) was .588. The significance of t was insignificant because the p value was ( $p > .05$ ) greater than alpha value .05. So, the variances of the two groups were not significantly different. Q41 asked whether the students suffered from anxiety and tension. It was found that both groups of respondents confirmed that the students suffered from anxiety and tension for the examination. For Q42, t value=.384,  $df=201.611$ , means difference =-.048, and significance of t= .702.

Levene's test for Equality of Variances and independent sample test (t-test) find that the means variances between two groups were not significantly different. The students' mean (2.30) and teachers' mean (2.34) were nearly same. The respondents believed that the present HSC examination in English did not help them improve language proficiency. The Levene's F value for Q45 was .030, and significance was .862 (sig). Levene's significance ( $P > .05$ ) was greater than .05 which suggested that variances of two groups were negligible or insignificant. Furthermore, the t- value for this question was 1.167 and  $df$  was 621. Most importantly, the significance (2-tailed) was .244 which was larger than alpha value .05. Therefore, it concluded that the variances were not significantly different indicating that both groups of respondents equally agreed to the issue of embarrassment and frustration due to failure or poor performance in the examination.

### **5.1.8 Evidence of Washback from the Questionnaire Surveys**

It can be seen from the findings of the questionnaire surveys that identifying washback effects of the HSC examination is complicated. It was found that very often students did not have much control over the choice of learning activities in the classroom. The activities they actually carried out in the class were assigned by their teachers. The teachers did it because of power of the test. Actually, the teachers taught to the test. It was a strong evidence of negative washback on teaching and learning. Differences in the teachers' and students' opinions and perceptions were tested for statistical significance using independent sample T-Tests. A probability of less than 0.05 was taken as statistically significant for both tests. In most of the cases, the difference between the teachers' and students' opinion was statistically insignificant indicating that they gave almost similar responses. There was much of an indication of negative washback on aspects of teaching at the micro level.

The study revealed that both the teachers and the students did not bother and care about the objectives of the HSC syllabus and curriculum; therefore, teaching and learning of communicative competence (e.g. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) were neglected in the class. The both groups of respondents gave a higher weighting to the activities of the test preparation in the classes, putting more emphasis on reading and writing. However, the teachers considered it less likely that they would employ new teaching methods to increase communicative competence, indicating a degree of reluctance by teachers to make changes in certain aspects of their teaching. In addition, the majority of the teachers adequately used Bengali (half English and half Bengali) as a medium of instruction due to, according to the teachers, the low level of their students' language proficiency. The study found that the examination influenced how the teachers would teach. The majority of the teachers employed test-oriented commercially produced materials and their teaching mainly relied on the content and organisation of the HSC examination. The results suggested that there was washback effect on the teaching materials. Most of the teachers and students changed their emotion, attitudes, and classroom behaviours because of the influence of the test. The results indicated that where there was a test impact, it was likely to be negative. Explaining the teachers' reluctance to make changes is complicated, and is explored further through detailed classroom observations, review of examination related documents and in-depth interviews in the next sections of this chapter.

## 5.2 Findings of the Classroom Observation

For the presentation and discussion of the findings from the classroom observation, the present researcher initially gives a description of the background information of the observation schedules and checklist. Then, he addresses personal details of the participants including their gender, education level completed, number of years of teaching, previous language teaching experiences, and training received in ELT. Following that, the researcher reports their (teachers') teaching performances which he examined in their classrooms.

In light of the abundance of data collected, only general information is given here. Specifically, the present researcher focuses only on the three major themes that have emerged pertaining to the research questions. The first theme describes the influence of the HSC examination in English on teaching and learning. It includes beliefs teachers articulated in the HSC examination and its impact (washback). The second theme reports on teachers' curriculum knowledge (e.g., knowledge of the HSC examination and the Syllabus and Curriculum). The third theme presents the real evidence of the effects of the HSC examination on their teaching that has emerged during the classroom observation. The last theme has emerged under the category of teachers' beliefs in teaching and classroom scenarios of how they teach.

It describes teachers' various conceptions of teaching and learning and their real practice in the classroom. In terms of 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.

### 5.2.1 Observation Schedules and Checklist

As stated in Chapter Four, a number of observation instruments have been applied based on developments in language teaching. However, no observation instruments have been developed specifically for washback studies. As a result, the classroom observation instruments were designed for the purpose of the present study in Bangladesh context. The observation schemes adopted in this study were the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995), University of Cambridge Classroom Observation Schedule (UCOS) to focus on what teachers and students actually do in the classroom and how they interact (Allen, Fröhlich, & Spada, 1984: 232), and a self-made checklist.

The researcher observed 10 EFL teachers (teaching English First Paper) both in rural and urban sites. The main aim of this section is to present and discuss the findings of the classroom observation using the COLT, UCOS, and a self-made checklist. Although these instruments focus on describing the instructional practices, procedures and materials in the foreign language classrooms, COLT had a more general application while UCOS had been designed to capture features salient to examination preparation courses. This section also discusses the analysis of additional categories defined for this study, as the purpose of classroom observation was also to obtain a view of the climate and rapport together with the interaction and functioning of the classes. In the first part of this section, information from COLT (part-A) is provided, covering interaction, control of the content of the lessons, potential predominance of teacher fronted activities, most common skills used by the students and materials employed. The analysis using the UCOS (part-2) provides information on occurrence of activities which might be expected in examination classes, the types of texts actually used in the classes, class time spent on grammar and vocabulary activities and classification of reading, writing, listening and speaking activities.

This is followed by a further analysis of the observation through an additional self-made checklist which 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. This collection and detailed analysis of the activities of the classrooms was used for two purposes - to gather information about the nature of the HSC examination preparation classes, and to provide data to inform of the discussion of the washback effect of the test on each of the ten classes observed.

In this section of the study, the evidence of washback was sought in various ways: (a) the nature and focus of the classroom activities and instruction, (b) the type and content of instruction, (c) the amount of language instruction, (d) the amount of exam-related instruction, and (e) the type and origin of the classroom materials and the atmosphere of the class.

## 5.2.2 Profile of the Participants

All the 10 observation participants were currently EFL teachers 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 5.65). All of them received a master's degree in English. Their teaching hours ranged from 8-12 hours per week. At the time of observation, they were teaching HSC students with similar level of proficiency in English. None of them had experience of studying or working abroad. Two participants reported having received teacher training in ELT, and one teacher claimed to have been exposed to task-based activities:

Table 5.65: 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						

### 5.2.3 Classroom Observation Schedule- COLT (Part-A)

The COLT consisted of two parts. Part-A of the COLT was employed in this study, as a classroom analysis at the level of activity matched the nature of the research questions to be answered. Part-B was not employed since the focus of this study was not mainly on the language used in the class.

The classroom observation examined the washback effect on the teaching and learning. The categories based on Part -A of the COLT were designed to (a) capture significant features of classroom events, and (b) provide a means of classroom interaction. The main focuses in this phase of the study are related to the washback effect on:

- a) the English language syllabus at the HSC level,
- b) textbook materials used in practice,
- c) teachers' teaching behaviours, and
- d) teachers' beliefs, attitudes and perception related to test.

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 observation scheme (COLT) for the study consisted of five major categories including time, participant organisation, activity type, content, and material used. They were all coded in the classes. 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. The major categories are briefly discussed below:

**Time:** How is time segmented within the lesson as a percentage of class time? This category related to instructional behaviours in the classroom. The unit of analysis chosen was a 'segment'. A segment is defined by Mitchell (1988) as "a stretch of classroom discourse having a particular topic and involving participants (both the teacher and students) in carrying out an activity or task through interaction" (p.12-14). A change of topic/activity type or a mode of interaction

indicates a completion or the start of a new segment (Gibbons, 2006, p, 95). The segment was selected as the basic unit of analysis because it has distinctive features, both linguistic and pedagogic, and therefore can be readily divided into categories as a percentage of class time. Segment boundaries were identified on the basis of ‘focusing moves’ and ‘framing moves’ (Gibbons, 2006), which were indicators of the completion of one stage of a lesson and the beginning of another. Therefore, the first step in analysing any lessons observed was to divide the lesson into segments.

**Participant Organisation:** Who is holding the floor/talking during the segments of the lesson as a percentage of class time? Participant organisation covers three basic patterns of organisation for classroom interactions. The three patterns are: whole class – involving teacher to students, or student to students, pair work or group work, and individual work (Allen et al., 1984).

These categories describe how a lesson is carried out in terms of the participants in the classroom interaction. The categories reflect different theoretical approaches to teaching. Moreover, student talk in a teacher-centred classroom is frequently limited to the production of isolated sentences, which are assessed for their grammatical accuracy rather than for their communicative competence. Highly controlled, teacher-centred approaches are thought to impose restrictions on the growth of students’ productive activity. Participant organisation is one of the rationales behind the imposition of language tests in order to encourage more practice opportunities for students. Therefore, it is necessary to observe the participant organisation of classroom interaction patterns in this study. The findings enabled a comparative investigation of the interaction patterns in classes to see if there were any differences between different groups.

**Activity Type:** What are teaching and learning activities realised through various tasks and activities as a percentage of class time? After each lesson had been segmented and interaction patterns of classroom activity analysed, the aim was to look more closely at the types of activity carried out within the segments. Each activity was separately noted down such as discussing, lecturing, or singing.

**Content:** What are the teacher and the students talking, reading and writing about? Or what are they listening to? ‘Content’ refers to the subject matter of the activities.

**Materials Used:** What types of teaching materials are used and for what purpose?

**Types of materials:**

- a) The study looked at the written materials, such as textbooks, worksheets, and mock examination papers;
- b) It examined whether any audio materials, such as songs were used in the class; and
- c) It observed if visual materials, such as films were used.

**Purposes of materials:**

- a) The study examined the pedagogical (e.g., main textbook specifically designed for EFL learning) purposes of using the materials;
- b) It investigated the semi-pedagogical (e.g. model examination papers) purposes; and
- c) It checked the non-pedagogical (materials originally intended for non-teaching purposes, such as English songs and films) purposes of using the materials.

As mentioned, the lessons of each class were coded according to COLT (Part-A). The basic units of analysis for this part of the observation scheme are ‘activities’ and/or ‘episodes’. Activities and episodes are the units which form the instructional segments of the lesson. Activities consist of one or more episodes and mark changes in the category of the features of COLT being observed.

**5.2.3.1 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 and how it was organised. The findings are represented in the Table 5.66. The first COLT category looked at whether classroom activity focused on the teacher or on the students working as a whole class, in groups or as individuals. These categories described how a lesson was carried out in terms of the participants in the classroom interaction. The categories reflected different theoretical approaches to teaching. For example, Allen et al. (1984) and Gibbons (2006) consider group work as an important factor in the development of fluency skills. Allen et al. (1984, p. 236)

claim that “In the classes dominated by the teacher, students spend most of their time responding to questions and rarely initiate speech”. Moreover, student talk in a teacher-centred classroom is frequently limited to the production of isolated sentences, which are assessed for their grammatical accuracy rather than for their communicative competence. The details of the participation organization are presented in Table 5.66. For the purposes of this study, the ten teachers were anonymous and coded as T1 to T10. The class duration was 50 minutes. The participant organisation patterns maintained in the study were (a) teacher to students (pre-lesson activities, lecturing, describing, explaining, narrating, directing, checking answers for exercises together, practising test, reading aloud), (b) individual work (student-student), (c) group work(students are working on a certain task in groups), and (d) pair work (sharing one another, e.g. on dialogue, problem solving, etc). The findings are presented in the above table (Table 5.66):

Table 5.66: Distribution of (%) participant organization  
[M=Mean, STVD= Standard Deviation]

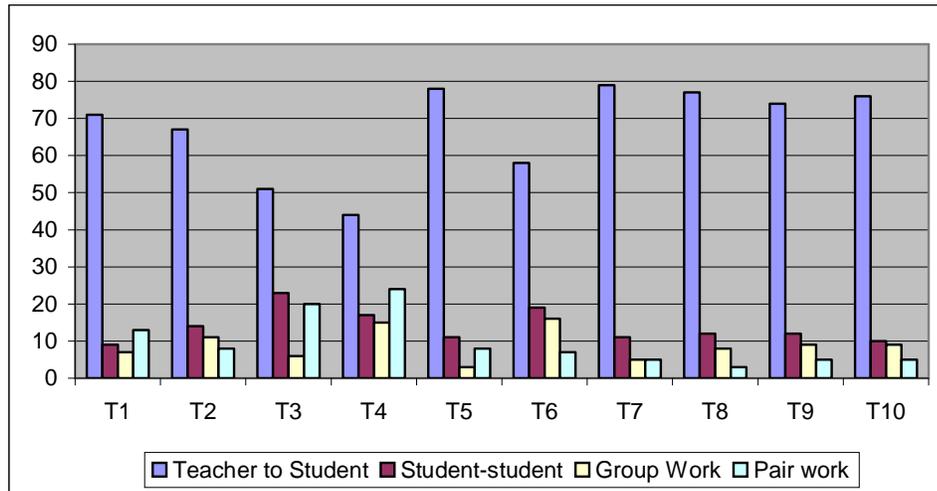
Participation Organization	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	M	STDV
Teacher to students (class)	71	67	51	44	78	58	79	77	74	76	67.5	12.36
Individual work	9	14	23	17	11	19	11	12	12	10	13.8	4.45
Group work	7	11	6	15	3	16	5	8	9	9	8.9	4.0
Pair work	13	8	20	24	8	7	5	3	5	5	9.3	7.0
Total (%)	100	100	100	100	100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

The classroom observation 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). The other interaction included a number of practice tests, resulting naturally in individual students working on a single task.

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

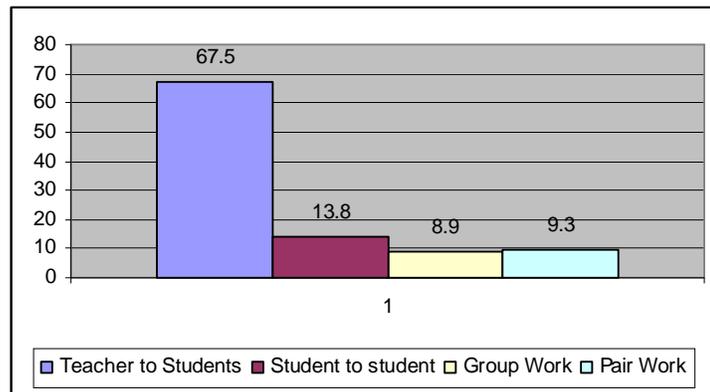
students in a number of activities. With regard to participant organisation, the study found that most of the teachers (90%) occupied maximum class time indicating that the classroom was teacher-dominated rather than student-oriented. This practice is directly opposed to communicative language teaching (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. Activity types were grouped into (1) teacher activities, (2) teacher and student activities carried out together and (3) student activities. Each activity was classified, such as discussion, drill or singing. The averaged participation (percentage) as well as the individual teacher's class-time occupation is also shown in the Figure 5.83:

Figure 5.83: Teachers' class participation organization



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. The figure (Figure 5.84) shows that an average of 67.5% class time was used by teachers, nearly 14% of the time was spent in 'student to student' interaction (e.g. dialogues, conversation, asking question, personal talk), approximately 9% class time was used for groups, and more than 9% time was utilized for pair work:

Figure 5.84: Average class participant organizations



### 5.2.3.2 Classroom Activity and Content

The purpose of looking at activity type in classroom teaching was to explore what kinds of teaching and learning were realised through various activities. 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 5.67) 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.

COLT identifies the content of the classroom activities, measuring where the focus lies – on meaning, form or a combination. The two main categories are topics related to classroom management (procedure) and language issues. There is also a category which provides a binary distinction to be made about whether the content refers to the immediate classroom and the students' immediate environment (*Narrow*), (the discussion focussing on *Narrow* subjects was limited to a brief discussion about their feelings about the results of a test and describing their important friendships, etc.) or encompasses *broader topics* (*Broad*). 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. Only slightly over 19% of the class time was spent on aspects of language teaching and learning (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, discourse, function, sociolinguistics, etc). Information about written discourse was the most significant language focus, followed by vocabulary, and the combination of discourse and vocabulary, which was typically work, related to discourse markers (Table 5.67).

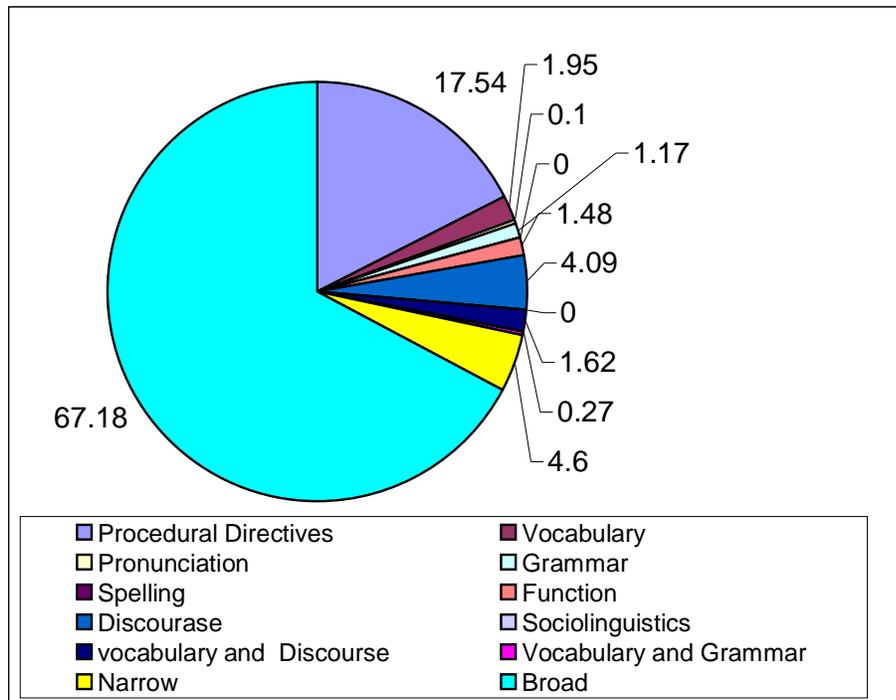
The discussion focusing on narrow subjects was limited to a brief discussion about their feelings about the results of a test. Language instruction played a significant role in the observed classes. Activities focusing on both vocabulary and grammar were the most common category of classroom content. The learning of vocabulary was particularly important. 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 5.67) presents the details of classroom activities and contents taught:

Table 5.67: 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	<b>Average</b>	

In the teacher dominated language classroom, a little learning takes place. During the observation, the present researcher found that the teachers were playing dominating role for the examination preparation activities. It was found that the teachers spent most of the class time for Broad, and Procedural purposes. The figure below (Figure 5.85) displays the findings of the classroom activities and contents:

Figure 5.85: Projection of lesson contents



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.

### 5.2.3.2.1 Content Control of Classroom Activities

In order to assess the level of involvement of the students in the control of the lesson, the researcher (using COLT) identified who was responsible for content selection. The variables in this category were the teacher, the student/s, the teacher and text, or a combination. The teacher's individual control over the class as well as the average percentage is reflected in the following table (Table 5.68). In the class, it was 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.

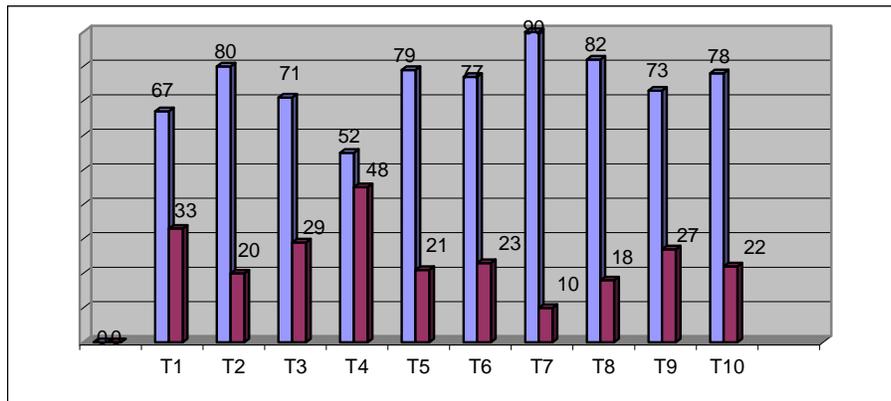
Reflecting the amount of student involvement in all 10 classes is shown in the following table (Table 5.68) and figure (Figure 5.86). The control of the content of the classroom activity was most commonly shared between the teacher, text and students and varied from 55% to 90%. For example, the teacher 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 student control varied from 10% to 45% in different classes. 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 5.68 presents the average and individual results of content control expressed as percentage of each total class time for the three classes:

Table 5.68: Content control as a percentage of total class time

<b>Content Control</b>	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	10.2247
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. Teachers' content-control was found high because the negative washback influenced their personal and academic behaviours. The figure below shows how the content control occurs in the language classroom:

Figure 5.86: Content control as a percentage of total class time



### 5.2.3.2.2 Student Modality

Identifying the skills the students were involved in during the classroom activities is recorded in the section called 'Student Modality'. This is broken down into the four skills (e.g. listening, speaking, reading and writing) with a fifth category which allows activities such as drawing or acting to be recorded.

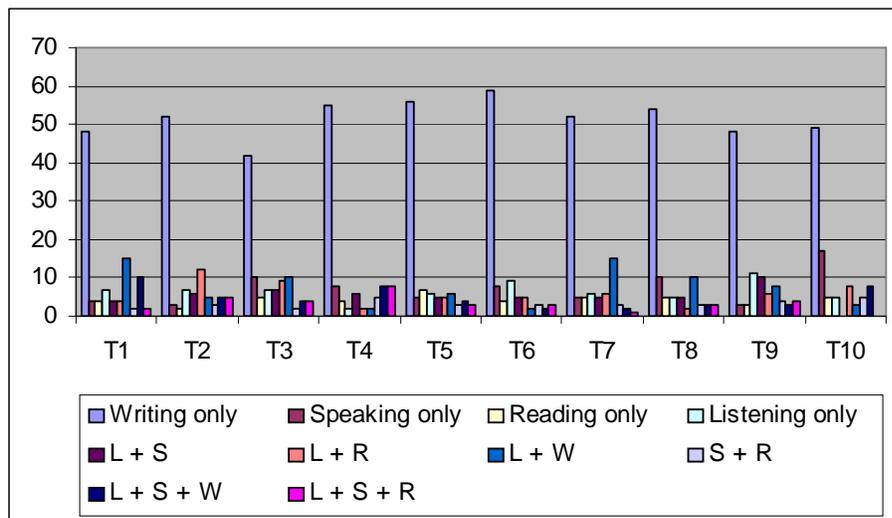
Writing was the most common skill used by the students in the classes of all 10 observed teachers, representing average 51.5% of total class time. In some cases, while practising HSC practice/model tests, they were mostly listening to the teacher explaining procedure, giving information related to HSC 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 5.69) below:

Table 5.69: 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:

Figure 5.87: Students' involvement in language practice



Writing was the most common skill in the all classes, representing on average (51.5 + 7.6+ 4.9) 64% of the total class time. Figure 5.87 displays the averaged results of student modality expressed as percentage of each total class time for the 10 classes. Writing, both alone and in combination with other skills, was the most common skill used by students at all schools. In general, students of T4 used a

broader range of skills and covered the four skills more evenly. The classroom observation found that students took part in writing to large extent. The teachers made them practise writing as an individual activity as well as a combined activity with other tasks. Writing gets the highest priority in the classroom because it is mainly tested in the HSC examination. The findings of student modality are supported by the questionnaire surveys which found that writing and some other linguistic elements were taught because they (skills and elements) were tested in the examination. 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.

### **5.2.3.3 Materials Used in the EFL Class**

This section presents and discusses the findings related to the materials used in the classroom teaching. The present researcher used COLT and recorded significant features about the materials used during the class. The type of text was broken down into length with short pieces of written texts, for example single sentences or captions, being labelled as 'minimal' and longer ones 'extended'. The origin of the material was also considered important. The researcher carefully observed and identified the materials being used in the language classroom.

The classroom observation checked if any authentic materials were used. 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. The 30% observed teachers did not use *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) written by the NCTB at all. The types of teaching materials for all teachers were not substantially different. There was an impact of the HSC examination in English on teaching materials. It was found that most of the teachers used test-oriented commercially produced materials.

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 who 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. Not only was she observed frequently utilizing authentic materials, but she was also found using *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) more creatively and trying hard to encourage her students to interact in class. Table 5.70 presents the categories of materials used in the class. The materials are abbreviated for the benefit of presentation in the table (Table 5.70).

**[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 5.70: 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 findings are supported by the results of the questionnaire surveys which found that most of the teachers used commercially produced materials and avoided *English for Today*. 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).

Though language use was not specifically recorded; the observer noted that students were more likely to use their own language (Bengali) during class. There are several possible reasons to account for it. For instance, there were larger numbers of students in every classes; it meant that there was potentially more opportunity for students to congregate and share ideas in their native/ common language. Large classes are also more difficult to monitor than smaller groups if the teachers had decided that they preferred the use of English in the class. The mixture of students from different background in those observed classes may also have been responsible for the students using their first language as they struggled to follow the class. 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.

#### **5.2.4 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 (Appendix- 2B). 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 5.71). 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 5.71) below:

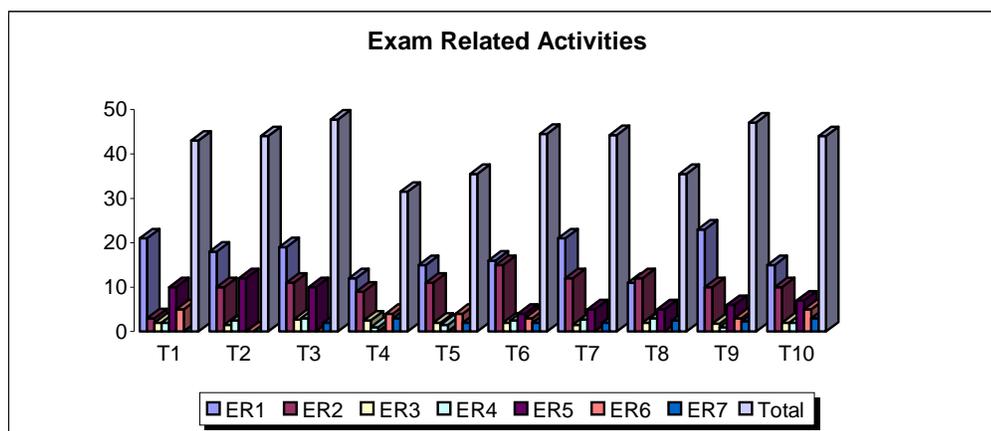
Table 5.71: Examination-related activities of total class time

Exam Related Activities (ERA)		Total time spent for each activity (minutes)										Average
		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	10	12	10	0	0	4	5	5	6	7	5.9

	answers in a text (Reading or Listening) and explains											
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. The figure (Figure 5.88) below reflects the findings:

Figure 5.88: Examination related activities



### 5.2.5 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. Learners'

concentration and classroom performance largely depends on the teachers' personality, attitudes, and on the amicable relationship (Turner, 2008). Wang (2010) found strong influence of teachers' factors in contributing to generate positive or negative washback in varying degrees. The researcher observed 10 EFL teachers. The findings of additional analysis are present in table (Table 5.72) 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 5.72: Teachers' personality and professional factors in generating washback

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10
<b>Personality &amp; Professionalism</b>										
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 5.72 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 introverted 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. Teachers' perception on largely contributes to generation of negative washback on teaching and learning (Andrews, S., & Fullilove, J. 1994). The study found that only 34 teachers (T4, T5, and T6) were found well informed of the goals and objectives of the syllabus and curriculum while others had very poor or moderate level of curriculum knowledge. 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.

### **5.2.6 Summary of the Results of Classroom Observation**

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. Two of the books mentioned in the materials analysis section (Section 5.3) were found to be examples of a more traditional approach to test preparation, which focused on familiarising students with the test and providing opportunities for test practice both in and out of the class. Normally, T4 incorporated a communicative methodology, included elements of language development and gave the students practice with a number of academic study skills. Most of the teachers (80%) were totally HSC examination focused, i.e., not preparing students for academic study. It should be noted, however, that with different teaching backgrounds, beliefs and personal teaching styles notwithstanding, each of the teachers had a certain amount of material that they were required or expected to get through in the limited time-frame of the course.

The data presented above give an idea of the participants' beliefs and some scenarios of their teaching practices in the classroom. On the whole, all the participants were interactive and cooperative. They all impressed the researcher as committed and responsible EFL teachers although their conceptions of teaching, their levels of language proficiency (e.g., competence in terms of four skills, awareness of the socio-cultural aspects of language and language use as well as knowledge of pedagogy), the ways in which they conducted their lessons, and their devotion to work differ to varying degrees.

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. An average of more than 64% class content-control was exclusively with the teachers under broad category. As a single activity, 51.5% class time was spent for teaching and practicing the writing skills. Another considerable amount of time was spent for writing along with the combination of other skills e.g. writing while listening (51.5 + 7.6+ 4.9). Therefore, the writing skills claimed 64% of the total class time. There were little opportunity of practicing speaking and listening. 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.

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. T9 taught 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 period.

With regard to the instances and ways of mentioning the HSC examination, all teachers referred to the HSC examination frequently during the class. They advised their students in many ways to be more serious about the better preparation of the examination. They provided the students with factual information about the test and reminded them that their final examination was not very far away. 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.

### **5.2.7 Evidence of Washback from the Classroom Observations**

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 next section presents the quantitative data collected through a questionnaire survey. As presented in Chapter Four, this study adopted a mixed-methods approach to data collection and data analysis. Three complementary methods (i.e., interviews, observation and questionnaires) were utilized, with the aim of getting a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of how the role of the examination operates in the washback phenomenon.

As was previously presented in detail, the qualitative data were supplemented with the survey data. The survey was used, for it was assumed to be best suited for quantifying the qualitative data and providing descriptions and comparisons of patterns of teacher beliefs and behaviors. The instrument would permit the generalizability of insights derived from the qualitative data and help the present researcher determines whether the patterns and themes that had emerged

from previous stages could be confirmed and applied to a larger group of participants (questionnaire participants). 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. Worthy of note is that only two of the six participants (T5, and T7) saw the EFL exam in a positive light. One teacher (T4) suggested that the examination and marking systems should be changed. She also added, listening and speaking should be practised to some extent in the form of IELTS or TOFFL format. While two teachers (T2, T3) expressed negative feelings toward the HSC examination and its impact, their feelings seemed to be mixed.

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. Three teachers (T6, T9, T10) commented that the pass rate and number of Grade Point Average-5 (GPA-5) marked the position of their college. In addition, T10 disclosed some crucial points that there was no difference between EFL classes taken in colleges and examination preparation classes arranged in private coaching centres in term of contents of teaching. He complained that many of the students did not attend the classes rather than attended the coaching centres because the examination preparation took place more extensively in the coaching classes. A teacher (T1) viewed, "Some of my students are very irregular in the college, but hardly miss any private coaching class with me at my house".

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 Prodomou (1995) delineated. The teachers were found using examples from textbooks that primarily emphasized the skills used in taking the HSC examination. As a result, writing was given much more emphasis in the classroom than listening, speaking, and reading.

## **5.3 Findings of the Examination Related Documents Analyses**

Analyses of examination related documents are crucial to this study because they highlight the problems and characteristics within EFL education and are related with HSC examination. In this study, the present researcher performed analyses of the examination related documents pertaining to the HSC syllabus and curriculum, textbooks used at this level, HSC examination papers, and answer scripts of HSC examination in English. The key purpose of the analyses was to find out what the HSC examination in English set out to measure (e.g., linguistic knowledge or language use) and whether or not the HSC examination represented the curriculum. The analyses also aimed at identifying the characteristics of the HSC examination, for they would serve as the basis for a comparison with what was happening in the classroom, and would help determine whether the observed classroom phenomenon was closely test-related (e.g., whether they were similar or there were gaps between the two).

In this section, the researcher presents and discusses the findings step by step. First, the findings of the syllabus and curriculum analysis are presented. Then, the findings derived from textbooks analysis are reported and discussed. Next, the findings resulted from HSC test (question papers) analysis are documented. Finally, the findings of the HSC answer scripts analysis are presented with discussion. Through the discussion, the present researcher highlights the evidence of washback of the HSC examination on teaching and learning English at the HSC level.

### **5.3.1 Analysis of the Syllabus and Curriculum**

A curriculum should focus on "learners, the subject matter, and society" (Gunter, Estes & Schwab, 2003, p. 14). The authority should: (a) set goals and rationale for instruction, (b) define the objectives, (c) decide on means of assessment, (d) construct a breakdown of units of study for the course, and (e) create lesson plans using various instructional models and activities (Gunter et al., 2003). Curriculum developers require information on (a) the needs of the students, (b) the societal purpose [of the learning institution], and (c) the subject matter" (Gunter, Estes & Schwab, 2003, p. 3). Similarly, student needs assessments could provide

background knowledge for teachers prior to planning new learning activities. In addition, teachers may need assistance on how to implement the curriculum so that the content and goals of the lessons align with the standards set by the curriculum. Finally, evaluating the effectiveness of a curriculum program requires authentic assessment of student performance-based tasks (Wiggins, 1997) as demonstrated in the new English curriculum developed in 2000.

Willis (1996) offers five principles of syllabus goals. These provide input, use, reflection on the input and use, and some attention to affect:

1. There should be exposure to worthwhile and authentic language.
2. There should be use of language.
3. Tasks should motivate learners to engage in language use.
4. There should be a focus on language at some points in a task cycle.
5. The focus on language should be more and less prominent at different times.

When considering the syllabus ("... a framework within which activities can be carried out: a teaching device to facilitate learning" Nunan, 1988), this focus leads to specific interpretations of syllabus-design issues as described by Breen and Candlin (1980).

1. What communicative knowledge - and its affective aspects - does the learner already possess and exploit?
2. What communicative abilities - and the skills which manifest them - does the learner already activate and depend upon in using and selecting from his/her established repertoire?
3. Can the performance repertoire of the learner's first language be employed?
4. Can existing knowledge of and about the target repertoire be used?
5. What is the learner's own view of the nature of language?
6. What is the learner's view of learning a language?
7. How does the learner define his/her own learning needs?
8. What is likely to interest the learner both within the target repertoire and the learning process?
9. What are the learner's motivations for learning the target repertoire?

Bangladesh education system is characterised as being examination-driven. One typical example is that students have to sit for numerous examinations as soon as they start schooling. Under this system, examinations are of exaggerated importance. The present curriculum for the HSC EFL education was introduced in 2000, following by the issuance of the new textbooks to be used by the students from 2001.

The National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) claims that the new syllabus and curriculum at the HSC level follows the communicative approach to teaching and learning English in Bangladesh situation. The NCTB assures that the textbook 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. As a result, classes are expected to be interactive with students' active participation in the classroom activities through pair work, group work, and individual work. The present HSC English curriculum is considered to be a frontloaded one. The whole syllabus of the English curriculum is accommodated in the textbooks. Two textbooks are prescribed by NCTB for HSC EFL education. *English for Today* for classes 11-12 is considered the mother textbook which was first published in 2001 while *English Grammar and Composition* is introduced in 2007 as a complementary book to teach grammar as the title implies.

The new frontloaded curriculum, formulated nearly a decade ago, is based on the communicative approach to teaching English, which emphasises students' communicative competence. The English curriculum desires to prepare students for real-life situations in which they may be required to use English. The selection of the course contents has been determined in the light of students' present and future academic, social, and professional needs. The overall aims of the HSC English curriculum (2000) are: to enable the learner to communicate effectively and appropriately in real-life situations; to use English effectively, to develop and integrate the use of the four skills of language, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing; to develop an interest in and appreciation of literature, and to recycle and reinforce structures already learned. A high-stakes test such as the HSC examination influences teaching and learning. Teachers teach those items and skills that are most likely to be tested in the examination. In this situation, it is strongly

believed that communicative teaching or communicative competence is hardly attainable until communicative competence is tested in the examination.

In the syllabus and curriculum of 2000, there was no provision of practising the isolated grammar items. The grammar was supposed to be taught integratedly in discourse and in communication. But the teachers of English were facing challenges teaching English communicatively to attain the desired goals of the EFL curriculum. Though a more communicative competence-oriented curriculum was introduced at the HSC level, the teachers could not shift enough focus from teaching grammar knowledge towards the communicative competences.

The NCTB promised to formulate a guideline for the English teachers, but the guideline did not come into being till today. Since most of the teachers do not have any training to teach at the higher secondary level in communicative approach; since the teachers are to handle big size of classes; since there are almost no facilities of using modern technologies and equipments in the language class; and since there are very limited opportunities for the students to practise speaking and listening inside (due to teacher-centered classroom) and out side the classroom, the students are found very weak in language form and structure. It is observed that the students remain very weak especially in the formation of new words and sentences both in written and spoken English. In 2007, the government revised the EFL curriculum and introduced grammar and composition items in English second paper. Under the curriculum, a textbook, *Grammar and Composition* was written.

Testing is an integral part of any curriculum. All formal syllabuses make provision of assessing how much of the syllabus is taught, how much the learners have learned, and how much the curriculum objectives are achieved.

### **5.3.1.1 Findings of the Syllabus and Curriculum Analysis**

The study found that the syllabus and curriculum provide ample opportunities for students to use English for a variety of purposes in interesting situations. 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 memorised in isolation, the syllabus has integrated grammar items into the lesson activities allowing grammar to assume a more meaningful role in the learning of

English. Thus, students can develop their language skills by practicing language activities, and not merely by knowing the rules of the language. The present English curriculum cannot be separated from the textbooks (prescribed by NCTB) because textbooks represent the curriculum. *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) accommodated all the contents of the syllabus and curriculum. An expert team trained in the UK wrote the book. It was considered a well-suited textbook for practicing EFL at the HSC level. It is also considered the mother textbook for the HSC students.

In keeping with the communicative language teaching (CLT) principles, the English syllabus includes topics of both national and global context, appropriate and interesting to the learners thematically, culturally and linguistically. Adequate grammar contents have also been integrated with language skills so that the elements taught and learned in situations can easily be related to real life situation not just to be memorised as discrete items. It is expected that if used properly, the present syllabus may facilitate learning English through various enjoyable skill practice activities. It provides learners with a variety of materials, such as reading texts, dialogues, pictures, diagrams, tasks and activities; learners can practise language skills using those materials. They can actively participate in pair work, group work or individual work. The syllabus also includes a wide range of topics from both national and global contexts. A curriculum is a vital part of TEFL classes. 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 he/she will learn, and how he/she has progressed when the course is over. The test leads to the narrowing of contents in the curriculum.

The analysis of the syllabus and curriculum finds that the HSC syllabus and curriculum is communicative thematically, but there is a very question whether the set objectives of the curriculum are attainable. Because the teachers do not like to take any risk of teaching the items which are not tested, they consider it simply waste of time, they skip items and narrow down the syllabus and curriculum contents towards the preparation of the examination. The present study found that both the teachers and the students were very selective in choosing study contents for the preparation of examination. That is, teachers design the classroom activities as per the test contents. This practice is an evidence of washback effect on the syllabus

and curriculum. The present HSC English syllabus and curriculum do not affect the test or teaching, but HSC examination affects the syllabus and curriculum.

The present English curriculum was influenced by research in the fields of foreign language learning, education, assessment, cognitive psychology and curriculum development. The principles underlying: (a) language learning and teaching, (b) choice of materials, content, and tasks, (c) classroom assessment; formative and summative, (d) alternatives in assessment, and assessment requirements and criteria, and (e) the role of the pupils align with a constructivist approach to curriculum development and learning (Posner, 2004). In addition, the principles underlying language teaching also follow brain-based learning theories that cater to learners' needs; preference for learning styles and multiple intelligences. The English curriculum artifact provides teachers and learners with a constructivist approach to assessment "as an integral part of the teaching-learning process with guidelines and on expectations for formative and summative assessments, and criteria for alternative assessments that would reflect performance in the target language competencies described in the curriculum.

The new English curriculum is a well planned EFL artifact that enhances student performance and embraces different learning styles (Rabbe & Shuster-Bouskila, 2001) by supporting brain-based learning.

### **5.3.1.2. Evidence of Washback on the Syllabus and Curriculum**

Testing is a vibrant art of the curriculum; the test contents and items should be determined in line with the objectives of syllabus and curriculum. Since the teachers are the main stakeholders to implement the agendas of the syllabus and curriculum, they should have been given a set of guidelines to follow for achieving the targets. If the examination system does not test communicative competence of the students or the four skills of language, the teachers will not teach other skills which are unlikely to be tested in examination. The findings of the questionnaire surveys revealed that 64% students and 59% teachers confirmed that they were not aware of the objectives of syllabus and curriculum. It was also found that 74% students and 64% teachers believed that the present syllabus could enhance EFL teaching and learning. The present study also revealed that 86% teachers and 72%

students did not care about the syllabus and curriculum because they practised what were important for the examination. During the survey, 60% teachers and 71% students pointed out that they did not practise all the sections and contents of syllabus and curriculum. The findings of classroom observation and interview with the teachers also revealed that they did not teach the syllabus, rather they taught to the test.

It was also found that both teachers and students preferred to use test related commercially produced materials such as guidebook, suggestion book, model test papers, etc. The classroom observation found that over 80% teachers taught to the test directly and heavily dependent on the commercially produced materials. These test preparation materials are termed as 'hidden syllabuses by many researchers (e.g. Caine, 2005 and Wang, 2010). This is the powerful evidence of existing negative washback of the HSC examination on the EFL teaching and learning in general and on the syllabus and curriculum in particular.

In itself, however, any syllabus and curriculum cannot ensure that communicative language teaching and learning take place in the classroom. It can only provide a set of criteria which, if properly implemented, would give the best possible change for that to happen. The present HSC examination influences the teachers to teach to the test opposed to teach the syllabus. Test contents also can have a very direct washback effect upon teaching curricula. Therefore, curriculum is a vital part of the EFL classes. Very often the test leads to the narrowing of contents in the curriculum. Alderson & Wall (1993) point out that test can affect curriculum and learning.

It is believed that washback has deep relation with the syllabus and curriculum. Frontloading alignment of curriculum is commonly practiced in EFL education. A frontloaded curriculum can prevent teaching to the test, which may lead to an extremely narrow and rigid view of the actual goals and objectives of any curriculum. The findings from the study about washback onto the curriculum indicate that it operates in different ways in different situations.

### 5.3.2 Textbook Material Analysis

Textbook materials play a very important role in language classrooms. A textbook is a tool, and the teacher must know not only how to use it, but how useful it can be. The purpose of the text book analysis was to determine the overall pedagogical value and suitability of the book towards this specific language programme. In Bangladesh, the EFL teachers and the learners use two types of materials such as textbooks prescribed by the authority, that is, National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB), and commercially produced examination related materials (e.g. guide books, suggestion books, model test papers, etc). In many contexts, language teachers are heavily reliant on available materials and this is perhaps even more evident in the testing context where teachers may feel that following a test preparation book is the safest way to ensure all the crucial points are covered. As with other high-stakes tests, the HSC examination in English aims to assess students' general level of language ability and is therefore linked to particular materials or programme of instruction. Nevertheless, the majority of teachers in Bangladesh are dependent to a large extent on materials focusing specifically on examination preparation other than textbooks prescribed by NCTB. Bailey (1999) suggests that textbook washback is a possible result of test use. She points out that test preparation materials are the indirect evidence of washback. The appropriateness of a textbook and therefore any consideration of the possible existence of washback must be considered within the specific context in which it is being used.

Shohamy (1992, p.514) states, "... negative washback to programs can result in the narrowing of the curriculum in ways inconsistent with real learning and the real needs of ... students". The opinion that there is the potential for texts to narrow the curriculum and encourage negative washback is also reported by Cheng (1997), Shohamy et al. (1996), and Alderson & Hamp-Lyons (1996). The literature provides many references of materials being linked to negative washback both in terms of their content and their classroom use. The use of these kinds of materials in classrooms has an effect on how the students view test preparation, and how they make ready themselves for the test. Fullilove observes that texts which are "little more than clones of past exam papers" resulted in some students spending time memorising model answers at the expense of learning how to create answers to similar questions (1992, p. 139).

With so much written about the potential of textbooks to have a negative effect on teaching and learning, the question is what features would be desirable in a test preparation text for it to have a positive effect. Referring specifically to High-stakes preparation texts, Hamp-Lyons (1998p. 330) makes the statement that such books should "...support teachers in their principal task of helping learners increase their knowledge of and ability to use English." She identifies some characteristics a textbook having positive washback might require:

...the inclusion of appropriate content carefully designed to match learning needs and sequence and planned to support good classroom pedagogic practices; it also requires keeping close sight of what is appropriate in test preparation practices and what the demands of the test itself are (ibid: 330).

The effectiveness of commercial test-preparation materials used by way of preparation for standardised tests such as the HSC examination is still under-researched. Such materials may be appropriate depending on how closely they match the test and the inference one wishes to make from the test scores.

Investigating washback in the context of the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination, Cheng comments:

We believe teaching and learning should include more varied activities than the examination formats alone. However, it would be natural for teachers to employ activities similar to those activities required in the examination (1999, p. 49).

Lam, (1994) finds that about 50% of the teachers appear to be "textbook slaves" in teaching the sections of the test related items. Cheng (1997, p.50) also notes the existence of workbooks specifically designed to prepare students for examination papers in the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination and the heavy reliance of teachers on these workbooks.

On the topic of textbook evaluation, Williams (1983, p.254) highlights the importance of considering the context within which a textbook is used. The fact that test preparation books for the HSC examination can be considered a part of the impact of the test. The development of textbooks which claim to prepare students for an examination can be seen as a kind of evidence of washback. The type of materials they contain and the approach they take can be used as an indication of whether the washback of the examination is positive or not. One feature that one would expect in

a language classroom is the inclusion of input and exercises that explore the components of the language.

This reliance on commercially produced materials in this context is evidence of negative washback because instead of introducing more authentic materials and prescribed textbooks by the authority the teachers prefer to use commercial textbooks, most of which are basically modified copies of the HSC examination paper. The present study evaluated *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) to check whether the book represented the English syllabus and curriculum, and to look into whether the HSC examination in English had any washback (positive or negative) on *English for Today* for classes 11-12. The study did not take any attempt to evaluate *English Grammar and Composition* and the commercially produced materials.

### **5.3.2.1 Justification for Textbook Evaluation**

It is important to remember, however, that since the 1970's there has been a movement to make learners the center of language instruction and it is probably the best to view textbooks as resources in achieving aims and objectives that have already been set in terms of learner needs. Moreover, they should not necessarily determine the aims themselves (components of teaching and learning) or become the aims but they should always be at the service of the teachers and learners (Brown, 1995). Consequently, efforts must be made to establish and apply a wide variety of relevant and contextually appropriate criteria for the evaluation of the textbooks that can be used in language classrooms. It should also be ensured "that careful selection is made, and that the materials selected closely reflect [the needs of the learners and] the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p.7). Sheldon (1988) has offered several other reasons for textbook evaluation. He (ibid.) suggests that the selection of an ELT textbook often signals an important administrative and educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial, or even political investment.

Moreover, it would provide for a sense of familiarity with a book's content thus assisting educators in identifying the particular strengths and weaknesses in textbooks already in use. This would go a long way in ultimately assisting teachers

with making optimum use of a book's strong points and recognizing the shortcomings of certain exercises, tasks, and entire texts. One additional reason for textbook evaluation is the fact that it can be very useful in teacher development and professional growth. Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) suggest that textbook evaluation helps teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments and it helps them to acquire useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook material. Textbook evaluation, therefore, can potentially be a particularly worthwhile means of conducting action research as well as a form of professional empowerment and improvement. Similarly, textbook evaluation can also be a valuable component of teacher training programs for it serves the dual purpose of making student teachers aware of important features to look for in textbooks while familiarizing them with a wide range of published language instruction materials.

### **5.3.2.2 Textbook Analysis Checklist**

ELT materials play a very important role in many language classrooms, but in recent years there has been a lot of debate among the ELT professionals on the actual role of materials in Teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language (TESL/TEFL). Arguments have encompassed both the potentials and the limitations of materials for 'guiding' students through the learning process and curriculum as well as the needs and preferences of teachers who are using textbooks. Other issues that have arisen in recent years include textbook design and practicality, methodological validity, the role of textbooks in innovation, the authenticity of materials in terms of their representation of language, and the appropriateness of gender representation, subject matter, and cultural components.

Although Sheldon (1988) suggests that no general list of criteria can ever really be applied to all teaching and learning contexts without considerable modification, most of these standardised textbook evaluation checklists contain similar components that can be used as helpful starting points for ELT practitioners in a wide variety of situations. Preeminent theorists in the field of ELT textbook design and analysis such as Williams (1983), Sheldon (1988), Brown (1995), Cunningsworth (1995) and Harmer (1996) all agree, for instance, that evaluation

checklists should have some criteria pertaining to the physical characteristics of textbooks such as layout, organisational, and logistical characteristics.

Other important criteria that should be incorporated are those that assess a textbook's methodology, aims, and approaches and the degree to which a set of materials is not only teachable but also fits the needs of the individual teacher's approach as well as the overall curriculum. Moreover, criteria should analyse the specific language, functions, grammar, and skills content that are covered by a particular textbook as well as the relevance of linguistic items to the prevailing socio-cultural environment. Finally, textbook evaluations should include criteria that pertain to representation of cultural and gender components in addition to the extent to which the linguistic items, subjects, content, and topics match up to students' personalities, backgrounds, needs, and interests as well as those of the teacher and/or institution.

The present study evaluated the textbook, *English for Today* for required information for the study. A checklist (Appendix-3A) was applied for the analysis which was adapted from the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). A number of textbook evaluation checklists and guidelines had also been studied for the present study to evaluate *English for Today* for classes 11-12.

### **5.3.2.3 Analysis of *English for Today* for Classes 11-12**

National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) prescribed two books: *English for Today* for classes 11-12, and *English Grammar and Composition* to cover the entire HSC English syllabus. One of the curriculum experts at NCTB points out that *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) is considered the “mother textbook” while *English Grammar and Composition* is a complementary book designed for test purpose. *English for Today* (EFT) was written by NCTB in 2000 when communicative approach was introduced at the HSC level. *English Grammar and Composition* was written when English 2<sup>nd</sup> paper was revised in 2007. *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) was considered a well-suited textbook for practicing EFL at the HSC level.

The source materials in the textbook were taken from authentic materials of everyday life. It was claimed to have been designed to reflect and reinforce the communicative competence in terms of teaching and learning objectives, focuses, and approaches. This textbook differs from that of the past in that more cultural-related themes were incorporated in the content of the materials. It has also been noticed that English teachers in Bangladesh find themselves in an unenviable position in which the constraints imposed by the examination-driven “hidden syllabus” prevent them from implementing, in practice, communicative methodology. Though the textbook was written nearly a decade ago, no revision, inclusion, innovation has been made to it to date. The textbook *English for Today* for classes 11-12 is made of high-grade, durable paper and the presentation of information appears to be clear, concise, and user-friendly. The book also contains many charts, models, and photographs that help clarify and contextualize information while the presence of hand-drawn pictures portrays a friendly and humorous atmosphere.

There is no separate textbook edition for the teacher that could be used as a methodological guide or so called “teacher’s edition.” The textbook should provide appropriate guidance for the teacher of English. Though the authority intended to formulate a ‘guideline’ for the teachers on how to use the book, no guideline has been written yet. The untrained, or partially trained teachers who do not possess enough control overall aspects of English should not be left in any doubt concerning the procedures proposed by the textbook. Otherwise, he or she may, for example, teach only the meanings of the minimal pair 'live/leave', completely ignoring the writer's intention that these items should be used for pronunciation practice.

The EFL textbook, should give introductory guidance on the presentation of language items and skills. The textbook serves as a syllabus. The carefully planned and balanced selections of language contents enable teachers and students to follow subject systematically. The course book can provide useful guidance and support particularly for teacher who are inexperienced. It suggests aids for the teaching of pronunciation (e.g. phonetic system), offer meaningful situations and a variety of techniques for teaching structural units, distinguish the different purposes and skills involved in the teaching of vocabulary, provide guidance on the initial presentation of passages for reading comprehension, demonstrate the various devices for

controlling and guiding content and expression in composition exercises, contain appropriate pictures, diagrams, tables, etc.

The textbook, *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) represents the HSC English syllabus and curriculum. The learners and the authors of the textbook belong to same linguistic background. The writers of *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) are the people of Bangladeshi, but they are highly experienced in English language teaching and trained in the UK. The book contains 24 units comprising 156 lessons; every lesson has a set of objectives. Most of the lessons outline new theme and task. Almost every lesson contains exercises that may promote language skills. Yet, listening exercises are hardly incorporated. *English for Today* is mostly student-centred. There are lots of activities, tasks, exercises where students' participations are must such as pair work, group work, individual work, making dialogues, amplifying ideas, making answer to questions, etc. In all the activities, the learners have to comprehend and/or produce language, i.e., they have to use language, "do the exercises either individually" or "in pairs or in groups". For example, Unit One: lesson 1, E (page 3); Unit Five: Lesson 2, E (p. 61). Most of the tasks of the lessons are enjoyable.

The textbook *English for Today* includes a good number of stories and articles on social affairs, historical events, educational subjects, wonders, heritage, space, communication, challenges, profession, sports issues, etc. (such as caring and sharing, email, looking for a job, etc); therefore, it may be termed as well-suited and interesting one. Many of the lessons and topics are interesting thematically and conceptually. But the presentation of the tasks and activities are stereotypical and traditional because the lessons start with a typical activity (e.g. looking at the picture(s)). When most of the lessons start with such types of stereotypical activities, learners as well as the teachers get in difficulty to carry out them. They may feel bore. For example, Unit One: Lesson 1 'Our Family' (A) -Look at the picture of Nazneen's family; Unit One, Lesson 2 'A Myanmar family' (A) -Look at the picture below and exchange your views with your partners); Unit One: Lesson 4 'Mr. Fraser's family' (Look at the picture what kind of person do you think he is? Discuss in pairs).

In the present textbook, "Look at the picture(s)" is presented in most of the lessons; it is in the beginning or somewhere else. Although some pictures are

considerably different from others in terms of physical contexts, students are not provided with any linguistic context at the beginning. As a result, these may often produce boredom among the pupils, and teachers may face difficulty to arousing interest among the learners.

The instructions given in *English for Today* (EFT) are clear and easy to understand for the learners. Even if, the learners might not be familiar with the structures and the lexis used in the instructions, the models given for each group of exercises provide contextual clues for the learners as to what they are expected to do. However, some of the instructions lack the required contextual information in terms of linguistic contextual complexity. For example, Unit One: Lesson-A (p. 9)

The textbook may be considered appropriate for the HSC level students in Bangladesh context. The book maintains difficulty level at the 12th grade standard in respect of text and exercises. *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) does not include any topic on explicit grammar practice. Implicit grammar is presented thoroughly in different items. There is no scope of traditional grammar practices in the lesson, rather, grammar items and their functions are included within the text and discourse of varied types in each lesson in the implicit manner. This point has been made clear in the book map of the book.

Each and every lesson presents implicit grammatical exercises, such as tenses, clauses, verbs, comparison, modals, direct and indirect speech, change of voices are presented in the lessons through various exercises i.e. identification, right form of verb, fill in the gaps with clues, fill in the gaps without clues, matching column, etc. The grammar comes into different tasks and activities, but not in an isolated manner in any way. For examples, (1) “Match the verb in column A with the definition in column B” (Unit Six: Lesson 4, Page 77), and (2) “Use the appropriate forms of the given words to complete the following sentences” (Lesson 3: Unit Six Question-C, p.75). Lessons indicate what students should know, and be able to do. Increase order of difficulty is maintained. Almost every lesson contains comprehension exercises, grammar, etc. But the ideas are not sequential. The students are given some guidelines to perform tasks such as page 3, task E.

Maximum learners, taking little help, can use the textbook on their own. New vocabulary items are presented in a table at the end of every lesson. Each and every lesson provides scopes for practicing vocabulary through different techniques.

Vocabulary items are explained through defining the word or and providing synonyms. Repetitions of vocabulary items are hardly found; new vocabulary items come up to be practiced in different lessons and exercises. There are ample opportunities for practicing dialogues, but *English for Today* (for classes 11-12) does encourage neither the teachers nor the students to use audio/tape recorder or any audio – visual aids. Not enough illustrations, charts, etc. are used. Sometimes, the pictures do not relate to the idea that a sentence is showing. For example, in page 4 (Unit One: lesson 2) the picture does not represent the idea of the lesson. No separate printed material is provided in this textbook, but the textbook has used many authentic contents.

Nearly 80% textbook contents are realistic, taken from everyday social life. Social environments are represented in the textbook; no religious belief and environment are represented. In some cases, there is a connection between the previous lessons, for example, page 294, “The challenge ahead- I” and (p. 295), “The challenge ahead- II”. These lessons are related – introducing the challenges ahead, but not all lessons are related with the previous or the next one. In many cases, the title of the lesson does not indicate the aim of the lesson, for example, Unit Twenty-two: Lesson 4, and Unit Fourteen: Lesson 4.

There are ample opportunities in the book to use the target language such as dialogues, pair work, group discussion, etc. The lesson describes sequence of instructional activities, and assessment. This textbook does not provide methodology guide for the teacher. Learners’ native language is discouraged in the English class though limited use of the first language is allowed. Culturally known lessons create interest among the students; therefore, lessons should be relevant to the day to day activities of the learner. Many topics of the textbook are taken from the natives’ cultural, social, educational and historical background, though some lessons are extracted from students’ unknown arena of subject.

A few contents in *English for Today* are not fit for the students because they do not connect to a certain degree of reality, for example, the lesson “The London Underground” (Unit 16, Lesson 7, p. 209) which is devoid of reality in Bangladesh context. There are hardly any instructions in this entire textbook, but examples are adequately explained and illustrated for the students. It is possible to set up groupings varied in response to the nature of learning. Most of the lessons are

relevant to learners' life and culture. The learning opportunities in the textbook are real and rich in ways that promote students' engagement and interest. There are a good number of activities for the students to apply their knowledge to practical and real-world situations. There are adequate opportunities for the students (such as dialogues) to be creative in their day to day correspondence.

The book contains lessons on modern mode of communication such as faxes, emails. For example, Unit Seventeen: Lesson 5, 'Fax' (p.219), and lesson 6, 'E-mail'. *English for Today* also contains a unit on 'Conquering Space' (Unit Twenty-two, p.277). The textbook itself does not emphasize any lessons or tasks for test purpose. The opportunity of self assessment is limited. The textbook is good enough for learning English as a foreign language. No guidelines have been provided for the examination preparation, except the syllabus and marks distribution in the preliminary page section. The textbook *English for Today* does not discuss the examination, and provide any examination tips for the students.

#### **5.3.2.4 Findings of *English for Today* Analysis**

The Textbook "*English for Today*" for classes 11-12 takes into account currently accepted methods of EFL teaching. It gives guidance in the presentation of language items. The book relates content to the learners' culture and environment. It includes interesting contents to good extent. It suggests ways of demonstrating and practising speech items. The book includes speech situations relevant to the pupils' background. It allows for variation in the accents of non-native speakers of English.

*English for Today* stresses communicative competence in teaching structural items. It provides adequate models featuring the structures to be taught. The book clearly shows the kinds of responses required in drills (e.g. substitution). It selects vocabulary items on the basis of frequency, functional load, etc. It distinguishes between receptive and productive skills in vocabulary teaching. The book presents vocabulary items in appropriate contexts and situations. The book focuses on problems of usage related to social background.

It does not offer exclusive listening exercises. It includes teachers' speech, explanations, dialogues, pair work, etc. for practising integrated skills. The book offers no instruments and equipment for practising listening. *English for Today*

includes dialogues and discussions. It offers exercises on asking questions. It presents integrated skills practice exercises; offers story telling opportunities. *English for Today* offers exercises for understanding of plain sense and implied meaning, relates reading passages to the learners' background, selects passages within the vocabulary range of the pupils and selects passages reflecting a variety of styles of contemporary English. *English for Today* relates written work to structures and vocabulary items practised orally. It gives practice in controlled and guided composition in the early stages. The book relates written work to the pupils' age, interests, and environment. It demonstrates techniques for handling aspects of composition teaching.

Potential of textbooks to create washback is well documented in the literature. Key issues in 'textbook washback' include the role that publishers and authors play in influencing the types of preparation materials that come onto the market, and the role of teachers as the interpreters and presenters of the contents of the books. The features seen as promoting positive washback in textbooks follow on from the literature in general, with the importance of including not only information about the requirements of the test, but also tasks that support good classroom.

As textbooks are the primary source of classroom materials, their content and approach have a direct impact on what happened in the classrooms. It is important to realize that the teaching materials selected by teachers vary from class to class. In general, there are four major types of materials used in the observed EFL classes: *English for Today* (EFT), the HSC test papers, guidebook, and HSC model questions. HSC examination-related materials concern those materials used for fostering students' test-taking strategies. The HSC test papers here refer to the printed books of question papers previously used in the HSC examination and in the model examinations in different renowned colleges.

It is worth keeping in mind that it is a common practice among the Bangladeshi EFL teachers and students to use more than HSC test papers prior to the final examination. The key reason is that they want to use the papers to familiarize their students with the test format. These materials are not authorized by the government; they are commercially produced for the purpose of test preparation. During classroom observation the researcher found 7 teachers (out of 10) practising test paper, guidebook and past questions in the class. They did not bring

the original textbook (EFT) with them for classroom use. They claimed that supplementary materials reflect the test contents in their objectives, emphasis and approach, and to reinforce general goals of test preparation. These supplementary materials are termed as hidden syllabus by many researchers (e.g. Caine, 2005; Wang, 2010).

The book is also very attractive and organized in a clear, logical, and coherent manner. This organization reflects a topic-based structural-functional syllabus that is designed with the goal of facilitating communicative competence. In addition, the activities and tasks in *English for Today* were found to be basically communicative and they seemed to consistently promote a balance of activities approach. This in turn encouraged both controlled practice with language skills as well as creative, personal, and free responses on the part of the students. Despite its strengths, *EFT* still had some shortcomings. *English for Today* for classes 11-12 can be an effective textbook in the hands of a good teacher and instructors should not be discouraged from using it with the appropriate learner audience.

### **5.3.3 Analysis of the HSC English Test**

Testing is universally accepted as an integral part of teaching and learning. It is one of the basic components of any curriculum, and plays a pivotal role in determining what learners learn. Candlin and Edelhoff (1982, p.vi) assert that ‘learners learn most when they are quite precisely aware of . . . how their efforts are to be judged and evaluated’. Testing also plays a central role in deciding what teachers teach and how they teach; Reardon et al. (1994), for example, contend that ‘changes in assessment policies can be used as a powerful lever for reforming schools’. Bailey (1996, p.276) suggests, “... a test will yield positive washback to the learner and to the programme to the extent that it utilises authentic tasks and authentic texts”.

Both teachers and students have attitudes to tailoring their classroom activities to the demands of the test, especially when the test is very important to the future of the students, and pass rates are used as a measure of teacher success. This influence of the test on the classroom is, of course, very important; this washback effect can be either beneficial or harmful. The framework proposed by Bachman and

Palmer (1996) is often taken as a theoretically grounded guideline (Appendix-3E) for analysing the characteristics of a test. This conceptual framework consists of a set of principles involving five facets of tasks: setting, test rubric, input, expected response, and relationship between input and response. But here, the present researcher presents and discusses four features in particular which he thinks are crucial for this study.

The present HSC English syllabus and curriculum introduced communicative approach of teaching and learning, and set a number of goals and objectives to be achieved. A test is a part of curriculum, so, the test should reflect and correspond to the syllabus and curriculum. The present study performed the HSC test (English *First Paper* and *Second Paper*) analysis to examine the nature, contents, characteristics, and their influence (washback) on classroom teaching and learning. The present researcher visited the concepts of each facet and analysed the HSC examination in light of the features of this framework.

### **5.3.3.1 Task Characteristics and Contents**

Test contents can have a very direct positive or negative washback upon teaching curricula and classroom behaviour. As Pearson remarked, ‘There is an explicit intention to use tests, including public examinations, as levers which will persuade teachers and learners to pay serious attention to communicative skills and to teaching learning activities that are more likely to be helpful in the development of such skills (1988). First, the test rubric facets are portrayed by Bachman and Palmer (1996) as those characteristics of the test that provide the structure for a particular test. These characteristics include instructions and the structure of the test (e.g., how the test is organised), time allotment (e.g., the duration of the test as a whole and of the individual tasks), and scoring procedures (e.g., how the language that is used will be evaluated, or scored).

A close look at the HSC examination in English indicates that its instructions are not clearly specified with respect to the procedures for taking the test. No examples are provided as to how to perform a task. For instance, in the *First Paper* (question-5), the section of ‘Seen Comprehension’ (Skimming and Scanning), the test takers are not provided with explicit directions except being told “to answer the

questions” (Appendix-3C). Further, little information is given on score distribution, criteria for correctness, and procedures for scoring the responses (e.g., how the test will be scored as well as the steps involved in scoring the test).

It should be noted that writing skills and grammar items still take up a larger percentage of the test. The each part of the question paper (*First Paper*) includes different types of tasks and activities. Though the syllabus is communicative in nature; the textbook has been written with communicative view of teaching and learning, the students are not tested communicatively; that is, communicative competence of the examinees is not tested in the examination. No tasks and items are designed in the examination to test listening and speaking skills.

English *First Paper* comprises 3 parts (Appendix -3C). The questions from 1-4 are related with reading comprehension along with writing skills allocating 20 marks; the questions from 5 -8 aim at testing student’s writing ability covering 20 marks; the questions 9 -10 are vocabulary and grammar items carrying 20 marks; and the questions 11-13 test students inductive knowledge and writing skills. As it is shown in the table (Table 5.73), the tasks in Part-A, Part-B, and Part-C mainly measure reading comprehension, writing, vocabulary, and grammar. The Part- C (questions 11, 12 and 13) carrying 40 marks is an observable evidence of invalid language test. Those items do not maintain the difficulty level of HSC standard. Matching phrases, re-arranging sentences, writing a paragraph (of 150 words) by answering questions have been given exaggerated importance by allocating excessive marks.

Bachman (2000) reports contents of a test must include activities that gauge students language ability if it were communicative language testing. He adds that test objectives should reciprocate curricular objectives. Andrews (2004) points out that when the test does not match the curriculum objectives, it generates negative washback on teaching and learning. During the classroom observation, the researcher observed that most of the teachers (nearly 80%) directly teach to the test. Furthermore, the findings can be cross-referenced with the findings derived from questionnaire survey where the researcher found that teachers practised those tasks and activities which are tested in the examination. According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), these task types are limited in that they may not be appropriate for measuring different areas of language ability. The table below (Table 5.73) shows

that the contents and tasks of the test have followed the nature and types of exercises of *English for Today*, but it can only test learners reading and writing ability:

Table 5.73: Test contents and marks distribution –*First Paper*

English First Paper : Total Marks-100			Time -3.00 Hours		Skill and element tested
<b>Part-A</b>	Q. No	<b>Seen Comprehension: Marks- 40</b> (Skimming and Scanning)	No. of tasks	Marks	
	1	Choosing right word to complete sentences	5	5	-Reading -Comprehension -Writing
	2	True/false, if false, providing right answer.	5	5	-Reading comprehension, writing,
	3	Filling the gaps with correct form of words in brackets, in a given sentence (with clues).	5	5	-Reading -Comprehension, - Language form - Writing
	4	More free/open questions (knowledge based)	5	5	-Reading Comprehension Writing
	5	Short open questions	5	5	Writing
	6	Filling the gaps in a given discourse (without clues).	5		Writing
	7	Summarising a given passage	1	5	Writing
	8	Making short notes (in flow -chart)	5	5	Writing
<b>Part-B</b>		<b>Vocabulary: Marks- 20</b>			
	9	Filling the gaps (Cloze test with clues)	5	10	-Vocabulary -Grammar
	10	Filling the gaps (Cloze test without clues)	10	10	-Vocabulary -Grammar
<b>Part-C</b>		<b>Guided Writing: Marks-40</b>			
	11	Matching the phrases to make sentences	6	12	-Contextual knowledge -Writing
	12	Re-arranging the jumbled sentences	14	14	-Contextual knowledge -Writing
	13	Writing a paragraph answering a set of questions	1	14	-Writing

English *Second Paper* (Appendix-3D) comprises two parts: grammar, and composition. In this paper of English, there are no scope of testing listening, speaking, and reading. Three questions (1-3) in Part -A carry 15 marks on the use of grammar inductively. It is good to observe that there is no implication of isolated or discreet-point of grammar testing. The question 4 is on sentence making, which

absolutely tests writing skills of the students. The details of marks distribution are illustrated in the Table 5.74:

Table 5.74: Test contents and distribution of marks- *Second Paper*

<b>English Second Paper: Total Marks-100</b>					Skill and element tested
<b>Part-A</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Grammar : Marks-40</b>	No. of tasks	Marks	
	1	Using suitable verb (from a list) in a given passage	5	5	Grammar (Integrative)
	2	Filling in the blanks with suitable preposition in a given discourses:	5	5	Grammar (Integrative)
	3	Use of articles where necessary.	10	5	Grammar (Integrative)
	4	Making meaningful sentences with idioms.	5	5	Writing
	5	Change of speech	5	5	Grammar
	6	Transformation of sentences	5	5	Grammar
	7	Tag questions	5	5	Grammar
	8	Completing sentences using conjunction.	5	5	Grammar
<b>Part-B</b>	<b>Composition</b>				60 marks
	9	Report writing	1	10	-Writing (Subjective)
	10	Short composition/paragraph	1	15	-Writing (Subjective)
	11	Letter writing	1	10	Writing (Subjective)
	12	Writing a dialogue or writing a summary of a given passage	1	10	Writing (Subjective)
	13	Completing a story	1	15	

The questions from 5-8, covering 20 marks, are related with the grammar items, but they are less integrated and less inductive. The Part-B consists of 5 questions on comprehension that carries 60 marks. The questions of this part are subjective rather than objective. The questions from 9-13 assess students' grammar, vocabulary, and inductive knowledge. English *Second Paper* is more writing skills oriented than *First Paper*. Due to nature of tasks and contents, *Second Paper* has no opportunity of testing listening, speaking, and reading. Reliability and validity of the examination in terms of coverage of the curriculum, and objectives of the syllabus are considered dubious. The present HSC English curriculum introduced communicative approach of teaching and learning. It was expected that the new textbook would facilitate communicative competence. The English syllabus and curriculum claimed that lot of communicative exercises had been incorporated, and

therefore practice of the four skills of English would be geared up. The syllabus of English *Second Paper* was revised in 2007, and the first examination under the new syllabus was held in 2009. In the new syllabus, more grammar and composition items were introduced. Then, a Textbook, *English Grammar and Composition* was prescribed to meet the demand of the test.

A crucial change of the HSC examination from the previous tests was testing students' communication competence rather than grammar competence. Over 80% of the interviewed teachers indicated that the contents or format of the earlier version (before 2009) of the HSC *Second Paper* in English was more real-life oriented compared to the present version. Thus, their teaching was shifted from promoting their communication ability toward drilling students' grammar knowledge. The test tasks do not often correspond to tasks in the language use (TLU) domain. In other words, the content of the test does not include many items related to daily life situations. Of the small number of tasks, writing is the only one that represents a real-life task. Apart from it, other test tasks, both the tasks in multiple type format and those in constructed response formats can hardly relate to every day situations. In other words, they do not assess students' ability to use language through real-life situations. Bachman and Palmer (1996) describe that interactive and conversational tasks involve a give and take.

The above analysis also reveals that the revised HSC examination in English does not assess test takers' overall language skills integratively. As mentioned above, a test taker's linguistic competence is adequately assessed, for the majority of test items only test his or her areas of language knowledge. Apart from writing, other test tasks of the test cannot be interpreted as assessing test takers' sociolinguistic competence or strategic competence. In the section of Composition, a testee's language competencies are integratively tested, for he or she is expected to produce language in the same way as in everyday contexts. In addition to linguistic knowledge, the task involves other areas of language knowledge as well as metacognitive strategies. For instance, the language the testee produces must not only be accurate (evidence of linguistic competence) but also appropriate (evidence of sociolinguistic competence) and coherent (evidence of discourse competence).

One drawback of the HSC examination in English for both first paper and second paper is that the test does not include an assessment of students' ability to

perform listening and speaking tasks. The testees do not have the opportunity to demonstrate strategic competence in the oral interview. In this regard, although the curriculum is claimed to assess students' ability to use language through real-life tasks, its results or test scores cannot truly reflect test takers' communicative competence. Owing to the fact that little evidence can be retrieved to show that the HSC test score reflects the area(s) of language ability it sets out to measure, its construct validity is called into question.

### **5.3.3.2 Input**

The input facets examine the format in which input is presented and the characteristics of the language that are embodied in the input. The format includes features such as channel, form, language, length, type, degree of 'speededness', and vehicle of input delivery, while the language characteristics include both organizational and pragmatic characteristics of how the language is organized.

With respect to the HSC examination, the form of input is language, and the language by means of which input is delivered is English. On the whole, the input is presented in extended discourse. Since the majority of the task types in the HSC examination are objective or right forms of verbs/words, short questions, vocabulary, matching, true/false, cloze test and composition, etc. The degree of 'speededness' is high, since the rate at which the test taker is expected to process the input information is high. As a test for measuring teaching results, the HSC examination in English 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 goals, which, in turn, causes students to value tests more than regular class performance. Many students think that so long as they can pass the test it does not matter whether they attend the regular classes or not, which results in students' high rate of absence from classes in some colleges. Therefore, by focusing on testing students' reading comprehension and writing ability while neglecting their productive ability, the present HSC English test cannot reflect students' communicative competence objectively, and thus its validity is doubtful.

### **5.3.3.3 The Nature of Language Input of the HSC Examination**

The organizational and pragmatic characteristics of the HSC examination both for *First Paper* and *Second Paper* can be divided into subcategories. As far as the HSC examination is concerned, it involves a broad range of vocabulary and grammatical structures as well as a wide range of cohesive devices and topics. An examination of the test shows that a testee's linguistic knowledge is adequately tested, because he or she has to demonstrate that he or she has the linguistic knowledge to process the input information.

However, testees' sociolinguistic competence is only tested to some extent. For instance, in Part –A of *First paper*, the section of 'Seen Comprehension', and this competence is tested, for a testee needs to guess word meanings in context. But in general, the language input of the HSC examination seems unnatural, for it seldom relates to everyday situations. In other words, the test tasks do not often correspond to tasks in the language use domain. Based on the view of Bachman and Palmer (1996), if we want to use the scores from a language test to make inferences about individuals' language ability, we must be able to demonstrate how performance on that language test is related to language use in specific situations other than the language test itself.

### **5.3.3.4 Validity and Reliability of the HSC EFL Test**

The validity of the HSC examination in English is doubtful. The study indicates that HSC test scores, with a questionable reliability and doubtful validity, can not objectively reflect the students' normal English level, and its negative washback effect has hindered students' development in their communicative competence. The analyses of the examination papers support the findings of classroom observation and questionnaire survey. The classroom observation of this study found that teachers did not practice listening and speaking in the class at all. The reason for not teaching those skills (e.g. listening, speaking) was that they were not tested. Furthermore, the findings resulted from the questionnaire surveys reported that listening and speaking were not practised in the class. In addition, teachers did not teach items and tasks which were not tested; they considered it simply waste of time. In the questionnaire survey, both teachers and students pointed

out that the present HSC examination in English hindered their teaching and learning English. The results of the interview with the EFL teachers revealed that the present examination system obstructed their teaching. The findings also showed that maximum teachers and students believed that the HSC test score did not reflect students' English language ability. This is quite strong evidence that the HSC examination in English exerts negative washback on teaching and learning English.

As a matter of fact, communicative testing is a challenge for test designers. One reason is the issue of predictive validity. When designing a test of communicative ability, identifying test takers' needs based on communicative encounters that they are likely to experience is one of the basic principles. However, it is not certain if test makers can guarantee that testees performing well on a test in class are also able to do well outside the classroom in a real life situation. One reason for this is that real life communication is characterized by unpredictability. Studies have proved that test designers have tried to make real-world tasks, but encountered difficulties from the varied or diverse nature of contexts (Katsumasa 1997; Brown, 2003).

### **5.3.4 Analysis of the HSC Answer Scripts in English**

Answer script analysis is a part of portfolio assessment. It is a form of authentic assessment in which a student's progress is measured qualitatively. Answer script analysis can include evidence of specific skills and other items at one particular time and language performance and progress over time, under different conditions, in all four modalities ( such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking) or all three communication modes (interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational). Using a combination of testing instruments lends validity and reliability to the portfolio.

Cheng (2004) suggests that analysis of answer sheets/scripts reflects students' overall achievement in second or foreign language learning. Like classroom observation, answer sheet analysis is of great value. Bailey (1999) comments that answer sheet analysis is closely linked to instruction, which has two educational benefits. First, linking assessment to instruction means that what is being measured has been taught. Second, it reveals any weaknesses in instructional

practices. Andrew (2004) suggests answer per analysis promotes positive student involvement. It is actively involved in and reflecting on their own learning. It offers the teacher and the student an in-depth knowledge of the student as a learner. This means that the teacher can individualize instruction for the student. Weak areas can be strengthened and areas of mastery built upon. Learners are involved in this process of tracking their learning and can take control of their learning.

Li (2009) suggests that answer paper focuses how much positive or negative washback dominates the classroom activities. Brown (2000) opines that answer papers are the visible evidence of learner's learning outcome. Enright (2004) suggests answer pages highlight how much communicative competence has been achieved opposed to how much it is tested. The analysis of the HSC answer scripts in English has observed that examinations contain little reference to the knowledge and skills that students need in their everyday life outside the classroom; and they tend to measure achievement at a low taxonomic level. It was found that the test did not correspond to the curriculum objectives. With regard to English language testing, the two major skills: listening and speaking are always avoided in the examinations at the higher secondary examinations.

Language should be tested communicatively, which has some principles. The *first principle* is to "start from somewhere." The study of Katsumasa (1997) and Wesche (1983) show an agreement with this statement by confirming that when designing the test, test makers should state carefully what they expect test takers to perform when they use the target language in a specific context, which means that test writers must know what they want to test. Bailey (1998) provides an example to illustrate this principle, which is that even though conveying and capturing meaning while maintaining accuracy are two important elements in communication, if the tester focuses on checking the test takers' ability to convey meaning, then accuracy will not be put into the scoring criteria. Therefore, it is unfair for students if test writers take into account other unstated objectives when grading tests, which also negatively affects the test's validity.

"Concentration on content" is the *second principle* in designing a communicative language test. The content here refers to not only topics but also tasks that will be implemented. The tasks should aim to be authentic and have clear reference in reality. These tasks match students' proficiency level and age.

The *third principle* of communicative test design is “bias for best.” This means that test makers should bear in mind that they should create a test that can exploit test takers’ performance at their best. The work of Brown (2003) also supports this principle in designing the test. According to Brown (2003), “biased for best” is “a term that goes little beyond how the student views the test to a degree of strategic involvement on the part of student and teacher in preparing for, setting up, and following the test itself” (p. 34). To illustrate this third principle, Bailey (1998) suggests that when she gives a test that requires students to do a dichotomy, she notices that the text might be higher than students’ proficiency level; therefore, she reads the text three times and also encourages them to ask for new words involved in the text.

“Working on washback” is the *fourth principle* of communicative language testing. In order to obtain positive washback, test writers should create clear scoring criteria that would be provided to *both* teachers and test takers. Course objectives and test content are also put into consideration in the hope of promoting positive washback. The final aspect of communicative language testing is that of assessment. Communicative tests should be assessed qualitatively rather than quantitatively (Morrow 1991). However, Morrow (1991) argues that answers to tests are more than simply right or wrong, and that they should be assessed on the basis of how far towards an approximation of the native speaker’s system they have moved. Tests should reveal the quality of the testee’s language performance.

#### **5.3.4.1 Answer Scripts Analysis Checklist**

As pointed out in Chapter Four, the present researcher analysed answer scripts of the HSC English examination in English. The present researcher examined the answered scripts to examine, (i) what extent the communicative competence was tested, (b) how the students responded to questions, and (c) how tentative washback might generated from this test. For this purpose, an analysis checklist was applied (Appendix-3D). The checklist was adopted in accordance with the guidelines of Morrow (1991) and Brown (2003).

### **5.3.4.2 The Procedures of Answer Scripts Analysis**

The analysis had two parts: observation of the checking procedures and analysis of the scripts (examined). The researcher observed the checking and scoring procedures while the examiners were examining the scripts. The questions of the checklist were constructed on the basis of Brown (2003), and Ferman (2004). The researcher analysed 20 answer scripts taken from both *First Paper* and *Second Paper* of English of HSC Public Examination held in 2010. Of the scripts, 10 were randomly selected from *First Paper* and other 10 were taken from *Second Paper*.

The present researcher observed 4 EFL examiners while scoring/examining the scripts. In this section, the analysis results are discussed and presented. The examiners were appointed by the Dhaka Board of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education. By profession, the examiners were EFL teachers at the HSC level. After the scoring was over, the researcher took the answer scripts under his disposal for analysis purpose. Each examiner checked 5 scripts. The researcher conducted the analyses in front of the respective examiners.

Two examiners were selected from English *First Paper* and other two were selected from English *Second Paper*. The answer scripts were anonymous and information of candidates was recoded in Optical Mark Recognition (OMR) format. The analysed answer scripts were taken from the examination held in 2010. The present researcher observed how the examiners checked the scripts, how they marked each and every task and item, and how much time they spent for checking each script. The examined scripts were then analysed on the basis of checklist. The main points the researcher kept in mind that whether the answer scripts were the reflection of the students' learning English, and whether students' performance was the ultimate outcome of washback of the HSC examination. The post analysis interview with the examiners was also conducted to collect their views on the examination systems contents of test, scoring, the students' performance, etc. The answer scripts analysed were coded (e.g. S1, S2, S3—S10), and the 4 examiners were given pseudonyms (e.g. E1, E2, E3, E4).

### **5.3.4.3 Guidelines for the Examiners**

In Bangladesh, the examiners are not provided any written criteria or guidelines to examine the scripts. An analysis of the HSC examination in English

subject indicated that its instructions were not clearly specified with respect to the procedures for scoring the test. No examples were provided as to how to answer a question. The examination paper included the credit limit at the right hand margin for each question. The examiners had no training in examining scripts. It was found that the education board organised a short (an hour) orientation program for all examiners on the day of distribution of the scripts. The orientation program mainly discussed administrative procedures such as date of submission of the examined scripts, date of publication of results, the remuneration of the examiners, and very little about scoring. There were no specific scoring guidelines or rules for the examiners. However, the interview results with the examiners revealed that the education board authorities instructed the examiners to evaluate the scripts liberally.

It was found that the HSC English examiners examined the answers as per their own evaluation ability, experience, and perception. Since there were no set guidelines, the evaluation and scoring of the answers differed from examiner to examiner. Therefore, the reliability of the score given to each answer was inconsistent. For example, questions in the Part-B (carrying 60 marks) of Second Paper, and the questions in the Part-C (carrying 40 marks) of *First Paper* were wrongly evaluated. There were possibilities of over-marking or under-marking to the answers. It was also found that the test score largely depended on the will, ethics, sincerity, and dedication of the examiners to their profession.

#### **5.3.4.4 Reliability of Examining/Scoring of the Answer Scripts**

The present researcher checked the reliability of the present scoring/examining system by checking and re-checking methods. He requested two head examiners of English First Paper Second Paper, to help the researcher check the reliability of the scoring of the answer scripts. The head examiner for English first paper called 3 examiners working under him and asked them to evaluate 2 answer scripts separately. The three examiners examined the same answer scripts (using a pencil). When an examiner completed the evaluation of the two scripts, it was given to another examiner to examine. The marking sign was erased before it was placed to another examiner. Thus, three examiners examined 2 scripts one after another in different time. The procedures of examining and re-examining of the scripts were not disclosed to the examiners. Here, the examiners were coded as: E1,

E2, and E3. The answer scripts were marked as script -1 and script -2. The scores given by the examiners are displayed in the table below (Table 5.75):

Table 5.75: Reliability of scoring - *English First Paper*

<b>English Second Paper: Marks 100</b>	E1	E2	E3	Mean	STDV
Script 1 (%)	78	65	70	71	6.55
Script 2 (%)	71	60	76	69	8.18

In the case of Script-1, the highest mark was given by E1 (78); the lowest score was given by E2 (65), whereas E3 gave 71 marks. The mean score of the script (Script-1) was 71 and standard deviation was 6.56. The difference between the highest score and the lowest score was (78-65) 13. On the other hand, in the case of Script- 2, the highest mark was given by E3 (76); the lowest score was given by E2 (60); whereas the mean score for the Script-2 was and 69 standard deviation was 8.19. The difference between the highest mark and lowest mark for the script (Script-2) was 16.

The scores for the first paper in both the scripts varied examiner to examiner to a large extent. The results were not consistent, and therefore, the scoring system was inconsistent with very poor reliability, which is a threat to the education system in Bangladesh. The table below (Table 5.76) shows the different scores given by the three examiners of *English Second Paper*:

Table 5.76 Reliability of scoring -*English Second Paper*

<b>English Second Paper: Marks 100</b>	E1	E2	E3	Mean	STDEV
Script 1 (%)	68	76	63	69	6.56
Script 2 (%)	63	69	74	68.66	5.50

The scoring reliability of *English Second Paper* was also tested in the same way as it was done for the first paper. It was found that the reliability of marking was seriously poor. The results were inconsistent because the score varied examiner to examiner. For the Script-1 (second paper), the highest score was given by E2 (76) while the lowest score was 63 given by E3. The mean score was 69 and STDV was 6.56. The difference between two scores was 13 marks. On the other hand, in the case of Script-2, the highest credit was given by E3 which was 74; the lowest score

was 63 given by E1. The difference was 11 marks. The mean score and STDV were 68.66 and 5.50 respectively.

It was a serious concern that, for the same answers, different examiners gave different marks; and the marks varied in high rate. While communicating one of the deputy controllers of examinations of Dhaka Board about the inconsistency of scoring, he commented that it was unfortunate to find such an inconsistency in the evaluation and marking procedures. However, he believed that, the marking might vary examiner to examiner in a tolerable level that must not over 5%. It meant that the results of the HSC examination were not reliable.

### 5.3.4.5 Findings of Answer Script Analysis

The researcher observed scoring procedures and conducted analyses of 20 answer scripts of 4 examiners (e.g. 2 examiners were observed for English first paper, other 2 examiners were observed for English second paper). While observing the marking of English *First Paper* scripts, it was found that the examiners spent only 4 to 6 (including filling the OMR form) minutes to examine and marking a 100-mark script. For the *First Paper*, the mean score was 63.4 and STDV was 14.73. It was a three-hour test; the examinees were to answer 14 questions (most of them had sub-items). For the benefit of the presentation of the finding, the answer scripts are coded as S1, S2...S10. Two examiners examined the following 10 scripts (from S1- S10). The examiners were also given pseudonyms (for ethical reason) as E1 and E2. Examiner 1(E1) examined 5 scripts (S1- S5) while E2 examined other 5 scripts (S6-S10). The Table 5.77 displays the marks obtained and the amount of time spent for answer evaluation:

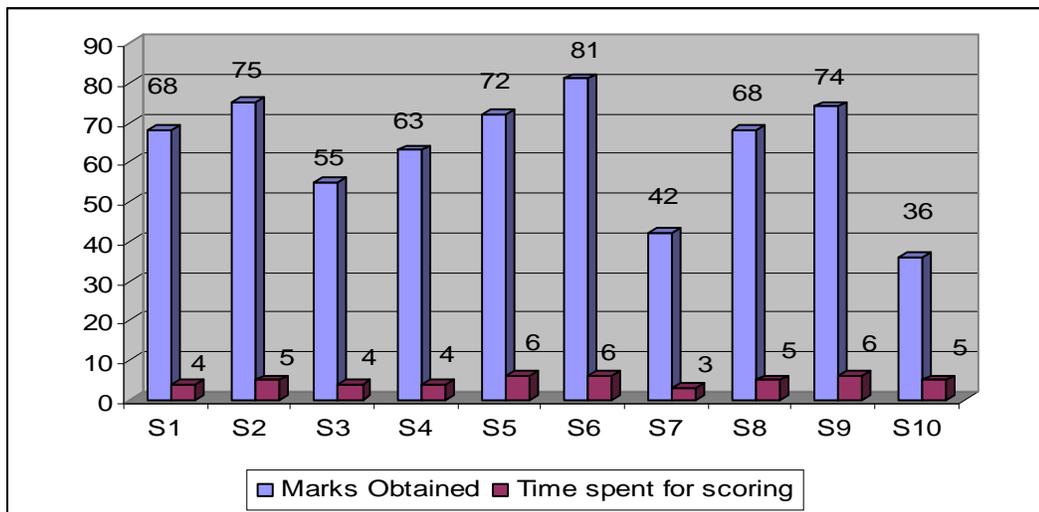
Table 5.77: Marks obtained and time analysis - English *First Paper*

English First Paper- Full Marks 100												
SL	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	Mean	STDV
Marks (%) Obtained	68	75	55	63	72	81	42	68	74	36	63.4	14.73
Time spent/ script(minutes)	4	5	4	4	6	6	3	5	6	5	4.8	1.03

As discussed in the earlier section, English *First Paper* comprises three parts: Part-A, Part-B, and Part-C. The study found that the examiners did not go

through the answers minutely and they gave very little attention to the answers. Most of the examiners looked at the length of the answers, underlined some of the words and sentences, and then put the credit at left-hand margin of the script. It was found that the scores of 10 scripts ranged from 36 to 81, whereas the averaged (mean) mark was 63.4. It was also found that the examiners took 3 minutes to 6 minutes (including filling up OMR sheet) to examine a script. On an average, the examiners spent 4.8 minutes to evaluate scripts. Figure 5.89 presents the findings of the analysis of answer scripts of *First Paper*:

Figure 5.89: Score and time analysis - English *First Paper*



It was already found the evaluation procedures suffered from reliability, and scores given was in consistent. The examiners were found reluctant to examining answer scripts. They also seemed to be in a hurry to finish evaluation as early as possible. Since the examiners were reluctant to examining the scripts, since they did not have any training and guidelines for scoring the scripts, and since the evaluation/marking was found undependable/ inconsistent, the test scores of the HSC examination did not give the true picture of success.

In the figure above (Figure 5.89), the blue columns indicate the marks obtained and the magenta columns point out the time spent for scoring of an individual script. The researcher also observed 2 examiners during their examining of English *Second Paper*. When the examining was over, the researcher took the answer scripts for analysis purpose. The examiners gave their full consent to analyse

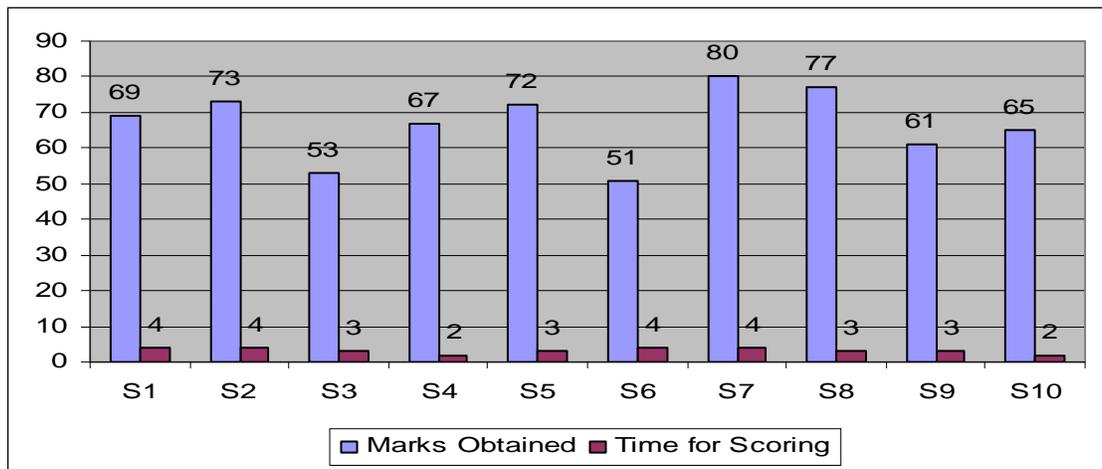
scripts in front of them. The Table 5.78 illustrates the students' scores and time spent for marking each script:

Table 5.78: Marks obtained and time analysis - English *Second Paper*

English Second Paper- Full Marks 100												
SL	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	Mean	STDV
Marks (%) Obtained	69	73	53	67	72	51	80	77	61	65	66.8	9.57
Time spent/ script (minutes)	4	4	3	2	3	4	4	3	3	2	3.2	1.05

The Figure 5.90 depicts the individual score of the scripts along with the time the examiner spent for checking and marking each answer script of *Second Paper* of English. The blue columns indicate marks obtained and the magenta columns point out the time spent for marking each script. The examiner spent only 2- 4 minutes to examine a script:

Figure 5.90: Score and time analysis - English *Second Paper*



English *Second Paper* has two parts: Part –A (Grammar) and Part-B (Composition). It was very frustrating to observe that the examiners evaluated the five composition questions (Part-B) in less than half a minute (20 seconds- 40 seconds). The examiners just turned over the pages, underlined some sentences without going through it, and completed marking. It was discouraging to observe the checking and marking procedures of all the 4 examiners of both papers. For the evaluation of answer scripts of English *Second Paper*, the examiners spent 3.2 minutes, on an average, of which half of the time they spent for filling up the OMR sheet (also called top sheet). One of the examiner commented that the board

authority instructed them to check the scripts liberally. He also pointed out that there were lots of mistakes in the answers. “If I check it properly it will take long time and most of candidates will fail”, he added.

#### **5.3.4.6 Skills and Linguistic Elements Tested**

The analysis of the scripts found that the grammar, vocabulary, matching, completing sentences, and composition writing were tested. They were all about language elements and writing skills. The analysis found there was no unified system to answer the questions, for example, in the case of *Second Paper* (questions 1-8), many students only wrote the missing words or correct words/form of verbs, whereas some students wrote full sentences. The examiners gave equal credit for all styles. It was found that there was no provision of testing the listening and speaking skills in the present examination system. However, reading comprehension was tested in the examination, for example, in the first paper, the questions from 1-8 were reading comprehension related. The analysis observed that the students got 60%-80% marks in this section (Table-5.79).

#### **5.3.4.7 Maximally Attempted Questions**

The analysis of the answer scripts found that 90% students answered all the questions. The grammar and short items were the most favoured tasks for the students. More than 50% students did not maintain the sequence of the question number. There is no obligation to maintain the question serials. In the second paper, 10% students avoided the direct and indirect speech (Question No. 5) item.

#### **5.3.4.8 Items Attended First**

All the examinees started their examination with answering the grammar, vocabulary, or objective questions items. The reason was that the grammar and language elements were usually and repeatedly practised in the class during the whole two years of time. Those questions were also considered easy scoring items

### 5.3.4.9 High Scoring Questions

For English *First Paper*, the analysis of the answer scripts found that grammar, vocabulary and multiple choice questions brought maximum marks. The table below (Table 5.79) shows the areas where the students did the best. In Part – A, on an average, the students got 28.5 marks ranged from 20 to 35 (out of 40):

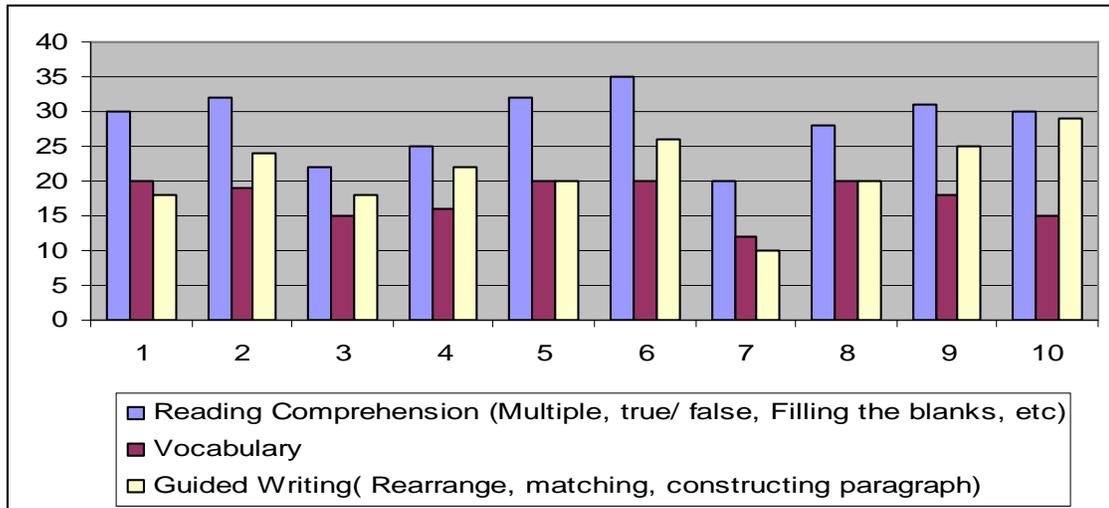
Table 5.79: Marks obtained in the different parts – English *First Paper*

Parts/ Areas	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	Mean	STDV
<b>Part -A=40</b> <b>Seen Comprehension</b> (Multiple choice, true/false, Filling the blanks, etc)	30	32	22	25	32	35	20	28	31	30	28.5	4.76
<b>Part -B=20</b> <b>Vocabulary</b>	<b>20</b>	19	15	16	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	12	<b>20</b>	18	15	17.5	2.83
<b>Part -C=40</b> <b>Guided Writing</b> (Rearrange, matching constructing paragraph)	18	24	18	22	20	26	10	20	25	29	21.2	5.32
Total	68	75	55	63	72	81	42	68	74	74	Average	

The part B received the mean score 17.5, and standard deviation was 2.83. In this section, the highest marks obtained was 20 (out of 20), and the lowest score was 15 marks. The vocabulary section (Part-B) got highest score, while seen comprehension section received the second highest position. The findings of the classroom observations, questionnaire surveys, and interviews revealed that the most practised items in the classroom were vocabulary, multiple choices, true/false and grammar.

These items are repeatedly practised in the classroom, which is the observable evidence of washback of the HSC examination on teaching and learning. Washback is not necessarily unidirectional, i.e. from exam to textbook and teaching rather than bi-directional, i.e. also from textbook and teaching to exam (Wall 2005, and Hawkey 2009). In Figure 5.91, the part-wise marks of 10 scripts are displayed:

Figure 5.91: Marks obtained in section - English *First Paper*



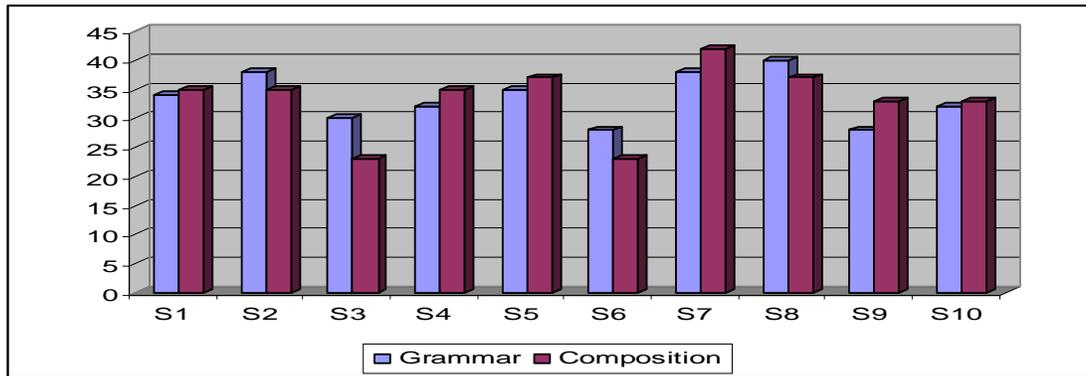
The blue columns indicate seen comprehension; the magenta columns show vocabulary marks; and the yellow columns present guided writing marks. The first script (S1) received highest marks in the reading comprehension section among all three sections. Seen comprehension carried 60 marks. Therefore, this section was the highest scorer in all 10 scripts, but the vocabulary section received the highest average (17.5 out of 20 marks). The figure (Figure 5.91) shows, in the vocabulary section, 4 scripts got 20 out of 20 which is 100% success.

In the case of English *Second Paper*, the grammar section has relatively stronger mean. On average, students got 33.5 marks out of 40, which indicates that students performed relatively well in this section. The analysis found that the students got 33.3 on an average (out of 60) in composition section. In this section, marks varied from 23-42. This variance is relatively very high. The table below (Table 5.80) presents the findings of section score analysis:

Table 5.80: Marks obtained in the different parts -English *Second Paper*

2nd Paper	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	Mean	STDEV
Grammar Marks 40	34	38	30	32	35	28	38	40	28	32	33.5	4.25
Composition Marks 60	35	35	23	35	37	23	42	37	33	33	33.3	6.00
Total	69	73	53	67	72	51	80	77	61	65		

Figure 5.92: Marks obtained in section- English *Second Paper*



The Figure 5.92 projects how the students performed in the different sections of the examination papers (question paper). The blue columns indicate marks obtained in the grammar section, whereas the magenta columns show marks obtained in the composition section.

#### 5.3.4.10 Evidence of Washback from Answer Scripts Analysis

Portfolio such as the answer sheet is a true evidence of washback (Ross, 2005). Analysis of test scoring is a strong means of investigating washback on language instructions and learning (Hawkey, 2004). The present researcher analysed 20 answer scripts of the HSC examination in English. The study revealed some truth. It was found that only reading comprehension, writing, grammar and vocabulary are mainly tested in the examination, though the curriculum has emphasized the communicative competence. The textbook reflects the goals of the syllabus and curriculum, but the teachers were found reluctant to teach communicative English; it was because the communicative language was not at all tested in the HSC examination.

The examination system is overall responsible for generating negative washback on ESL/EFL education (Shohamy, 2005). The answer scripts analysis found that the examiners hardly cared about the proper evaluation of the scripts; they simply performed the duty of giving the marks for answers. They spent only 2-5 minutes to examine a 100- mark script. The study disclosed the fact that the students preferred to answer the grammar and vocabulary items because they could achieve relatively higher score in those items. It was found vocabulary, grammar

items, true/ false, matching, rearranging all were selected and taken from the prescribed book, *English for Today* (for classes 11-12). Over-marking was found a common practice to all the examiners.

The examiners disclosed that they were instructed by the education board authorities to examine the scripts very liberally. It indicated that the authority wanted to increase to the pass rate quantitatively. In addition, most of the cases, the questions were over-weighted with excessive marks. For example, in the first paper, a question of matching phrases of 6 sentences carried 12 marks; a question of just rearranging of 14 sentences in a proper order carried 14 marks; a paragraph (answering five simple questions) in 150 words carried 14 marks. All these questions were extracted mostly from *English for Today* and directly commercially produced test related materials such as guidebook, suggestion book, test papers, etc. The test contents, examining/scoring procedures, marks allocation to the question, poor test constructs, etc. generate negative washback on teaching and learning at the HSC level.

Many researchers have claimed that high-stakes testing might trigger a myriad of unethical test preparation practices or motivate teachers to manipulate students' test scores (e.g. Ferman, 2004; Hawkey, 2006). To date, researchers have paid most of their attention to the washback of tests on four domains of teaching practice: (1) content of teaching, (2) teaching methods, (3) assessment methods, and more broadly (4) overall teaching style, classroom atmosphere and teachers' feelings towards the test. Among the four domains, teaching content was always found to be altered by tests.

Due to poor reliability of test cores, the pass rate of examination cannot draw a true picture of HSC EFL education. In a particular case, while writing a paragraph of 150 words, a testee committed 21 spelling mistakes, and produced all (total 9 sentences) linguistically incorrect sentences. An examiner gave 80% marks for writing this paragraph. The researcher was informed all the examiners were EFL teachers in different higher secondary colleges. In the language classrooms, the teachers practised selected items again and again where there was less risk to score higher. It can then be concluded that the present HSC examination in English generates negative washback on teaching and learning English as a foreign language (EFL).

## **5.4 Findings of the In-depth Interviews**

This section reports and discusses the findings of the interviews with EFL teachers, EFL examiners, and curriculum specialists. This was an interview on a one-to-one basis. It was designed to elicit qualitative data on: how they planned, how they designed the policy, how they delivered inputs, and how they received outcomes. In order to triangulate and possibly extend the findings of the present study, the present researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with 6 EFL teachers, and 4 HSC examiners of EFL, and 3 curriculum specialists. They were all directly involved in HSC education in Bangladesh. First, the findings of interviews with the EFL teachers are presented. Then, the researcher records the results derived from interviews with the EFL examiners, and finally presents the interview results with the policy makers. The presentation of results is followed by discussions.

### **5.4.1 Interviews with the EFL Teachers**

The role of teachers as one of the main stakeholders in the implementation of educational change and curriculum innovation has been the focus of ongoing interest to curriculum researchers, and has been examined extensively in the literature, both conceptually and empirically. This is because teachers, as implementers, determine whether or not curriculum innovation is executed in the classroom as it is intended by policymakers (Carless, 1999). For instance, Carless (1999) asserts that teachers are the individuals who implement, adapt, reject, or ignore curriculum innovation. The objectives of the syllabus and curriculum are gained through their classroom activities. They are main agents to generate positive and/or negative washback from test on teaching and learning.

Among the factors that can mediate the washback effect is the teacher (Wall, 1996) and her/his perceptions about the examination, its nature, purposes, relevance in the context, etc. Teacher perception, teacher attitudes and teacher beliefs are often mentioned in the washback studies as well (Rea-Dickens, 1997; Cheng, 2004; Watanabe, 2004). Therefore, teachers' decisive roles in the implementation of the curriculum cannot be underestimated. Without their support and genuine involvement in the innovation, any curriculum implementation will stay at a superficial level, with either semi- or even non-implementation. This section

discusses the disjunction between policymakers and implementers as well as implications for teachers, based on the existing research data.

The findings of the previous researches on teaching show that washback is subject to how (methodology) teachers teach. This may be attributed to Hawkey's claim (2006) that "the distinction between course content and methodology is not always clear cut" (p. 106). The examination had had considerable impact on the content of English lessons and on the way teachers designed their classroom tests (some of this was positive and some negative), but it had had little or no impact on the methodology they used in the classroom or on the way they marked their pupils' test performance. Therefore, it was very crucial for the present study to conduct interviews with EFL teachers to examine whether their perception of test, classroom behaviours, curriculum knowledge, etc contribute to generating washback on teaching and learning.

All the teachers interviewed were the participants of classroom observation. During the classroom observation the present researcher observed 10 EFL classes of 10 English teachers. Of them, the researcher selected 6 EFL teachers for interviews. Of the teachers interviewed 3 were male and 3 female. The teachers were coded as T1, T2 ... T6. The profiles of teachers were stated in section 5.2.2. The teacher interviews were based on the classroom observation they participated in. Therefore, the results of teacher interviews corresponded to the findings of classroom observation (Chapter 5.2). Semi- structured questions (Appendix- 4A) were used for teacher interviews.

#### **5.4.1.1 Interview with Teacher 1 (T1)**

The researcher conducted interview with T1. He along with his students was observed during classroom observation. He also took part in the questionnaire survey. Two days before the classroom observation started, T1 initially impressed the researcher as an advocate of student-directed instruction. He explicitly mentioned that the way he taught was in line with his teaching beliefs and the needs of his students. The present researcher had expected that he would incorporate some learner-centered activities in his class. Contrary to expectations, no such activities

were observed throughout the observation process. In fact, his class turned out to be typically teacher-centered.

In the class, he was observed spending a lot of time lecturing on linguistic knowledge. Pair work/group work activities were hardly implemented. Meanwhile, although the researcher observed him occasionally talking vigorously to his students by asking them comprehension questions related to the texts being taught, his instruction was conducted in Bengali. Moreover, he supplied them with answers most of the time. The results reveal a big mismatch between what he said and what he practiced. One possible reason for such a mismatch as well as his extensive use of Bengali in the classroom was that his own English language proficiency level was not very high, which made it impossible for him to adequately express his ideas in English. The researcher made such an inference based on the statements he made at one individual interview.

When addressing the role of language proficiency in EFL instruction, he stated that he occasionally found it hard to convey his ideas in English. Another possible reason was that although he previously expressed his interest in CLT and task-based teaching approaches, he might not be well-equipped with the hands-on knowledge which would allow him to manipulate the approaches as he wished. Evidence for this inference can be found in the conflicting remarks made by him on different interview occasions. During the interview, he was talking in the presence of his colleagues, he criticized the structural approach (or grammar-translation approach) saying:

This approach is too stereotyped and backward. I believe that an English class should revolve around productive skills, since the goal of our teaching is to enhance students' communicative competence.

In replying to a question, he articulated some interesting beliefs in teaching communicatively:

Although helping students acquire communicative competence is our goal, it seems unattainable. Therefore, pure communication is deceiving. Above all, students need to lay a solid foundation in grammar.

### 5.4.1.2 Interview with Teacher 2 (T2)

T2 was interviewed 2 days after she had taken part in the classroom observation. It was found that T2 taught her lessons using the structural approach. The instructional pattern she followed was a monotonous one, starting with reading the text aloud herself, then presenting and explaining language points (e.g., vocabulary and grammar), and ending up analysing the text paragraph by paragraph and translating them into Bengali. One strong impression from the observations was that the teacher's lecture dominated the class. The researcher observed the students being ignored most of the time and rarely called upon in class. Interestingly, T2 herself admitted that her classes were very much teacher-centered. When asked why no group-work activities were organized, she said:

I have tried using group work, but I find that such kinds of activities are ineffective. It is a waste of time to conduct them. The reason is that instead of using English, my students tended to talk to one another in Bengali.

She also expressed her dilemma as to what to teach in the class by saying:

I used to teach by focusing on the meaning of the text rather than on language points, but my students complained about the meaning-based instruction saying that they had not learned anything. As a result I had to concentrate more of my class time on teaching vocabulary and grammar. I sometimes feel I do not know what to teach and how to teach.

Her statements seemed to imply that whether or not teachers could organise communicative activities depends on the motivation as well as the English level of their students. She also seemed to suggest that students' beliefs or students' roles in the classroom constitute a barrier to the implementation of communicative activities in their instruction. This view was corroborated by T1 who also pointed out that students preferred to be taught more vocabulary because it is tested in different forms.

In addition, like T1, she reflected on the challenge she confronted when it came to organising communicative activities. From her accounts, her own low oral proficiency also poses a constraint on her instruction. She also echoed T1's claim saying that she sometimes found it hard to convey her ideas freely in English as well. When accounting for the reason that led to teachers' low oral proficiency, she articulated:

This has a lot to do with the policies and orientations of the colleges as well as the government. As a rule, little attention has been given to whether you teach well or not. As long as you have published a certain amount of journal articles and done well in research, you are considered having accomplished your job.

She further reminded the researcher that similar challenges were also faced by many other EFL teachers like her.

### **5.4.1.3 Interview with Teacher 3 (T3)**

The researcher interviewed T3 at his college campus. T3 wanted to talk before his colleagues. He claimed that he was a very serious type of teacher and most of his students did well in the examination. It was found that T3's lessons were also characterized as being knowledge-oriented and teacher-dominated. Reading is the primary skill emphasized by him. The focus of his instruction was predominantly on language knowledge. Teacher talk took up 60-70% of his class time. What struck the researcher was that as part of the class routine, he invariably started each new lesson leading his students to go over the vocabulary lists provided at the end of each text (lesson) before giving his lecture on the text. Apart from activities such as reading texts aloud and translation, rarely he was observed interacting with his students for the purposes of communication. Throughout the observation process, he talked about the importance of students' participation in classroom activities, but pair-work or group-work was never observed in his class. Furthermore, she seldom produced extended sentences in English. Much of the classroom instruction was carried out in Bengali.

He organized test-related activities, and the method he used was stereotyped. For example, when he led his students to do fast-reading exercises, first he simply asked the students to quietly read a passage he passed out to them and then answer the given questions. After that, he checked the answers with the whole class and provided them with the keys by highlighting the essential vocabulary and explaining why each choice was made. Between whiles, he gave the students tips on how to deal with the similar types of questions in case they appear on the HSC examination, which was the direct evidence of negative washback of examination.

When the researcher asked T3 to comment retrospectively on the teaching strategies he utilized in his instruction, he articulated some interesting beliefs in why he taught vocabulary this way. Here is an excerpt from his remarks at the interview:

Seldom did I think of such issues as teaching methods. I simply taught using my own way of teaching. Personally I think that teaching priority should be given to developing students' abilities in reading, because I find the biggest barrier the students encountered while reading is that their vocabulary is limited. Consequently, they had difficulty understanding the passages they read, and furthermore they could hardly convey their ideas when writing compositions. Therefore, linguistic knowledge should still be stressed.

He further justified his practice by saying:

The students are used to the method of structural analysis, and they find it hard to change their traditional way of learning. Each text of *English for Today* for classes 11-12 consists of a large number of new words. If we do not explain them, the students do not know how to use them.

He also defended his use of Bengali in the class saying, "Using English is a waste of time. The students may not be used to being taught purely in English in class". The questionnaire surveys and classroom observations also revealed that the English teachers used Bengali as a medium of instruction. One of the reasons of using Bengali frequently in the classes was that they themselves were not adequately fluent in English.

#### **5.4.1.4 Interview with Teacher 4 (T4)**

The researcher interviewed T4 in the teacher's room of her college. She showed her sincerity and expressed her willingness to cooperate the researcher in providing information she knew. During classroom observation, she was found very lively and friendly in her class. Unlike other participants who attached more importance to language forms, T4 stressed the development of students' ability to use English. She 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. Not only was she observed frequently utilizing authentic materials, but she was also found using textbooks more creatively and trying hard to encourage her students to interact in class. It was noted during the observations that her students showed higher

motivation in learning English and were more active in class than those of other classes observed.

When recounting the reasons why she implemented these interactive activities rather than spending a lot of time on language forms, she articulated:

I attempted to arrange as many activities as possible, because I was afraid that my students would be bored with my lessons. What I cannot stand is that they all lower their heads and do not respond to me. I do not think the “Cramming-Duck” method works. I believe that if a teacher lectures for two hours, a student will only end up acquiring 10% of what he or she is taught. In my opinion, teaching vocabulary as discrete points does more harm than good to the students, even though they prefer to be taught that way. The more vocabulary we explain, the more confused the students will become. It is impossible for students to have a command of it by learning it in such a decontextualized way.

The above comments provided insight into her professional stances on EFL instruction. In replying to a question, she pointed out that she was aware that most of her colleagues continued to devote plenty of their class time to teaching language forms. She proceeded to pinpoint the reasons why teachers at large had a preference for teaching vocabulary items. The following is an excerpt from her interview discussion:

There are a number of reasons for this. One is that they may have been taught that way. Another plausible reason is that they are constrained by their own language proficiency. To be specific, they have trouble expressing their ideas in English themselves. In such a case, teaching vocabulary is the easiest way they can do. By so doing, they no longer need to take the trouble to improve their own language abilities. Nor do they need to rack their brains on how to teach. Another reason might be that that way of teaching, in their opinion, appeals to their students.

She commented that the majority of teachers had never thought of whether it was appropriate to teach vocabulary that way; they simply followed what other teachers did. She added that it was also possible that some teachers were not responsible or conscientious enough. In spite of her efforts, her class still seemed deficient in that she was seldom seen calling on students to answer her questions on a one-to-one basis. She was also aware that she had encountered some obstacles while carrying out student-centered activities. With respect to the impact of learner beliefs in teaching, her opinions are consistent with those of others. One example

she gave the present researcher corroborated T1's and T2's assertion that students' beliefs also had a part to play in the way that teachers taught:

Once I received a letter from my students saying that they enjoyed my class very much. While they assured me that they were contented with the way I delivered my lessons, they expressed their worry about the group discussions that I had assigned them to prepare, for they reminded me that their exam was round the corner.

This example serves to illustrate that students' beliefs also play an important part in teachers' decisions as to how to teach. In any way, students sometimes influence the teachers to teach particular items important for the examination which indicates the unavoidable washback of HSC examination in English on teaching and learning English.

#### **5.4.1.5 Interview with Teacher 5 (T5)**

As mentioned earlier, the interviews with the teachers were based on the classroom observation. So, the findings of interview cannot be isolated from the findings of classroom observation. The observation data showed that the way T5 dealt with her lessons exhibits features of both traditional methods of teaching and CLT. She was observed using her textbook creatively by going beyond it to create local contexts for her students to use the language. At such times, she was carrying out activities to practice students' skill in speaking. She was found using the textbook in a formal way, dealing with it as a means of reinforcing language forms such as vocabulary and grammatical points. During these times, a lot of translations and paraphrases were utilized. When asked to explain her reasons for using methods of translation and paraphrases, she told:

I frequently put what I said from English into Bengali to highlight what was taught. In this way, I can clarify what the students may not have understood. With reference to paraphrasing, It is hard to say whether it is good or not. In many cases, teachers have prewritten the paraphrased sentences on their own textbooks. Generally the sentences are copied from teachers' books. In class, they simply need to read them.

She reflected retrospectively on her own way of teaching, saying:

Although I prefer to use CLT and attempt to conduct meaning-based instruction, the time I dedicated to preparing my lessons was, to be frank, quite limited. Had I committed more time and energy to my teaching, my lessons would have taken a dramatic turn.

During the observations, she was found devoting a lot of time to explanations of linguistic points. She defended why she was doing so, saying:

Language is a means of communication. When students talk, they need to demonstrate a good command of linguistic knowledge. Otherwise they will be at a loss what to talk about. In my view, language use should take place under the condition that there is some real content. Content is the carrier of communication.

#### **5.4.1.6 Interview with Teacher 6 (T6)**

Before the classroom observation started, the researcher informed the teachers that he would talk to them to share views. Accordingly, the researcher interviewed T6 on his classroom teaching. T6's teaching patterns could be characterised as combining aspects of the traditional method (e.g., with a focus on basic skills such as pronunciation and recitation) and CLT (e.g., engaging students in discussions and negotiation of meaning).

During the observations, he was often seen asking students to read texts aloud and in the meantime modeling correct pronunciation. While he placed special emphasis on pronunciation, the time he spent on teaching vocabulary and grammar was much less than that other observed teachers did. Compared to other observed teachers, he used more English in class. Similar to the students of T4's class, his students were all well-disciplined and highly cooperative in the classroom, which might be related to the high expectations he set for them. A look at the interview data demonstrated that his practices in the classroom reflected his teaching philosophies. The following comments reflected some of his teaching stances:

To acquire a language is to use it. So, our teaching should aim at helping our students to acquire the competence to use English. Foremost, we must help them lay a solid foundation in basic skills such as pronunciation and talking in appropriate English. To develop these skills, memorisation is pivotal. Without memorizing some standardized texts or articles, it will be impossible for them to express their opinions freely. That is why I assigned my students 42 topics and each class each student is supposed to be able to recite 3 paragraphs in relation to these topics. My students are cooperative, because I let them know my purpose of doing so. It is important to communicate with students and let them know how to learn.

It can be seen that based on his notion, the ability of language use can be acquired through practice of basic skills such as pronunciation and rote memory. An

interesting finding is that like T4, T6 was negative about devoting a lot of time to teaching vocabulary items, saying that it was quite time-consuming and impeded the enhancement of students' language competence. According to him, even if the students were taught a lot of vocabulary, they could hardly remember them. Like T4, he made an interesting comment on why many teachers prefer to teach vocabulary:

Quite a number of students believe that the teachers who lecture on vocabulary are both high-leveled and knowledgeable. But the fact is that teaching vocabulary is the easiest approach.

He also explained why he spoke English most of the time in his classroom. His assumption is that because he teaches in English, his students would be able to be exposed to the language as much as possible. In an individual interview, he revisited the issue of teacher quality touched upon by his colleague at the group interview. Some interesting points he made on the issue are as follows:

EFL teachers' input in the classroom plays a crucial role in students' exposure to the language. It's more important than the exposure they receive when listening to the recordings or watching TV, since the interactions between a teacher and his/her students are more direct. If the teachers' oral proficiency has improved, then EFL teaching will be upgraded to a higher level. However, the reforms have been made to English second paper cannot attain such a goal.

The purpose of EFL teacher interview was to explore how the interviewed six teachers conducted their teaching with regard to the intended curriculum. From the interviews, the four EFL teachers (out of six) recognized their own lack of knowledge and understanding of the syllabus. Although the curriculum designers/policymakers expected teachers to adhere to the objectives and specifications of the syllabus in their classroom teaching and to be knowledgeable and clear about the syllabus, the teachers also expressed their lack of interest in this curricular document. In terms of the student-centred approach, all the teachers interviewed attributed large class sizes, students' poor language proficiency, limited teaching periods, heavy teaching loads, and students' study habits as obstacles to their implementation of this approach. Maximum teachers stated that one hundred percent use of English in instruction would probably result in students' frustration, based on their students' language ability. They remarked that use of their first language was beneficial for their students.

Regarding the use of the mother tongue in the classroom, these four teachers emphasized that they used Bengali to save time, to be clear in instruction, and to check whether students understood what was being taught to them. The teachers acknowledged the impact of this test on their curriculum implementation. The effects included teaching to the test, a narrowing of the intended curriculum by focusing on improving students' test scores, and paying scant attention to the cultivation of students' communicative skills. Indeed, both classroom observations and interviews demonstrated a discrepancy between what was intended by the policymakers and what was enacted by the two teachers.

### **5.4.2 Interviews with EFL Examiners**

The researcher interviewed 4 EFL examiners to obtain qualitative data on their perception, beliefs, and practice as examiners of English. Of the four interviewed examiners, two examiners evaluated English *First Paper* and the other two examined English *Second Paper*. Earlier, they were observed while examining and scoring the answer scripts. Observation took place at their respective colleges. After they had finished their evaluation, the researcher took the examined answer scripts for analysis. The examiners were requested to share views on their evaluation and scoring systems. The semi-structured questions (Appendix- 4B) were prepared earlier so that necessary information could be elicited.

The major purposes of the interview were to- (i) investigate whether any internal (their belief, perception, experience, knowledge, etc) and/or external pressures or factors influenced them in the process of examining and scoring the scripts, (ii) examine whether the answer scripts evaluation procedures/activities influenced their teaching and learning, and (iii) look into whether the present answer scripts evaluation systems contributed to generate washback (positive or negative) on classroom teaching and learning. The researcher interviewed the examiners on separate days and behaved as if the researcher were just sharing views with them. All the examiners had been English examiners for several years under the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, Dhaka. The interview was based on the observation of scoring procedures and analysis of HSC answer scripts in English. The findings and discussion of the interview are presented below. The examiners are coded here E1, E2, E3, and E4.

### 5.4.2.1 Interview with Examiner 1 (E1)

E1 was an examiner of English *First Paper*. The introductory question to him was - whether he enjoyed checking of the HSC EFL answer- scripts. E1 replied that he did not enjoy. He added that by examining scripts he could best use his idle time when there were no classes. He continued:

It increases my acceptance to my students; it also brings some financial benefit; I think all the English teachers should examine board scripts because it helps how to prepare the students for the examination; and it helps me compare how the students in different colleges answer the questions.

When asked, whether he received any training in evaluation of scripts, he replied that he did not because there was no opportunity for training for the examiners to examine and mark the scripts. The researcher asked if he received any written guidelines for scoring, he said there were not such guidelines provided by the education board, but he took part in a short orientation on the day of distribution of the scripts. He said that the board authority instructed them to be liberal while examining the scripts, although how much liberal an examiner would be was not specified. When he was asked to comment on the question paper and answer script evaluation (especially on taking so short time for checking), he said:

Most of the answers are of multiple choice types such as matching, vocabulary, and rearranging. So, it took very short time to evaluate a script. He continued saying that the questions 11, 12, and 13 were over weighted with excessive marks. He remarked that those items should be changed. The education board has instructed them to give credit for every question if the candidate can organise and generate an idea. 80% candidates can not write even a single correct sentence on a given paragraph. But he has to give them over 70% marks as per the instruction of the board authority.

In reply to another question, whether the present evaluation system was appropriate, he replied that the system was not at all authentic and appropriate. He further continued that the most important thing was that the test contents should be changed; the problems were with the question setting. He remarked, “This can yield high pass rate and good grades, but this system would eventually impede English education in Bangladesh”.

From the interview with E1, it was found that the answer scripts assessment was not an interesting one; he examined the scripts for a number of reasons as he mentioned. He also expressed his dissatisfaction with the question paper and poor

performance of the students. The examiner suggested changing the contents of the HSC examination. From this interview, it was found that the present HSC examination system was inappropriate to enhance EFL teaching and learning. Andrews et al. (2000) point out the any inappropriate language test must exert negative washback on teaching. Barnes (2010) believes any language test should aim at promoting language learning. It is believed that test should aid learning, and a language test should be used as lever. Positive washback takes place when tests induce teachers to cover their subjects more thoroughly, making them complete their syllabi within the prescribed time limits

#### **5.4.2.2 Interview with Examiner 2 (E2)**

She was an examiner of English *First Paper*. She had been an examiner for last 10 years. Last year, she discharged duties as a head examiner. She informed that she enjoyed examining and marking the scripts. She added that the authority should have arranged some training for the examiners. When she was asked to comment on the present HSC examination, EFL education, and validity and reliability of answer scripts evaluation and marking. She commented:

We always speak about CLT, but what the real picture is! English is neither taught communicatively nor is communicative English is tested. This is the examination system which is overall responsible for poor performance of the students in English in real life situation. Examination system is very poor; the questions are not maintained difficulty level; we cannot expect testing of students' EFL proficiency by introducing matching, rearranging, and true/false items. She posed a question- Do the policy makers really understand what CLT means and how it is tested? The pass rate is high; therefore, the government is highly pleased and overwhelmed.

In Bangladesh, all the EFL examiners are the teachers by profession at different colleges. It is a fact that an examination influences teaching and learning; additionally, when the authority asks the examiners to be very liberal while evaluating the answers, the teaching and learning further deteriorate. She said that she took 4-5 minutes to evaluate a script because the answers were very redundant and short. She believed that examiners should be provided guidelines for checking and marking the answers. She also believed that the scripts were not properly evaluated. She complained the answers were over-marked by the examiners. E2 believed that the present EFL examination system is inappropriate for language

testing. She further said, in the present examination system, especially in English first paper, no skills were tested except some language elements. She emphasised that the examination system should be revised introducing new items in the form of communicative language testing. She also advised that the government should at least study and look into the other South Asian countries' (e.g. India, Pakistan) English language teaching and testing system.

From the interview results, it was again found that the present EFL test was not a valid test as it failed to assess students' communicative ability in English. The findings of the interview with E2 revealed that the answer scripts were not evaluated properly. Good tests can be utilized and designed as beneficial teaching-learning activities so as to encourage a positive teaching-learning process (Pearson, 1988). A creative and innovative test can quite advantageously result in a syllabus alteration or a new syllabus (Davies, 1990). Cheng (2005) points out that an examination achieves the goals of teaching and learning, such as the introduction of new textbooks and new curricula.

#### **5.4.2.3 Interview with Examiner 3 (E3)**

E3 was an examiner of English *Second Paper* under the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, Dhaka. She had experience of examining the scripts of 4 years. She was asked if she enjoyed the answer scripts evaluation, she replied that in the affirmative saying that she preferred English *Second Paper* because it took less time than English *First Paper*. Like E1 and E2 she also informed that there was no scope for training for examiners. She admitted that the education board authority instructed them to be liberal while marking. The researcher observed her checking and marking sitting in front of her and found that she (E3) examined a script of 100 marks in 2-3 minutes. The researcher asked how she could finish checking in little time. She replied that she looked at the particular point of grammar items to check. She added that in the comprehension section the students made huge mistakes so she underlined maximum sentences. She pointed out that the candidates committed spelling mistakes, grammatical mistakes, etc. She continued by saying that:

The present examination system is faulty. There is no sign of communicative testing. The question items are so funny. Questions are set to make the pass

rate high. The answer script evaluation is manipulated. The students make so many mistakes that they should not be given any credit on composition items; reading their answers line by line is simply waste of time. The answers are not suitable enough to get any credit. I look at how much the candidate has written of his/her idea. The education board authority instructed them to give credit for such a poor answer.

She made some more frustrating comments on examination while answering a question. She said that the examination system and the answer scripts evaluation procedures influenced her classroom teaching. She remarked that since she knew that there was sufficient flexibility in checking and marking the answers in the final examination, she remained relaxed to some extent and did not put serious attention to the accuracy of the students. The researcher asked whether the present examination system and its question items enhance EFL teaching and learning. In reply to this question, she said the present EFL examination system is an instrument to hamper language education. However, she emphasized that the examination system should be modernized to evaluate students' communicative competence. It was found that the examiners evaluated an answer script in 2- 4 minutes. The researcher found that the examiners just turned the pages and underlined some sentences and words, and then put marks on the left hand margin.

The findings of interviews disclosed the fact that the reliability of scoring was inconsistent, and the results from it could not give a true picture of EFL learning and language ability. Cohen (1994) describes washback in terms of "how assessment instruments affect educational practices and beliefs" (p. 41). Pierce (1992) specifies classroom pedagogy, curriculum development, and educational policy as the areas where washback has an effect. On the other hand, Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) took a view of washback which concentrated more on the effect of the test on teaching. Positive washback would result when the testing procedure reflects the skills and abilities that are taught in the course, as, for instance, with the use of an oral interview for a final examination in a course in conversational language use. Test contents can have a very direct washback effect upon teaching curricula.

#### **5.4.2.4 Interview with Examiner 4 (E4)**

Examiner 4(E4) was an examiner of English *Second Paper*. He has been an examiner for 5 years under the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education,

Dhaka. He informed that he enjoyed the task of scoring. He said he also did it for some financial benefit. The researcher observed him while marking the scripts. He took on an average 2.5 minutes to examine a script. Like E3, he also underlined the sentences and marked them. When he was asked why he took so little time to evaluate the answer scripts, he replied that it was unnecessary to use longer time for checking a script as he could understand the quality of the answers just reading first few lines. He said, for composition section, the students answered very poorly; they committed spelling mistakes; and no sentence was grammatically correct.

The researcher asked, then, why he gave credit for the wrong and poor answers. He echoed the voice of other examiners saying that he did not want to do it, but the board authority instructed them to be liberal while checking the scripts. He said that the education board advised them to give good credit for any composition item if the student could generate or organize any idea on a given topic. He commented that the present examination system should be changed and modernized.

Findings of the interviews with the 4 examiners drew a picture of present examination and scoring system. On the one hand, the test contents were not fit to test the target language (i.e. English) ability, on the other hand, the scoring/marking system was undependable. If any external pressure or bias influences examiners' scoring, it causes extreme harms for society in general. Vocabulary teaching and testing gets higher priority, but it is considered the 'crux of the backwash problem'. While vocabulary tests may be a quick measure of language proficiency, once they are established as the only form of assessment, the backwash to instruction resulted in the tests becoming a measure of vocabulary learning rather than language proficiency. Smith (1991b) summarises that testing considerably reduces learning time, narrows the curriculum, and discourages teachers from attempting to meet other goals or from using materials not compatible with formats used by the test makers. She put it, "multiple choice testing leads to multiple choice teaching" (p.10).

Negative washback occurs when the test items are based on an outdated view of language, which bears little relationship to the teaching curriculum. Similarly, Wall and Alderson (1993) reason that if the aims, activities, or marking criteria of the textbook and the exam contain no conflicts and the teachers accept and work towards these goals, then this is a form of positive washback. Negative washback

would be evidenced in the exam having a distorting or restraining influence on what is being taught and how. Swain (1985) commented that "It has frequently been noted that teachers will teach to a test: that is, if they know the content of a test and/or the format of a test, they will teach their students accordingly" (p. 43). The findings of interview suggested that the reliability of scoring was highly inconsistent. So, the results from the HSC examination in English could not give a true picture of language ability. The interview results also revealed that the present HSC examination in English suffered from required validity and reliability, and it influenced teaching and learning negatively.

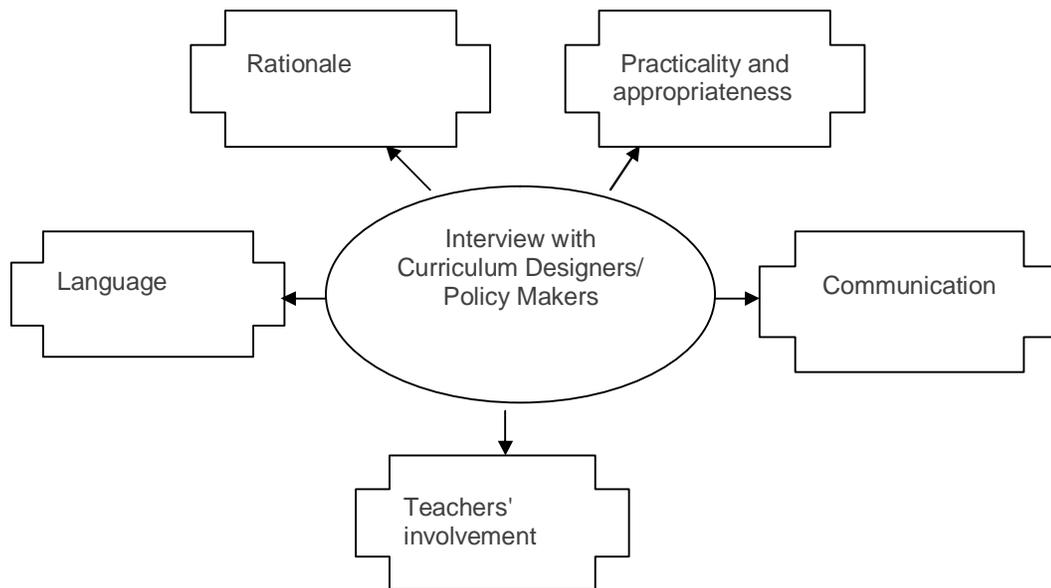
### **5.4.3 Interviews with the Curriculum Specialists**

The present researcher conducted in-depth interview with curriculum specialists. The purpose of conducting interviews with the curriculum specialists was to explore the intended curriculum, and particularly the rationale behind the proposed language policies. Some confidential and ethical reasons the participants preferred to be anonymous. The curriculum specialists were interviewed through a semi-structured questionnaire (Appendix-4C). They were working at NCTB. The interview was taken in the form of informal discussion at a table held at NCTB. The researcher asked semi-structured question to elicit required information.

#### **5.4.3.1 The Interview Protocols**

The instrument used in interviews with curriculum specialists followed what Patton (2002) refers to as the interview guide approach. In this approach, the researcher listed the questions to be explored in an interview and used the list as a guide to "ensure that the same basic lines of inquiry are pursued with each person interviewed" (p. 343). The researcher did not have to follow these questions in any particular order during the interview (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Rather, this interview guide provided the topic dimensions associated with syllabi, textbooks, and tests within which he was "free to explore, probe, and ask questions that will elucidate and illuminate that particular subject" (Patton, 2002, p. 343). The Figure 5.93 displays the dimensions of interview questions:

Figure 5.93 Dimensions of the interview with the curriculum specialists



The advantage of this “semi-structured and in depth interview” allowed the researcher to come to the interview with guiding questions and meanwhile remain open to “following the leads of informants and probing into areas that arise during interview interactions” (Hatch, 2002, p. 94). The interview protocols with the policymakers were divided into 5 dimensions as illustrated in Figure 5.93.

The first dimension included the rationale for the design of the syllabus, the compilation of the textbooks and the changes made to the curriculum. The second dimension of the interview questions dealt with the appropriateness and practicality of the syllabus, textbooks, and tests, and the underlying principles of their design. In this case, the present researcher intended to look at the clarity of the syllabus, how the textbooks actually covered the syllabus, and for what purposes the HSC test results were used. The third dimension of the interview questions focused on the communication strategies of each decision-making organization in disseminating the syllabus and textbooks, and on the extent to which EFL teachers’ fidelity to implementation was expected. In addition, the researcher wanted to discover participants’ perspectives regarding the impact of the HSC examination in English on teachers, students, and the college itself. The fourth dimension of the interview questions was geared to the EFL teachers’ involvement in the development of the syllabus and textbooks. The fifth dimension dealt with teachers’ language

proficiency in delivering the curriculum, and students' English proficiency and the consequences of their failure in the HSC English test.

#### **5.4.3.2 Results of the Interviews**

The researcher asked the curriculum specialists to make comments on the present EFL education at the higher secondary level in Bangladesh. Accordingly, they commented that the quality of English education had been deteriorating during the last few years though huge quantitative improvement had been made, the overall pass rate was high, and numbers of GPA-5 had been increased. The curriculum specialists remarked that the quantitative improvement remarkably noticed after the communicative language teaching had been (CLT) introduced in 2000. One of the curriculum experts pointed out that the examination system and test contents were reformed in 2003 in favour of the students. All three interviewed curriculum designers agreed that writing the textbook, *English for Today* for classes 11-12 was a great achievement. They also believed that the book, *English for Today* could not be utilised properly due to lack trained teachers. The interviewed experts suggested that the new EFL syllabus (introduced in 2000) and curriculum seemed to be highly appropriate and well-suited for EFL education in Bangladesh context. Yet they expressed their frustration saying that unfortunately the goals of the syllabus and curriculum were not still achieved.

Regarding the present examination system and test contents, two of the curriculum experts expressed their dissatisfaction with the examination system and the HSC test contents. They remarked that the test was poorly designed and difficulty level was not maintained. All three experts suspected the validity and reliability of HSC examination in English. They focused that in the present evaluation system, one could score very high without achieving proficiency in English. They also categorically commented that the government's target was to increase the pass rate. They believed that the inappropriate language test hampers classroom education. They informed the researcher that new "National Education Policy 2010" would be implemented step by step. They also suggested that the government had a plan to introduce 'creative question' format in all subjects at the higher secondary level.

The interviewed specialists clearly stated that language teaching and learning in the classroom should centre on students, should reduce teachers' speaking time, and should encourage student participation. Therefore, the experts suggested that teachers employed flexible and practical methods according to where different learners were at different stages. In this sense, policymakers are justified in recommending such an approach for EFL teaching methods in Bangladesh context. The experts emphasized that in order to implement the textbook designers' teaching principles; teachers must both adopt a learner-centred approach and use English entirely in instruction. They contended that teachers' positive change in perception was more important than their language proficiency.

This section has presented the key findings of the interview with the three curriculum specialists. The results revealed five themes regarding EFL education at the higher secondary level, and expected implementation in relation to syllabi, textbooks, and tests. To sum up, all the participants agreed that the intended curriculum had not been formulated for the purpose of being concrete and specific, but rather as a more general guideline functioning purely as symbolic guidance to teachers' classroom instruction. They expected that teachers (as the main implementers of curriculum) would achieve the desired goals of the syllabus and curriculum.

## **5.5 Conclusion**

A high-stakes test has been recognised and used as a tool for educational change for many decades. The findings of this research have confirmed the powerful influence that a high-stakes test can have on teaching and learning. This chapter has dealt with the presentation and discussion of both quantitative and qualitative findings of the different sets of the data obtained from a mixed-methods approach. The research supports the claim that washback is neither simple nor direct, but circuitous and complicated (Wall & Alderson, 1993). The quantitative and qualitative results have been discussed in conjunction with the research questions posed in the present study. A close examination of different data sets has revealed some recurring themes with regard to the different factors involved in the washback phenomenon.

This chapter has discussed the findings in light of the theoretical framework presented in Chapter Two. The different types of data, qualitative and quantitative, are intended to serve different purposes. The qualitative data collected through interviews and classroom observations has allowed for a more intensive and in-depth examination of how individual teachers, examiners, and other stakeholders (e.g. curriculum specialists) have perceived and reacted to the HSC examination in English with respect to the specific teaching contexts. As is previously presented in detail in Chapter Four, the qualitative data are supplemented with the survey data. The surveys were used, for it is assumed to be well- suited for quantifying the qualitative data and providing descriptions and comparisons of patterns of both the students' and the teachers' behaviours and beliefs in teaching, learning and testing. The value of this set of data is twofold. On the one hand, they have enhanced the understanding of the participants' interpretations of test impact, their conceptions of teaching, and the meanings they have attached to the classroom practices. On the other hand, they have provided a clear picture of how the teachers' thoughts and conceptions are related to their activities and practices observed. This chapter consists of four sections (see 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4); each section has presented and discussed the findings derived from particular types of instruments.

Section 5.1 has presented and discussed the findings obtained from the questionnaire surveys (student survey and teacher survey). The questionnaire responses showed the popularity of test practice activities. The findings of the questionnaire surveys revealed that the HSC examination was driving teaching and learning in the EFL classroom. The phenomenon was interpreted as negative by many researchers (e.g. Cheng, 2004) saying said that assessment-driven teaching was leading to loss of teaching and learning time. Narrowing the curriculum by leaving out what was not tested was also evident and seen as a negative washback. The materials and teaching methods were also negatively influenced by the examination. Test related commercially produced materials were used by most of the teachers and students inside and outside the classroom. The study has identified some other factors that are encouraging the teachers to teach to tests, such as time constraint, and pressure from students, their parents and college management.

Section 5.2 has reported the findings and discussion resulted from the classroom observations. From a methodological perspective, the intensive classroom

observations provided this study with rich data. However, the inclusion of several additional sources of data may have contributed to the observations. This section has focused on the findings of observing the teachers and students in the classroom setting about their lessons and opinions on the HSC examination. The COLT, UCOS and self-made checklist recorded various classroom activities to examine whether the activities of the EFL teachers were driven by the HSC examination. It was found that most of the observed classes (80%) were highly teacher-controlled. It seemed that the teachers still dominated most of the classroom interactions, and that teacher talk was the predominant strategy in their classes. The activities mainly emphasised reading skills, vocabulary building, language points and sentence structures, which limited students to producing isolated sentences, and limited them to be assessed merely for grammatical accuracy. Moreover, the nature of teacher talk, as a percentage of class time, was similar in most of the teachers' cases. The detailed findings suggested that the negative washback effect had driven the attitudes, behaviours, and perceptions of the teachers. The findings revealed that more than 80% teachers were entirely reliant on test related commercially produced materials. Washback was seen to occur quickly and strongly in the creation of teaching those materials. The perceptions of the students and teachers regarding teaching and learning activities were also directly influenced by the HSC examination. The findings suggested that the teachers pronounced the name of the HSC examination several times during the lesson, and reminded the students that the examination was not far away. The detailed findings of the classroom observations suggested that there was washback effect of the HSC examination on teaching and the classroom behaviours.

Section 5.3 has documented the findings obtained from the examination related documents analyses (syllabus and curriculum, textbook analysis, HSC test/question papers analysis, and HSC answer scripts analysis). It was found that the syllabus and curriculum set specific goals and objectives, and covered the needs of the language learners. The findings of the textbook analysis discovered that *English for Today* (for Classes 11-12) directly corresponded to the HSC English syllabus and curriculum, and was well-suited one to enhance EFL teaching and learning at the HSC level. The findings focused that the HSC EFL test extremely suffered from lack of validity and reliability as a language test because the examination contents

and items could not assess the students' communicative competence. The findings also depicted that the scoring/marking procedures of the answer scripts were unreliable. There were no scoring guidelines for the examiners. The scores obtained by the testees (students) varied from examiner to examiner to a large extent (up to 20%). It exerted negative impact on classroom teaching.

Section 5.4 has offered the presentation and discussion of the findings received from the interviews with EFL teachers, EFL examiners and curriculum specialists. The findings disclosed that the EFL teachers used most of the class time for the test preparation. The teachers usually used commercially produced test related materials, and preferred to use the mother tongue Bengali as a medium of instruction. They were negatively influenced by the HSC examination which was the evidence of negative washback of the test. The examiners of English believed the HSC examination, results were not the true indicators of the students' proficiency level in English. The findings of the interviews with the curriculum specialists suggested that the English syllabus and curriculum designed 2000 should have been revised. They also emphasised the modification of the HSC EFL test contents and items to assess the communicative competence of the students.

Thus, in every section, the researcher has tried to examine how the findings revealed the evidence of washback of the HSC examination. He has also sought the answers to the research questions through discussions. He has examined and re-examined the findings by cross-referencing with the findings obtained from other instruments. References of previous studies and expert opinions have also been presented in support of the findings of the present study. The next chapter, Chapter Six, summarises the findings, offers answers to the research questions, touches upon the implications of the findings, and puts forward recommendations. It also points out some directions for further research.

## Chapter Six

### Conclusion

This chapter first summarises the findings of the study. Then it puts forward the answers to the research questions posed so as to carry out the study. Later, it deals with the implications of this investigation. Based on the findings, the researcher has made some recommendations for enhancing EFL education including the examination at the HSC level. The researcher also proposes a washback model which demonstrates the role of different stakeholders, factors and beliefs in mediating positive washback. The chapter continues with suggestions for further research. Finally, it draws conclusion of the thesis based on the findings of the study.

#### 6.1. Findings of the Study in Brief

The study applied the MMR approach to data collection and data analysis. The analysis and discussion of findings of the study are presented in the previous chapter (Chapter Five). In this chapter, the major findings of the study are summarised and presented by themes.

The results, obtained from both qualitative and quantitative data, suggest that the HSC EFL examinations have a strong negative washback on the classroom instructions and other related areas of EFL education such as the syllabus and curriculum, teaching content, teaching methodology, EFL learning, etc. The study has discovered a number of interesting findings that are cross referenced through a number of ways. The results have also revealed that the depth, extent and direction of the effect differed with the affected areas. The contents of teaching seemed to be the area showing changes directly triggered by the test. This was in line with the results of previous studies on washback (e.g. Wall and Alderson, 1993; Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Cheng, 1997) which found the content of language teaching as the area readily susceptible to changes as a result of tests.

The use of COLT and UCOS in combination with the further specific analysis enabled the examination of the communicative orientation of classrooms.

This was an attempt not only to determine the range of activities that might occur in the HSC exam preparation class, but also to identify the amount of lesson time in which the students in the 10 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 in the study allowed for a meaningful comparison of findings.

The key intent of this study was to investigate washback within the context of HSC public examination in English in Bangladesh. The present research was an intensive study which applied a number of data collection instruments. The study began by surveying the literature to try and find a clear definition of washback and its influence on various aspects of language teaching and learning. Considering previous discussions and research, a schedule for the research was designed to include the perspectives of the teachers and their students, as well as detailed classroom observations. Having observed 10 EFL teachers, the present researcher have analysed the collected data and allowed any pattern to emerge. After the classroom observation had been over, the present researcher conducted post-observation interview with the observed teachers.

As outlined in the previous chapter (Chapter 5), this study provides information about the nature and variability of washback. Owing to the various factors and contextual factors underlying the washback phenomenon, the EFL test at the HSC level seems incapable of helping teachers initiate a deeper self awareness of teaching to generate a positive washback on language instructions and students' learning. It is not capable of effecting fundamental teacher conceptual and behavioural change. The results seem to suggest that seeking immediate change in teacher beliefs, knowledge, and behaviour is impractical, which confirms other findings (e.g. Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Richards, 2008; Woods, 1996) that claim that there is often little immediate evidence for change in teachers' practice(s). Drawing on the theoretical framework outlined above (in Chapter Two), the process of initiating teacher change is complex and developmental, and it may develop and emerge over time through the process of teaching and training.

There is also adequate evidence showing that the HSC examination in EFL has had a different impact on different teachers, since great variation was noted in their interpretations of and reactions to washback. The results reveal that while the participants appear to have interacted with institutional contexts (or context of work) in different ways, they seem to respond and react to washback in accordance with the rules and norms that prevail in their institutional contexts. Thus, a conclusion that can be drawn is that both personal teacher factors and institutional contextual factors are involved in the process of washback. In addition to providing information about washback, this research has provided information about how a number of factors are manifested in the washback process.

One important finding is that the interconnected attributes seem to form a core that threads itself through the process of teaching as well as the process of washback. The limited washback in this study might be attributed to the combined reasons of teachers' misconceptions of teaching and learning, inadequate knowledge, insufficient in-service training, and guidance for change. Teachers' pedagogical knowledge was found to affect teacher practice in a deterministic way.

Consistent with the findings of Andrews (2004), Shulman (2000), and Turner (2008, 2009) that view teacher pedagogical knowledge as an essential component of teacher professionalism, this study has shown that this dimension of knowledge exerts a strong influence on how teachers interpret testing innovation and change their practice. This finding also reinforces Richards' (2008) assertion that such knowledge contributes to the formulation of teachers' working principles that guide their teaching behaviour and functions as the source of teachers' practices.

It is discussed that Bangladesh has an educational context which is centralised, knowledge-focused, and examination-based. It also has a socio-cultural environment in which teachers have to cope with large classes and a lack of freedom to choose their own textbooks and content of teaching. Classroom observations have shown that the traditional outdated teaching norms typical of the Bangladesh educational context are still present. The participating teachers in this study were found to hold a knowledge transmission perspective and to adopt transmission-oriented teaching styles.

They also viewed students as passive recipients of transmitted knowledge rather than active participants in the construction of meaning. It appears that the Bangladesh educational and socio-cultural environments may have a part to play in nurturing the above-mentioned teaching patterns and norms. Thus, it was imperative to adopt a socially and institutionally situated view about teacher learning and knowledge and consider the effects of both social and institutional contexts upon teacher practice. As pointed out by other language testing researchers (e.g. Turner, 2005), washback cannot be understood apart from the socio-cultural environments in which it is embedded. Based on the findings of the present study, the researcher supports the very authentic view of Turner (2005). Now, the findings of the study are summarised below by themes.

### **6.1.1. Findings Related to the Syllabus and Curriculum**

Washback has deep relation with the syllabus and curriculum. Test contents can have a very direct washback effect upon teaching curricula. This study reviewed more than one hundred qualitative studies to interrogate how high-stakes testing affects the curriculum, defined here as embodying content, knowledge form, and pedagogy. The findings of this study complicate the understanding of the relationship between HSC (high-stakes) EFL testing and classroom practice by identifying contradictory trends. The primary effect of this high-stakes testing is that curriculum content is narrowed to tested subjects, subject area knowledge is fragmented into test-related pieces, and teachers increase the use of teacher-centered pedagogies. However, this study also finds that, in a significant minority of cases, certain types of high-stakes tests have led to curriculum content expansion, the integration of knowledge, and more student-centered, cooperative pedagogies. Thus, the findings of the study suggest that the nature of a high-stakes test such as the HSC examination, induced curricular control is highly dependent on the structures of the test itself. The other major findings on the syllabus and curriculum are presented below:

1. Maximum teachers and students are not aware of the objectives of the HSC syllabus and curriculum.

2. Though most of the teachers and students are of poor curriculum knowledge, they believe that present the syllabus and curriculum can help the students learn English language.
3. It is found that the teachers do not teach every section and lesson of the prescribed syllabus. They teach those lessons which may be tested in the examination.
4. Maximum teachers and students confirm that they do not care about the syllabus while preparing for the examination. Most of them follow the 'hidden syllabus' (Caine, 2005) such as past question papers, model test papers, etc.
5. It is found that the textbook correspond to the EFL syllabus; the whole syllabus is incorporated in the present textbook *English for Today* for classes 11- 12. The findings show that the respondents feel pressure to cover the syllabus in stipulated two years time.
6. It is found that all items of the syllabus are not tested; some of the items remained untouched and ignored since the publication of the book in 2001.
7. It is found that washback of the HSC examination in English influences the academic behaviour of the teachers and learners.

### **6.1.2. Findings Related to the Textbook Materials**

Washback affects various aspects of teaching and learning which can be categorized as follows: stakeholders, testing and mediating factors, learning outcomes, syllabus and curriculum, materials, teaching methods, feelings, attitudes, and learning, etc. The study finds washback of the HSC EFL test affects the textbook materials; the teachers mostly use those materials that are directly related to their test. Existing washback models/hypotheses contend that tests alone or at least for most of the part trigger the perceived washback effects, but empirical studies show that both testing and mediating factors play essential roles involved in the mechanism of washback effects.

Another significant finding is that both learners and teachers bring model test papers, guidebooks and past question papers in stead of the EFT; they solve the

model questions one by one in the class. Test preparation classes might increase students' scores, but the score gains are not always statistically significant. Moreover, class instruction of exam-specific strategies and non-class instruction factors such as students' initial proficiency, personality, motivation, confidence, and exposure of environment all possibly contribute to a score gain.

Another interesting finding is that there are so far 20 test-related commercially produced are found available in the market. The publishers and distributors visit the colleges and distribute the test-related book among the EFL teachers at free of cost for publicity of their book. Andrews, et al. (2002) also speak of the large role played by published materials in the Hong Kong classroom, citing a previous study by Andrews (1995) in which the teacher respondents were found to spend an estimated two-thirds of class time working on exam-related published materials. It is seen that exam materials are heavily used in classrooms particularly as the exam approaches. Some more findings are given below:

1. Though the authority promised to formulate a "Teacher's Guide" but it is not yet written; therefore, the teachers, especially the novice, face much problem in teaching the text communicatively.
2. A considerable number of teachers do not understand the philosophy/ approach of the textbook.
3. All the teachers seem willing to go along with the demands of the exam (if only they knew what they were).
4. While teaching, the teachers do not communicate the lesson objectives with the learners.
5. It is found that the textbook contains sufficient exercises and opportunities for practising EFL; it is considered as a well-suited textbook; the topics are interesting, yet the learners do not study it seriously.
6. The textbook analysis finds that the textbook contains sufficient exercises for communicative language practice such as pair work, group work, conversation practice, drills, dialogues, etc.
7. The teachers skip certain lessons and exercises of the textbook because they are less likely to be tested.

8. Both the teachers and students heavily rely on the test related materials such as test papers, past questions, and model questions in the EFL classes.
9. The students and teachers believe that if the whole textbook is taught and studied, the students will perform badly in the examination.
10. Thus, the study finds that the washback influences the use of materials in the class towards teaching to the test.

### **6.1.3 Findings Related to the Teaching Methods and Approaches**

The study finds that the teaching method varies teacher to teacher. The EFL syllabus and curriculum desired that the teachers would apply CLT in the class for communicative language teaching; but still, they use the grammar translation method. The mother tongue is vastly used as a medium of instruction. The teachers translate the English text into Bengali, and transmit the knowledge thematically, not from linguistic point of view. Watanabe (2004b, p. 44) notes that ‘students rarely asked questions even during exam preparation lessons’. Cheng (1998) points out that while teachers talk less to the whole class as a result of the revised exam, the teacher talking to the whole class remains the dominant mode of interaction.

1. Many teachers are unable, or feel unable, to implement the recommended methodology. They either lack the skills or feel factors in their teaching situation prevent them from teaching the way they understood they should.
2. Many of the teachers do not like that the students ask any question. It is found that most of the teachers do not encourage and motivate their students to speak English and ask questions.
3. The blending of English and Bengali hinder the practice of target language.
4. Inadequate or no 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.

Another notable theme that has emerged from the findings is that the ‘learner factor’ is considered by teachers to play an essential role in their decisions concerning teaching methodology. In general, teachers blame tests, learner factor, large class, etc. As recounted by the participants of this study, in addition to the

impact of the HSC examination, the ‘learner factor’ also constitutes a constraint on their teaching. Based on their accounts, the factor chiefly involves: 1) learner beliefs, 2) learner proficiency, 3) learner habits, etc.

#### **6.1.4. Findings Related to the Classroom Tasks and Activities**

All the classes observed were found to consist predominantly of materials written for language students; contained a significant number of practice tests; included exam-related activities and incorporated few academic study skills. Four of the classes were found to be examples of a more traditional approach to test preparation, which focused on familiarising students with the test and providing opportunities for test practice both in and out of class.

It is found that majority of the teachers tended to “teach to the test.” It is found more test-related activities (e.g. offering test-taking tips, doing question analysis) in the exam preparation classes. The observed teachers pointed out that they had to change their curricular planning and instruction to a certain extent in order to meet the testing objectives.

The analysis with the UCOS instrument showed that all the teachers spent similar amounts of class time getting their students to analyse their performance on tasks and to identify the areas they needed to improve in:

1. test-taking is much more common in EFL classes;
2. teachers teach test-taking strategies;
3. teachers skip language classes to study for the test;
4. teachers talk more and students have less time available to talk in EFL classes;
5. teachers occupy most of the class time;
6. there is less turn-taking and turns are somewhat longer in HSC EFL classes;
7. less time is spent on pair work in classes;
8. the HSC examination is referred to many times in EFL classes;
9. Bengali is used much more in EFL classes;
10. there is no laughter in EFL classes;
11. the teachers give model test as a means of test preparation;

12. students practice items similar in format to those on the test;
13. students study vocabulary items and grammar rules; and
14. students read widely in the target language.

### **6.1.5 Findings Related to the Practices of Language skills**

Washback of the HSC examination in English affects the practise of integrated skills of English as a foreign language. The questionnaire survey as well as the direct classroom observation finds that two major skills of EFL: listening and speaking are hardly practised in the class. The post- observation interview with the observed teachers suggested that this is waste of time. They said speaking and listening practices will bring no good for the students. Three teachers informed that their students did not prefer to practise, even though they tried to teach them listening. A number of teachers, however, consistently skip over the listening lessons in their textbooks, because they know that listening will not be tested in the exam. Other teachers may 'do listening', but in a way that does not resemble the textbook designers' intentions.

### **6.1.6 Findings Related to the Teachers' and Students' Academic Behaviours and Beliefs**

It is found that the effect of HSC examination in English changes the academic behaviour of both teachers and students. The teachers and learners are now within the circle of test boundary. 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 affect the positive changes (a shift in English language teaching to a more communicative orientation) the test developers intended to create.

The findings summarised above have implications for both language testing research and other types of research (e.g., general education, language education, and educational innovation), for the findings of this study share a number of similarities to those of other research. For instance, one of them is that they all aim at improving teacher practice, classroom teaching, and communicative competence. Another one is that they share a common focus on the 'teacher factor' or 'teacher

role' in the classroom. To be specific, the teachers are seen as the major change agents who play a central role in shaping classroom events (Borg, 2006; Davison, 2008; Davison & Hamp-Lyons, 2008; Turner, 2008, 2009).

The following section discusses the implications of these findings. The areas most influenced by washback are found to be those related to immediate classroom contexts: teachers' choice of materials, teaching activities, learners' strategies, and learning outcomes. The study also reveals that non-test-related forces and factors operative in a given educational system might prevent or delay beneficial washback from happening. Based on the theoretical assumption underlying the definition of washback adopted in this study, many consequences which cannot be traced back to the construct of the test are outside the limits of a washback study.

## **6. 2. Answers to the Research Questions**

In order to facilitate the investigation of washback of the public examination on teaching and learning EFL at the HSC level, the researcher formulated the following research questions. In this section, the research questions of the present study are answered. A research question is the methodological point of departure of scholarly research in both the general education and applied linguistics. The research answers any question posed. The research question is one of the first methodological steps a researcher has to take when undertaking research. The research question must be accurately and clearly defined. Choosing a research question is the central element of both quantitative and qualitative research and in some cases it may precede construction of the conceptual framework of study. In all cases, it makes the theoretical assumptions in the framework more explicit, most of all it indicates what the researcher wants to know most and first.

Based on the research purposes, the study looked at the washback effect of the HSC public examination on the EFL teaching and learning both at the macro level with respect to major parties within the Bangladesh educational context and at the micro level with regard to different facets of classroom teaching and learning. Therefore, the study set up the following research questions to answer:

**RQ<sub>1</sub>**. Does washback of the HSC examination influence EFL teaching and learning?

**RQ<sub>2</sub>.** Does the HSC examination have any washback effect on the syllabus and curriculum?

**RQ<sub>3</sub>.** To what extent does the test content influence teaching methodology?

**RQ<sub>4</sub>.** What are the nature and scope of testing the EFL skills of the students at the higher secondary level?

**RQ<sub>5</sub>.** What are the effects that an examination preparation process can have on what teachers and learners actually do?

**RQ<sub>6</sub>.** What is the effect of the HSC examination on the academic behaviour, feelings, perception and attitudes of teachers and students?

### **6.2.1 Answer to Research Question 1 (R<sub>1</sub>)**

***RQ<sub>1</sub>. Does washback of the HSC examination influence EFL teaching and learning?***

This is a leading research question posed to the study. As mentioned, an MMR approach was applied to data collection and data analysis. To investigate the washback effect, data was collected from a number of sources and a number of ways such as test analysis answer scripts evaluation, in-depth interview with the examiners, direct classroom observation, post observation interview, and questionnaire survey. One important dynamic of washback revealed in the present study reflected test anticipation in general.

Throughout the study, different forms of washback behaviours were observed on teaching and learning. From the classroom observation, it was noticed that teachers frequently used the name of the HSC examination; they were advised their students to prepare themselves; they were found using commercially produced test related materials; they hardly used target language in the class (sections 5.2.1 to 5.2.7).

From the Questionnaire survey, both the teachers and students replied that EFL examination system hindered their teaching and learning. The teachers taught those items that are directly related to the examination, and skipped certain sections that are not tested. The finding of the Q11, Q12, Q13, Q15, Q27 Q28, Q29, Q30 and Q31 answered the present research question. The findings were discussed in the Chapter 5.1 (sections 5.1.3.2.3 to 5.1.3.2.5 and 5.1.5 to 5.1.5.1.2). All the findings

proved that the HSC examination in English influenced classroom teaching and learning negatively.

The findings from the in-depth interviews with the EFL teachers revealed that the teachers believed they should not have taught those items that were not tested. They also considered it simply waste of time, and did not want to take any risks teaching that item. Throughout the whole study, a number of observable evidences were found to answer that washback existed on classroom instructions in general, and the washback negatively impacted. Positive washback can be used to influence the language syllabus and curriculum. As Davies (1990) mentions, washback is inevitable and it is foolish to pretend that washback does not happen. Therefore, in order to prepare students for the examination, the communicative way of teaching will be adopted in our classes and this positive washback helps us change the curriculum the way we want.

Positive washback would result when the testing procedure reflects the skills and abilities that are taught in the course, as, for instance, with the use of an oral interview for a final examination in a course in conversational language use. Therefore, when there is a match between the activities used in learning the language and the activities involved in preparing for the test, it can be said that the test has positive washback. As Brown (2002) states washback becomes negative washback when there is a mismatch between the content (e.g., the material/ abilities being taught) and the test. Tests narrow down the curriculum, and put attention to those skills that are most relevant to testing. The next part shows washback works on the syllabus and curriculum.

### **6.2.2 Answer to Research Question 2 (R<sub>2</sub>)**

***RQ<sub>2</sub>. Does the HSC examination have any washback effect on the syllabus and curriculum?***

The answer to this research question was found in Chapter 5.1.2 (sections 5.1.2.1.1 to 5.1.2.3.2). A number of statistical analyses of data were conducted to draw the results. The findings of a series of questions (Q1-Q7) reflected that teachers did not teach all the contents of the syllabus and curriculum due to test pressure; teachers gave little attention to the communicative competence. Positive

washback takes place when tests induce teachers to cover their subjects more thoroughly, making them complete their syllabi within the prescribed time limits.

A creative and innovative test can quite advantageously result in a syllabus alteration or a new syllabus (Davies, 1990). An examination achieves the goals of teaching and learning, such as the introduction of new textbooks and new curricula (Cheng; 2005). Both groups of respondents confirmed that they were not even aware of the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum; one of the reasons of their ignorance is that the teachers taught to the test, not the syllabus contents. They narrowed down the syllabus and curriculum for the immediate benefit of test preparation. Therefore, it may be concluded that the HSC examination in English has negative washback effect on the syllabus and curriculum.

### **6.2.3 Answer to Research Question 3 (R<sub>3</sub>)**

#### ***RQ<sub>3</sub>. To what extent does test content influence teaching methodology?***

A test will influence how teachers teach; and a test will influence how learners learn (Wall & Alderson, 1993). But their research in Sri Lanka found no evidence of methodology change. While Alderson and Wall (1993, p. 127) said that their Sri Lanka study showed the exam ‘had virtually no impact on the way that teachers teach’. Watanabe (1996) find large differences in the way teachers teach towards the same exam or exam skill, with some adopting much more overt ‘teaching to the test’, ‘textbook slave’ approaches, while others adopted more creative and independent approaches (p, 292).

Some researchers (e.g. Green, 2006, 2007; Johnson, 1992; Nyawaranda, 1998; Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Tan, 2008; Turner, 2006, 2008; Wang, 2008; Cheng, 2004) found that washback influenced the teaching methodology in varied degree. Teacher beliefs are consistent with their prior experience and instructional approaches. There is, therefore, an increasing realisation in the field of assessment that the “teacher factor” is fundamental to the kind of washback effect that takes place in the classroom.

The present researcher found that washback influenced the teaching methodology. A group of questions (Q18-Q26) were asked to the respondents on the methodology issue. The findings of those questions are presented in the Chapter 5.

1.4 (sections 5.1.4.2 to 5.1.4.2.5). Data were collected on a number of issues to observe any change in the EFL classes. The findings were cross-referenced and examined with other questions for the reliability of the findings. The different classroom actions of the respondents proved that washback of the HSC examination influence teaching and learning. These results are also validated by the classroom observation results. During the observation, the researcher found that most of the teachers (except T1 and T6) did not apply the CLT in the classroom; they used the mother tongue as the medium of classroom instruction and translated the text into Bengali, their mother tongue.

The evidence of washback influence on teaching methodology was further proved by the results of in-depth interview with the observed teachers. In replying to the same question, most of the teachers (6 out of 10) said they taught in a way that their students could understand better and they did not consider whatever method it was. The teachers ignored the spirit of CLT, and aims and objectives of the EFL curriculum.

#### **6.2.4 Answer to Research Question 4 (R<sub>4</sub>)**

***RQ<sub>4</sub>. What are the nature and scope of testing the EFL skills at the higher secondary level?***

The present study found that there was no scope at all for testing listening and speaking skills in the present examination system. The grammar, vocabulary, some language elements, reading comprehension, and writing skills were tested in the examination. The survey of Q6, Q26, and Q33-Q37 asked about the practice of the foreign language skills. The findings suggested that listening and speaking were neither tested nor taught.

The analysis of the HSC EFL test found that there were no scope of testing communicative competence, particularly testing of listening and speaking were ignored. These findings were further validated by the results of answer scripts analyses (section 5.3.4). The reality of not testing all the skills of a foreign language further admitted while interviewing with the examiners and observed EFL teachers (sections 5.4.1.1 to 5.4.2.4). It is now well grounded fact that two major skills are not at all tested, and consequently teachers feel uninterested to teach those skills.

This is a very strong observable evidence of negative washback on the classroom practice of all the foreign language skills adequately.

### **6.2.5 Answer to Research Question 5 (R<sub>5</sub>)**

***RQ<sub>5</sub>. What are the effects that an examination preparation process can have on what teachers and learners actually do?***

The learners are the key participants whose lives are most directly influenced by language testing washback. The washback influences the test takers directly by affecting language learning (or non-learning), while the influences on other stakeholders will affect efforts to promote language learning. The test-takers themselves can be affected by: the experience of taking and, in some cases, of preparing for the test; the feedback they receive about their performance on the test; and; the decisions that may be made about them on the basis of the test.

Shohamy et al. (1996) contend that an important test promotes learning, while Cheng (1998) shares a similar finding by saying that tests motivated students to learn but that their learning strategies did not change significantly from one test to another. A recent study by Stoneman (2006), investigated how students prepared for an exit exam in Hong Kong. The result showed that students were motivated more and spent more time in preparing for higher-status exam (IELTS) than the lower-status test (GSLAP), but preparation methods were much the same. The examination preparation activities can influence negatively and positively. A group of questions (Q27- Q32) was to obtain the information about examination preparation activities of the teachers and students. The previous chapter (sections 5.1.5.1 to 5.1.5.3) presented the finding of those questions.

Many research studies reveal that a test affects participants, processes, and products in teaching and learning. Students, teachers, administrators, material developers and textbook writers may be included under the term 'participants'. Tests have impact on the lives of test takers, classrooms, school systems and even whole societies (Hamp-Lyons, 1998). From the above discussion, it can be concluded that the examination preparation process influences both the learners and teachers, and their actions sufficiently.

### **6.2.6 Answer to Research Question 6 (R<sub>6</sub>)**

***RQ<sub>6</sub>. What is the effect of the HSC examination on the academic behaviour, feelings, perception and attitudes of teachers and students?***

Their perceptions, academic behaviour, feelings, and attitudes towards their work are likely to be affected by a test. As mentioned, washback affects various aspects of teaching and learning, such as the syllabus and curriculum, stakeholders, materials, teaching methods, testing and mediating factors, learning outcomes, feelings, attitudes, and learning, etc. The effect of the high-stakes test generates huge pressure for both learners and teachers.

The students feel that the results of the examination will shape their career. They feel embarrassed if they fail in the examination. Most of the learners suffer from anxiety and tension for the examination. Most often they feel pressure from parents to make good results. Thus, their academic behaviours are test-driven; they believe there is possibility of better career. If some students fail in the examination they are insulted and humiliated for all quarters. Most of the teachers also feel pressure from their authority to make the exam results better; the teachers believe that they get feedback from the exam results of their students. Both groups of respondents believe that teaching and learning would take place better if there was no pressure for good results. All the findings prove that negative washback effect influences their (student and teachers) academic and, to a large extent, personal life.

## **6.3 Implications of the Study**

The study shows that washback is a complex phenomenon rather than being a direct and automatic effect. Furthermore, washback exists on a variety of teaching and learning areas (e.g. curriculum, methods of teaching, classroom assessment, student learning, feelings and attitudes of teachers and students); it is also found that washback varied in form and intensity (Cheng 2005) as well as in specificity, length, intentionality and value (Watanabe 2004b). Washback was also found to be broad and multi-faceted, and brought about through the agency of many independent and intervening variables beside the exam itself. These include teachers and students, the status of the subject being tested, resources and classroom conditions, management

of practices in the schools, communication between test providers and test users and the socio-political context in which the test is put to use.

However, while theory and research have so far succeeded in formulating a general framework for the washback phenomenon that involves several components and intervening factors, there is still a need to account for the interplay between them. Actually, an important step forward would be to construct a conceptual model of washback which would provide a synthesis of its multiple components and demonstrate the interaction between them and the factors involved. This would provide a better understanding of the reasons why washback occurs and an explanation of how tests can be designed in order to engineer positive washback.

The present research began with a very broad question about the effect of the HSC exam. As the research progressed, it became clear that the nature of the exam washback was not as straightforward as the language teachers believed. In fact, the findings suggest that test washback is a very complex process. The study showed that the HSC exam could negatively influence teaching and learning, they could not have exclusive power over what is happening in the classroom. Rather other factors, direct or indirect relation to the exam, seemed to be playing a greater role or a role at least as significant as the exam in shaping the classroom teaching and learning and contributing (or not) towards positive washback. The various factors that need to be taken into account when an attempt is made to induce positive washback of high-stakes tests include the following stakeholders: textbook writers and publishers, teachers, students, schools, parents, local education systems and local society. It is also possible that other factors, like mass media (ELT newspapers, newsletters, TV and radio) might have interfered with the authority's efforts to bring about the intended washback effect, but these were not explored in the present study.

However, the above factors, likely to enhance or interfere with the test's intended purpose, do not function in isolation. The picture that emerged from this study is that the influence of the exam at the classroom level is a dynamic and interactive process between the exam, the textbook, the teacher and students, each influencing the other, in varying degrees of quantity and quality. This interaction is in turn shaped by the interrelation of several other related factors which operate within the immediate and broader context, such as test constructors, material writers and publishers, schools, parents and the local education system. These factors can

then be seen as additional agents in helping to engineer or hamper the intended washback of an exam.

The present study has examined washback of the HSC examination, a high-stakes exam, taking as its specific focus teachers, exam preparation materials and learners. The results showed that high-stakes tests, powerful as they are, might not be efficient agents for profound changes in an educational context. While the study reiterates the complexity of investigating washback noted by previous studies, it also provides an indication as to the sources of this complexity that can be traced both inside and outside the classroom context.

The present study proposed a model for promoting positive washback (Figure 6.1). In the model, washback is represented as an open loop process identifying the number of stakeholders and factors involved in the process and attempting to portray the relationship between them. However, despite being a multi-directional relationship among stakeholders, the model, in its visual representation below, is 'simplified' to make it possible to represent it graphically. In the model, the nature of exam washback is circuitous and interactive. Exam washback is indirectly engineered on teaching and learning that takes place in the exam preparation classroom through the understanding of the exam requirements by various intermediary participants.

From the findings of the current study, it is found that exam washback is mediated through commercial exam-preparation materials, which are shaped by the perceptions of the needs of teachers and students by writers and publishers. The exam-preparation materials mediate between the exam intentions and the exam preparation class. The teacher's role is also crucial in the process as they mediate between material and students. Within this process, washback is also mediated by the HSC colleges, and strengthened by the perceptions and understanding of various other stakeholders operating in the wider local community, such as parents, as well as by the local educational system and beliefs in the exam and the language tested.

The study also revealed that the role of parents was crucial in the washback process. Washback to parents was mediated both through the colleges (progress reports and parents' meetings) and manifested in behaviour such as exhorting students to work hard. The findings also revealed that, very often, parents affected students' language motivation (e.g. prompting students to take up learning English

at a young age) and instigated an instrumental disposition towards English. Parents' beliefs about the value of the exam and the language were actually shaped by the local context which recognised the HSC examination as an official language qualification and placed a great deal of importance on learning/mastering the language.

The results of the present study indicate that overcoming the barriers to change is no simple task. It requires the joint efforts of authorities, test developers, students and particularly teachers. Its implications are twofold. On the one hand, the Bangladesh examination authorities and test developers could focus on improving test design to facilitate language teaching and learning. The simple reason, as pinpointed by Muñoz and Álvarez (2010), is that "students' successful performance on assessment tasks greatly depends on how well teachers and test developers design those tasks" (p. 37). As illustrated and exemplified in studies by Colby-Kelly and Turner (2007), Davison, 2008, Davison and Hamp-Lyons (2008), Rea-Dickens (2004), and Saif (2006), considerations and efforts directed at alignment of assessment, curriculum, teaching and learning practices do make a difference.

The results of this study, however, indicated that the HSC EFL test is problematic for a number of reasons. To exercise regulation, it is essential to ensure the validity and reliability of the tests employed. Validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it is intended to measure and not what it is not designed to measure. If what is to be measured is already controversial, the validity of the test is unlikely to be agreed on. Reliability is essentially concerned with how consistently the test does what it is supposed to do. A common test error is associated with the cut-off score. The indication of mastery of certain language abilities rests on reaching the cut-off score. Where the cut-off score of a standard control instrument should be set, or how to determine the cut-off score accurately, is often subjective (Davies, 1990).

This research suggests that for the successful implementation of assessment innovations, the policy makers need to take into consideration the power of beliefs in their planning and strategies. Understanding what types of beliefs lead to desired outcomes and what types of beliefs are stumbling blocks would be of use to help promote positive washback and minimise undesirable negative washback. For example, for a high-stakes test to help teaching and learning, it seems vital for both

teachers and students to believe that the test is functioning as assessment *for* learning as well as *of* learning. Possible negative washback effects that the test is failing to motivate students and that teachers and students are overloaded with assessments would be likely to be minimised if the belief that the assessment is interfering with teaching and learning is reduced.

In this study, the HSC EFL Examination tasks were found not to correspond highly to tasks in the language use (TLU) domain. Thus, it would appear beneficial for the English exam constructors to address issues and problems inherent in the test. As the present curriculum places an emphasis on facilitating students' communicative competence, test constructors need to, as Shohamy (1993) suggests, do their job to ensure the construct of test validity and increase the match between the curriculum and the test. To this end, organized efforts need to be directed to more task-based test designs guided by contemporary language testing theories (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Bailey, 1996). In this way, test papers (question papers) would be designed in such a way that not only knowledge of English, but also the ability to use English, is tested. As Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggested, task characteristics need to be considered in order to ensure that test tasks correspond in specific ways to language use tasks. Evidence needs to be provided to demonstrate that the test score reflects the area(s) of language ability they want to measure.

The results of the study have implications for language testing. Unfortunately, the current language testing system in English classrooms in Bangladesh does not reflect this complex and multidimensional nature of language performance, only measuring the fragmented “knowledge” in English, not the “performance,” or “proficiency” of the students. In addition, this study has some implications for English teacher education in the EFL context in terms how to empower them. As noted earlier, being a “native speaker” or having a “native-like” competence is not a realistic goal for most EFL students to acquire English. The researcher also pointed out that when it is only native speakers of English who are projected as qualified teachers and speakers of English in students' learning/testing environments, their linguistic/cultural boundaries and possibilities might be seriously limited.

From the findings of the current research, important implications can be drawn for policy makers who are involved in educational reform. The commonly

held assumption that intended washback could be brought about just by introducing a new or modified assessment (e.g., Chapman & Snyder, 2000) needs to be altered. Supporting the argument of many researchers in the fields of education and applied linguistics (e.g., Alderson, 2004; Chapman & Snyder, 2000; Fullan, 2001; Shohamy et al., 1996; Wall, 1996; Watanabe, 2004a), this research demonstrated that washback is a complex phenomenon in that it appears to be mediated by certain types of contextual factors and various beliefs held by teachers and students. It is clear that intended washback cannot be promoted by changing a test, without taking mediating factors into account.

A sense of confusion is likely to be reduced if both teachers and students feel that the marking practice is at least perceived to be more consistent. Another way to minimise possible negative washback effects that the assessment is confusing and failing to motivate students is to demonstrate to teachers and students that the assessment is functioning as intended. For teachers, their sense of confusion might be reduced if they feel they have more control over their students' achievement. For "teaching to tests" to be considered positive, both teachers and students need to feel that the role of teachers is to deliver knowledge effectively, and to prepare their students for assessments.

In addition, it would be helpful for test developers to be aware of the conditions for initiating teacher conceptual and behavioural change. In this connection, it would appear important for them to bear in mind that what may possibly affect teachers is not only *what* is included in the test, but also *how* the objectives of the test as well as training is provided to the teachers. As stated above, it would also appear important if test developers are aware that an over-emphasis on the power of tests and absence of attention to teachers' involvement may account for why intended washback did not occur in most studies. To ensure the success of instructional reforms, it is highly suggested that they de-emphasize the power of tests, on the one hand, and encourage teacher engagement, on the other. The goal of analyzing the role of the 'teacher factor' in fostering washback is not to dissuade test designers from using tests as instruments to innovate teaching, but rather to raise their awareness of the important role of this factor in engineering washback so that they may work out better ways to improve the existing test designs.

On the other hand, it would be beneficial if adequate attention were directed at another one of the stake-holders, language teachers. Given the involvement of the 'teacher factor' in effecting teacher behavioural change, consideration needs to be given to all issues and conditions concerning the observable (i.e., practices) and unobservable dimensions (i.e., beliefs) of teaching. As the chief implementers of reforms, it would appear beneficial for teachers to be aware that innovation and change are a necessary part of teacher development (Bailey 1992; Willis & Willis 1996). It would also appear essential that they be aware of the ways that can be used to promote their awareness. In the meantime, it might be crucial that support be provided to them to promote their awareness of the issues relevant to instructional change.

As mentioned above, one salient finding of the study is related to discrepancies and mismatches in teachers' beliefs and actions in the classroom situation. Based on the theoretical framework developed in the study, the discrepancies may be attributable to the interplay of teachers' Beliefs, Assumptions, Knowledge, and Experience (BAKE) network. More specifically, they may be attributed to the incompatibilities between teacher declarative knowledge and their procedural knowledge (working knowledge). In view of the discrepancies, it would be highly important for researchers to be concerned not only with the declarative dimension of teacher beliefs and knowledge (i.e., understanding of CLT, the test, syllabus and curriculum), but also with their procedural dimension (i.e., the underpinnings of CLT).

The objective of teachers reflecting on Beliefs, Assumptions, Knowledge (BAK), according to Woods (1996), is to facilitate teachers' readiness. Based on his account, an awareness of one's own Beliefs, Assumptions, Knowledge (BAK) may make it easier for one to accept others', to understand how they differ, and to decide that the difference can be worked through in areas of conflict. Other researchers (Borg, 2003; Kennedy 1987, Richards & Lockhart, 1994) also suggest ways to promote teacher awareness. Like Woods, they also deemed reflection as a pre-requisite of teacher development and held that teachers should be encouraged to engage in reflection, research, or systematic inquiry. The benefit of reflective teaching, from their interpretation, is that it may allow teachers to make tacit beliefs and practical knowledge explicit. Here, what should be noted is that underlying the

view that underscores the important role of reflection is a constructivist view about learning.

Given the myriad of misconceptions about teaching and learning, the limited English proficiency, and the insufficient knowledge and training that Bangladeshi EFL teachers have, it would appear that reflective activities such as training in English teaching methodology, test and curriculum development, research (i.e., observation, introspection and inquiry), and micro-teaching or peer-teaching might be beneficial to them, for such opportunities may allow them to actively reflect on their beliefs, knowledge, and practices, and then modify and reinterpret them. Furthermore, these reflective activities may also allow them to enhance teacher professionalism. The process of reflection may also allow them to reconstruct their personal theories of language teaching and learning, and recount their dilemmas (Crandall, 200; Freeman, 1998; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Shulman, 1992; Woods, 1996). In addition to the reflective activities, the participants in this study may benefit from opportunities to link theory with practice. To be concrete, they may benefit from hands-on guidance that serves to integrate the constructivist theory with the actual classroom practice.

However, neither guidance nor training is sufficient. Teacher conceptual and behavioural change may involve collaborative and/or autonomous learning. The present researcher would suggest that teachers concentrate on improving their methodological skills to achieve effective teaching. It is hoped that this study can help provide teachers with a basis for reflection about language teaching. Since the current teaching methods adopted by EFL teachers in Bangladesh, as shown in the data of this research, do not enable them to accomplish the objectives of the curriculum developed in 2000, it would prove useful for teachers to modify their instructional behaviours to better meet the students' needs.

There seems to be a need for teachers to be sensitised to the potentially bidirectional nature of washback (either positive or negative). In view of the tendency that they are likely to exaggerate the power of test impact, it would be beneficial if they are aware of the nature of washback as well as the intentions underlying the educational innovation. It might also be beneficial if they are aware that there have already been immense changes in external learning, teaching and testing environment in Bangladeshi EFL education. As mentioned above, there

seems to be a need for teachers to develop their awareness about their own BAKs. It would also be beneficial for them to be aware of the differences in the methodologies that different teachers employ as well as the gap that exists in terms of their perceptions of test impact and its washback effects on them. It is expected that once they see and reflect on the differences and gap in their BAKs as well as in their teaching behaviours, they may be aware of the real problems underlying their teaching practice and probably develop a more reasonable view about their teaching and then be in a position to change their methodologies to lesson the gap.

It would be helpful for teachers to be aware of the urgent need to update their knowledge of language teaching and learning theories, since the traditional transmission model of education still prevails in their classrooms, and language ability is still viewed by some teachers as a set of finite components – grammar, vocabulary, matching, multiple choice pronunciation, etc. Thus, it appears that there is a need that some “input” related to language learning and teaching theories should be provided to them to make them aware that language acquisition concerns more than knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. Above all, their outdated teaching concepts and philosophies might need to be transformed and replaced by more up-to-date ones.

As teachers’ awareness of the above issues is increased, hopefully, they would be motivated to reform their own curriculum and make conscious efforts to modify their English teaching methodologies. With a greater awareness and more accurate perception of the nature of washback effects and the conditions under which they operate, teachers may eventually alleviate negative washback and replace it by positive washback. One way of promoting teachers’ awareness and facilitating their involvement in the change process, as suggested by Davison (2008), Tavares and Hamp-Lyons (2008) and Turner (2008, 2009) is through providing well-tailored guidance, support and training to them. Such guidance and support may trigger their reflection on some of their internal factors as well as the issues that emerged in this study.

In addition, considering the common resistance encountered in various educational innovations as well as the negative perceptions the EFL teachers maintain towards the HSC examination, it would be helpful if more interaction were undertaken between the interpretative processes of the teacher and test developers. It

might be helpful for test developers to give a rationale for carrying out a certain type of change. Meanwhile, it also seems to be of help if the objectives and purposes of the HSC exam in English are made available to all test-takers. With an enhanced understanding of the rationale, objectives and purposes of the HSC English, teachers may reframe their conceptions of the testing reforms.

Instructional change occurs as a gradual progress and it is the product of long-term comprehension of different contexts for teaching. To bring about such a change, the EFL teachers may also need to attain adequate proficiency and build a sound knowledge base. For instance, there seems to be a need for them to enhance their language skills and develop a much more fine-grained understanding of the principles involved in CLT or task-based approaches. In addition to guidance on the testing dimension of change, it appears that teachers are badly in need of guidance to correctly interpret the theories of second/foreign language education, and translate them into effective instructional practice. Students seem to have more pathways to promote positive washback and to reduce negative washback than teachers. The system of assessment is likely to be considered helpful for their learning if students feel that external assessments can be trusted and that learning for assessments is encouraging them to think in new ways. To minimise the likelihood of assessment failing to motivate them, students also need to feel that the assessment system is helping them towards their future goals.

The frontloaded curriculum alignment is practiced in Bangladesh English education. That is, the curriculum is developed first. The test is designed to measure how students have learnt based upon the curriculum. One of problems with frontloading alignment is the poor test quality, in terms of lack of validity and reliability. The main goal of the present curriculum of English education is to promote a communicative syllabus in classroom teaching and learning. The HSC EFL test should be written to test students' communicative competence on the basis of the curriculum desire.

Due to its multiple choice, vocabulary and grammar format and excluding oral and aural test, how students' communicative competence can be assessed is questionable. Thus, finding effective ways to include communicative language goals in oral assessment should increase the match of the curriculum and test. Valette suggests if a new test or assessment instrument is seen as particularly valid, its

availability may exert influence on the statement of desired outcomes and the elaboration of the curriculum" (1994, p. 10). Positive washback is more likely to occur when a curriculum and test are highly matched.

Policy makers are likely to be able to reduce a sense of confusion by modifying the belief that the assessment is interfering with student learning if such a belief is evident among students. It should be recognized, however, that where belief change is required, this is unlikely to be accomplished easily. It will take time and planning. Core values held by some teachers could be threatened by innovation (Fullan, 2001), and they may not feel comfortable even if it was introduced to promote student learning. Thus, teachers should be given sufficient time to learn new ways of teaching. Noble and Smith (1994b) suggested that policy makers should provide teachers with mentoring and a series of professional development courses and/or seminars in order to assist belief change over time.

The current research showed that students' beliefs were influenced by negative images of the new assessment system painted by the media and adults around them. Policy makers would need to allow students and the whole community to adjust their beliefs, when necessary, with multiple opportunities over a prolonged period through publicity and education to learn about the rationale for a new assessment system and its benefits. Such strategies could go a long way to fostering the development of positive beliefs about the new assessment, in turn fostering positive washback.

The present research aimed to build a much needed bridge between the fields of education and applied linguistics in washback research by bringing theories of both fields into one study. The proposed model has demonstrated part of the mechanism of washback, while it has confirmed its complexity as discussed in the relevant literature. Assessment will probably continue to be used around the world as a tool to bring about improvement in teaching and learning. Further understanding of the mechanism of washback can help reduce undesirable negative washback and can help utilise the full potential of the power of assessment to bring about desired educational change. It is hoped that the current investigation might stimulate dialogue among researchers with the aim of contributing to the understanding of the mechanism of washback. It is expected that this study may bring a noticeable changes in the field of English language teaching and learning at the HSC level if

the suggestions put forward in this study are brought into consideration for implementation.

The above situation suggests that tests might not be a good lever for change automatically if this lever is used to set the educational machinery in motion. The machinery, in the sense of the educational systems or teaching practices, will not easily lend itself to control by tests. Under such circumstances, the challenge confronting the testing experts in Bangladesh is to work out a sound testing policy based on rigorous validation research, which will help maximise the effectiveness of English testing for learners. It is hoped that language testing research can ensure that this powerful instrument does not victimise the innocent, but serves its purpose by enhancing the prosperity of the public and society.

## **6.4 Recommendations**

The results of the study suggest that improvements should be made in future reform efforts in terms of test design, teacher training, innovation of the syllabus and curriculum, and research methods. Some recommendations are made with the intent to facilitate the implementation of educational reforms or innovations for promoting positive washback. This section outlines a set of recommendations in relation to the findings of this study.

### **6.4.1 Recommendations for Improving the HSC Examination in English**

From the present study, it is now a grounded fact that the present HSC Examination in English suffers from lack of validity and reliability. The study finds that the HSC examination is a problematic one. Tests objectives need to be clear and transparent. As a means of promoting teacher pedagogical change, they need to reflect a shift from transmission, product-oriented theories to constructivist, process-oriented theories and pedagogies of teaching and learning. Teachers can be in a better position to change their perceptions and behaviours (which conform to its innovation) only when they achieve a good comprehension of the objectives, content and methodology of a test. It does not correspond to the aims and objectives of the

syllabus and curriculum. The contents and test items of both *First and Second papers* cannot test adequately the competence or proficiency in English.

Examinations 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, the same items and contents should not be tested again and again. If the expectation is that student achievement will align itself with the content of examinations, it is critically important that the stated objectives and content be carefully developed. Test objectives should reflect the contribution of knowledge and skill, which they embody to the long-term growth and development of students. On the bases of findings, the researcher would like to put forward some recommendations so that it can promote a beneficial washback on the EFL teaching and learning at the higher secondary level in Bangladesh, and thus, the objectives of the curriculum be achieved. The recommendations are stated below:

1. Provision of testing of listening and speaking skills should be organised in any acceptable format such as TOEFL, IELTS, MELAB, TSE, etc.
2. Insofar as possible, modes of testing (e.g. written, practical, oral) should be diverse to reflect the goals of curricula.
3. The EFL examination items should not be limited to the measurement of recall or recognition of information, but should attempt to measure higher-order outcomes defined in terms of more complex cognitive processes (e.g. understanding, synthesis, application).
4. The EFL examination should assess students' ability to apply their knowledge, not just in scholastic contexts, but also in situations outside school.
5. Examinations, both in content and in difficulty level, should reflect their certification function and provide an adequate assessment of the competencies of pupils who will not obtain a higher-level qualification.
6. The EFL examination performance should be analysed to provide feedback to schools and other stakeholders (e.g. curriculum authorities, etc.).

7. As many teachers as possible should be involved in the setting and scoring of examinations, as these activities provide valuable insights into the demands of examinations which can be applied in teaching.
8. Items such as of questions 11, 12, and 13 in the *First Paper* should be revised and reconsidered because those items, carrying 40 marks, are over credited. Besides, questions 11 and 12 can hardly test any linguistic competence.
9. The question papers (*First Paper & Second Paper*) do not maintain the difficulty level. So, difficulty level of the HSC examination items should be maintained.
10. Repetitions of items should be minimised.
11. The use of teachers' assessment to contribute to grades that their students are awarded in public examinations merits investigation.
12. Testers/question setters and examiners should be trained properly so that they can perform their respective duties in view of communicative language teaching and testing at the HSC level in Bangladesh.
13. Guidelines for EFL examiners should be formulated for examining and scoring the answer scripts.

#### **6.4.2 Recommendations for Curriculum and Textbook Revision**

The HSC curriculum was formulated nearly a decade ago; it was then well-suited for teaching and learning English. But, revision of the curriculum is a continuous process on the basis of needs and demands of students and time. The findings of the study revealed a mismatch of intention and execution between policymakers and implementers. Teachers as implementers did not carry out the intended curriculum. Rather, they conducted classroom instruction based on the context and reality where they were teaching.

An obvious practice of teaching to the test is often referred to as a narrowing of curriculum and instruction. Narrowing of the curriculum and instruction is not easily identified as appropriate or inappropriate. For example, a positive effect is that it guides course of study revisions and lesson planning by emphasizing certain

areas of the curriculum or, in other words, it helps teachers sharpen their focus. However, a negative effect is that it decreases the breadth or depth of content and activities to which students are exposed because the test does not emphasize the content or skills that some activities address:

1. The syllabus contents and form of examination items should exhibit correlations with the EFL testing.
2. The mother textbook *English for Today* for classes 11-12 was written in 2001. So, it is high time the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) authority revised the textbook introducing more current authentic materials, lessons and exercises.
3. The use of commercially produced clone test materials (hidden syllabus) in the class should be discouraged.
4. The syllabus and curriculum contents should be modified and reshuffled after every three years of time because learning needs and context change very rapidly as per the demand of the society.
5. The authority concerned should monitor the teaching and learning activities in the classroom, testing, and check the test related materials whether they enhance EFL learning.
6. The present HSC English curriculum is considered to be a frontloaded one. The whole syllabus of the English curriculum is accommodated in the textbook (*English for Today* for Classes 11-12). Some of the lessons are never tested since it has been formulated; even those lessons are never taught by the teachers because those are complex and thematically uninteresting. Those lessons should be replaced immediately.
7. Testing is an integral part of any curriculum. All formal syllabuses make provision of assessing how much of the syllabus is taught; how much the learners have learned, and how much the curriculum objectives are achieved.
8. The effectiveness of commercial test-preparation materials used for preparation should be monitored or banned so that teachers and learners can be compelled to use the prescribed textbook.

9. The teachers are reluctant to teach the syllabus in the class due to test pressures. They teach the selected topics which are likely to be tested in the examination. The findings of this explanatory case study revealed that there are not so many inconsistencies between the learners' needs, and the textbooks that are available for learning and teaching English language. Therefore, the authority should ensure that the teachers teach the textbook properly.

### **6.4.3 Teacher Training for Promoting Beneficial Washback**

The role of teachers as one of the main stakeholders in the implementation of educational change and curriculum innovation has been the focus of ongoing interest to curriculum researchers, and has been examined extensively in the literature, both conceptually and empirically. This is because teachers, as implementers, determine whether or not curriculum innovation is executed in the classroom as it is intended by policymakers. Teachers are the main implementer of the syllabus and curriculum. McLaughlin (1987) suggested that at the institutional level, teacher training should be offered, and human, financial, and material support should be provided to teachers to facilitate their implementation.

For instance, Carless (1999a) asserts that teachers are the individuals who implement, adapt, reject, or ignore curriculum innovation. It is thus something of a truism that they are the core of the innovation process. Therefore, teachers' decisive roles in the implementation of the curriculum cannot be underestimated. Without their support and genuine involvement in the innovation, any curriculum implementation will stay at a superficial level, with either semi- or even non-implementation. Therefore, the following recommendations are made for their improvement:

1. Future testing innovation endeavours need to be accompanied by ongoing training and/or appropriate teacher guidance and support on assessment and instructional practices over time. As teacher evolution is a transformative process, it takes time for cognitive and behavioural changes to take place. Thus, teacher training for language teachers should provide adequate opportunities to engage them in reflective activities (e.g., classroom research,

action research, classroom observation, team teaching, test and curriculum development), since these activities, as noted by Richards (2008), are the principal sources for constructing a knowledge base.

2. Teacher training needs to help teachers raise their awareness of what their pedagogical knowledge is and whether there is a gap between their pedagogical knowledge and that defined by FL theorists. As discussed above, this is considered to be a crucial step for developing teacher expertise. From Woods' (1996) point of view, teachers' beliefs, knowledge and practice evolve through awareness of these discrepancies and resolution of conflicts. He puts forward the suggestion that teachers be provided with more opportunities to reflect on their teaching and recount their dilemmas. According to him, it is the dilemmas that cause teachers to analyze and reflect on their beliefs, and to consider the various options for achieving their teaching goals. In this regard, rather than viewing conflicts, differences and discrepancies as forces that hinder the processes of change, they should be perceived as an impetus for change and an indispensable part of teacher evolution.
3. Teacher-training programmes need to help teachers increase their awareness of various discrepancies that may exist in their perceptions and behaviours. Meanwhile, guidance needs to be provided to teachers, as suggested by Richards (2008) and Woods (1996), to make their tacit and inaccessible beliefs and knowledge of teaching pedagogy explicit and accessible.
4. Research on washback needs to focus on the longer-term effect of teacher change (i.e., change over time). Owing to the nature of the nested 'teacher factor', research needs to examine the phenomenon of washback in the growing professionalism of the field. Consideration should be given to how teachers' beliefs (cognition underpinning teacher practice) are conceived, how their knowledge structures are formed, and how teachers' beliefs and knowledge inform their practice.
5. The notion of washback needs to be redefined or re-conceptualized. Rather than dwelling on debates over whether a test can induce positive or negative washback, an emphasis should be given to the more complex issue of how a

test interacts with the ‘teacher factor’ in the course of washback. To deemphasize the power of tests, consideration needs to be given to how to secure teacher consent, participation and active involvement in the change process. As discussed in Section 6.2.3 above, apart from the studies conducted by Davison (2008), Muñoz and Álvarez (2010), Tavares and Hamp-Lyons (2008) and Turner (2001, 2002, 2005, 2008, 2009), it appears little attention has been paid to teachers’ active involvement in innovation. However, ‘teacher involvement’ seems to be a factor that should not be overlooked in washback research (Turner, 2008, 2009). Based on Woods (1996), such an over-emphasis on the power of tests and absence of attention to teachers’ engagement may account for why intended washback did not occur in most studies. Therefore, to ensure the success of instructional reforms, there is a need to de-emphasize the power of tests on the one hand and encourage teacher participation on the other. Teacher training provides teachers with innovation of teaching, builds awareness of responsibility, guides how to shape their teaching for the best outcomes, informs of power of tests, etc. Training will persuade teachers to pay serious attention to communicative skills and to teaching learning activities that are more likely to be helpful in the development of such skills. Therefore, teacher training can be considered a powerful tool for generating beneficial washback of examination.

6. Research from general education needs to be drawn on in research on washback. It appears that studies concerning the role of the ‘teacher factor’ in the context of language testing are still scant. The rationale for drawing on other areas of research is that there is a substantial body of literature in these areas that focus on beliefs, knowledge, proficiency, experience, and practice. The insights gained from these areas may help us tease apart the ‘teacher factor’ in washback.
7. Efforts need to be exerted to encourage classroom-based performance assessment (e.g. role plays, interviews) and personal-response assessments (e.g. self-assessments, conferences) (Brown & Hudson, 1998), for these assessments are considered to be a bottom-up process. The application of this

bottom-up, process-oriented assessment approaches may help balance those which are top-down, product-oriented (Colby- Kelly & Turner, 2007).

8. Great importance must be attached to the understanding of the socio-cultural, educational and institutional context in which teaching, learning and testing occur when planning and implementing reforms.
9. Greater emphasis should be placed on alignment of assessment and the central agents of change since it appears that considerations and efforts directed at alignment of assessment, curriculum, teaching and learning practices (as Colby-Kelly and Turner (2007) calls it, 'assessment bridge') do make a difference.

## **6.5 A Washback Model Proposed by the Researcher**

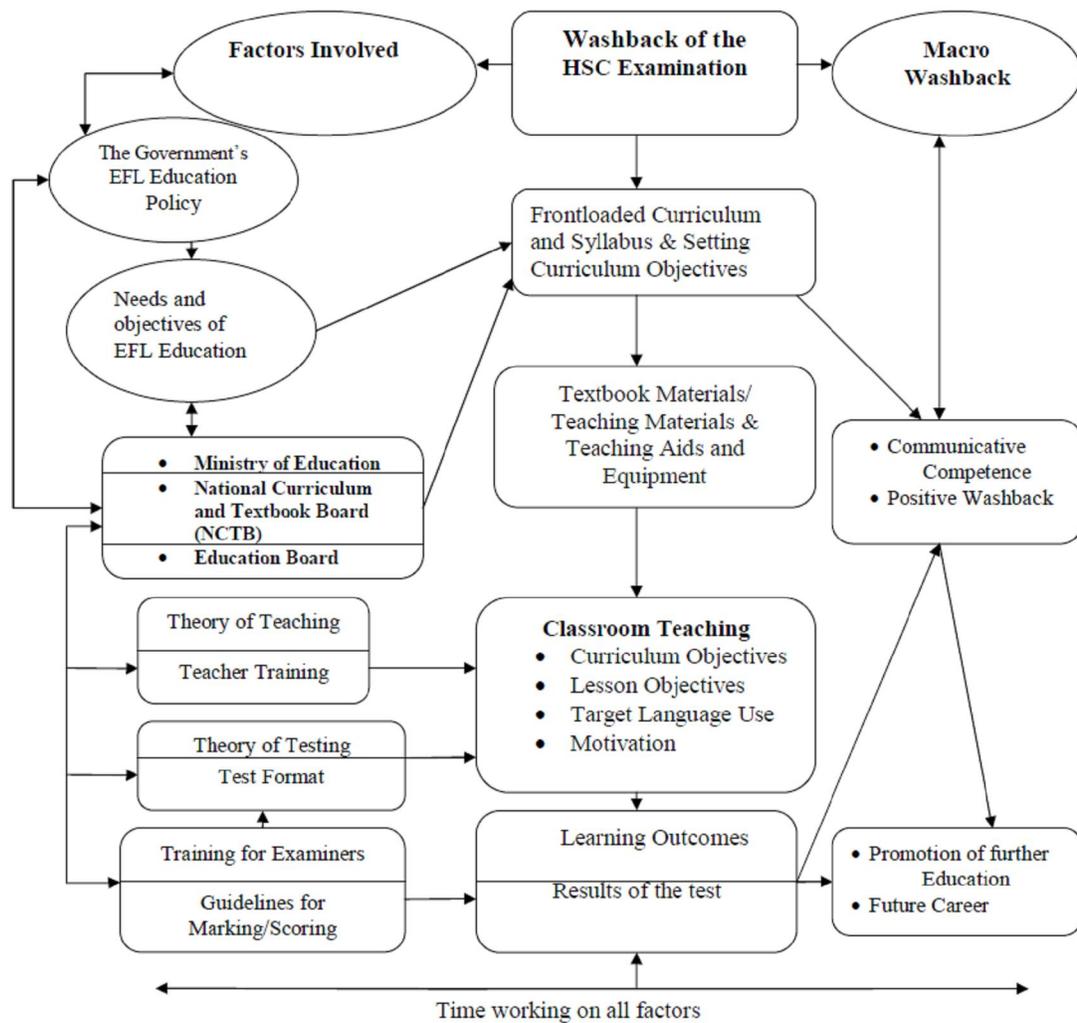
The research investigated the washback of the HSC examination, especially on the teaching and learning English as a foreign language. High-stakes tests have been commonly used in many countries in an attempt to bring about intended positive washback on teaching and learning. The small number of washback studies in applied linguistics to date has led to a limited understanding of washback effects on language teaching and learning, and to a lack of a widely accepted model which illustrates the mechanism of washback in the field. The lack of such a model also applies to the field of education despite decades of test impact research. In going beyond simply identifying the nature of washback, the major contributions of this research have been to help further understand how intended positive washback effects are promoted or hindered by certain contextual factors and beliefs held by teachers and students, and to propose a washback model which demonstrates the role of these factors and beliefs in mediating washback.

Furthermore, the assessment does not seem to affect teachers and students in a uniform manner. This appears to illustrate the complexity of the process of test impact. Numerous factors are likely to be involved in such a process. These are reflected in the recent models of washback proposed in the field of applied linguistics. Such models still do not articulate, however, exactly how various factors play a role in mediating certain types of washback effects. In this thesis, the argument is presented that intended washback effects are more likely to be brought

about, or at least washback may become more predictable, if the link between mediating factors (external and internal) and washback is made more apparent.

Based on the proposed washback models discussed in Chapter 2.5 (sections 2.5.1 to 2.5.1.1.3) and the findings of the present study, the present researcher proposes a model of the washback of the HSC examination on EFL teaching and learning. A test is a part and parcel of a curriculum, but it is an activity outside of the classroom. A number of factors and a group of participants (Hughes, 1993) are directly involved in teaching, learning and testing process. The model below (Figure 6.1) shows how positive washback at multi-level may be generated:

Figure 6.1: A washback model proposed by the researcher



The present researcher proposes the model generated from the previous analysis of washback studies, the major washback models, and current leading

theories such as Alderson and Wall's (1993) fifteen washback hypotheses, Bailey's basic model of washback (1996), Pan (2008), Shih (2007,2009), Green (2003), Tsagari (2009), Cheng (1999, 2002,) and Hughes' trichotomy of washback (1993). In comparison to Bailey (1996) and Cheng (2002) model, which lays out factors that contribute to washback along three specific categories(participants, process, product), this model demonstrates not only that participant, process and product factors contribute to washback – the sub-elements within each factor may interact among themselves or across factors to create a washback effect.

As shown in the model, a macro level positive washback requires a number of direct actions that are related to the classroom activities and testing. The government should adopt EFL education policy and set needs and objectives of language education. To fulfill the EFL education objectives, a frontloaded curriculum is a first and foremost requirement because a curriculum is a vital part of EFL classes. The syllabus and curriculum should set a number of objectives that should be achieved through classroom teaching. In accordance with the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum, textbooks should be written so that it can correspond to the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum. To promote positive washback, classroom tasks and activities should be based on the textbook materials. The arrows in the model (Figure 6.1) indicate how the different factors are interrelated.

The model shows that the teachers and examiners of English should be trained up so that they can effectively contribute to teaching and learning in line with the curriculum objectives. Test format should be based on the classroom practice. The model shows that testing is a subordinate to classroom teaching, and the servant of the syllabus and curriculum. The model shows that the outcome of teaching is communicative competence which is tested in the examination. Time is an important factor for producing teaching and testing results. Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt and Ferman (1996) have pointed out that washback evolves with the passage of time. The product of learning outcomes and test results promote further education and future career.

The model above (Figure 6.1) shows that three entities (ministry of education, NCTB, and Education board) of the government are directly responsible for EFL education in Bangladesh. The model indicates that NCTB is designated to formulate the curriculum and syllabus. The syllabus and curriculum should include a

wide range of topics from both national and global contexts. It provides a focus for the class and sets goals for the students throughout their study. A curriculum also gives students a guide and idea to what they will learn, and how they have progressed when the course is over.

The model corroborates what Shih (2007, p.137) has mentioned that “any given test needs research tailor-made to examine its washback”. It also expands upon the model proposed by Shih (2007), which examined how multiple factors may variably impinge on washback of student learning only. In contrast, this model shows very distinctly how very specific factors, and combinations of factors drive the washback effect on both teaching and student learning: what teachers decide to implement in their classrooms relative to a high-stakes exam inevitably impacts how students respond to it, meaning that the two are inextricably linked.

The results of this study suggest that in educational systems such as the one present in Bangladesh, looking at only one or the other presents an incomplete profile of the washback effect of any given high-stakes test or examination. It also adds a dimension that was missing in the previous washback models suggested by Bailey (1996), Cheng (2002), Pan (2008), Saif (2006), and Shih (2007) – the dimension of time. The model that the present researcher is proposing is grounded in empirical evidence showing the effect of time on washback at two levels. The model suggests that examining the washback effect at different periods of implementation shows a different washback profile in terms of teaching and learning. Details of the procedures of positive washback are reflected in the proposed model. It is expected that HSC examination may promote macro-level positive washback if the above model is properly followed and implemented.

## **6.6 Suggestions for Future Research**

This research has extended the understanding of the mechanism of washback. Future research, however, could expand on certain aspects. Further research is needed of “a phenomenon on whose importance all seem to be agreed, but whose nature and presence have been little studied” (Alderson and Wall, 1993, p. 115). The study has highlighted a number of areas where further research is needed. The evidence that examination preparation courses change over time

supports the inclusion of a longitudinal dimension into future washback studies.

Alderson 1998 summarises the need for future research:

In an ideal world ...the way teachers prepare students for examinations would look no different from how they teach every day, and how they teach every day would match both the aims and the methods that the examinations intend to inculcate, and the methodology that the textbooks and the teacher education courses advocate. However, it is absolutely clear that teachers will indeed engage in special test preparation practices, and therefore it is important to consider what best practice in test preparation should look like.

Considering the complex nature of washback, and in view of what was found in this study (that exams alone have a limited impact on how teachers teach), the present researcher is now in a position to make a few suggestions for future research. He suggests a shift of focus from discussions of the existence or nature of washback in the field to the study of the role of the internal factors (e.g. the 'teacher factor') as well as of the external factors (e.g. the 'learner factor') in the process of washback. Intensive research should also be carried out on the washback effect on the syllabus and curriculum, teaching materials, teaching method, etc. Another avenue that has not been explored in the present washback research is the use of student test scores to measure washback. Although the present study conducted the test analysis as one of instruments of the research, it requires more exclusive and thorough study involving question paper setter and more examiners. It would be challenging to measure the actual extent of washback by simply calculating the test means for students.

In addition to asking whether washback exists or not, and whether it is negative or positive, it should first be asked how a test can be developed to contribute to fundamental teacher methodological changes. Future studies could integrate teacher beliefs about personal constraints within the context of language instructional innovation, giving teachers opportunities to discuss and reflect not only about their beliefs about teaching, learning and how to teach, but also about personal constraints, dilemmas and challenges encountered in carrying out instructional practice. In order to understand the teacher washback behaviours more thoroughly within foreign language classes, studies need to be conducted in classrooms at different levels.

According to Richards and Farrell (2005) and Woods (1996), stimulated recall would give a clearer picture of what can trigger reflection. They view it as an appropriate method for revealing the underlying beliefs or motives of teachers. According to them, this method may allow teachers to describe or articulate what they know about teaching and learning and how they know it. Thus, it would be beneficial for future research to conduct studies using this method to further examine the values and beliefs underpinning teachers' classroom practice.

As mentioned in Chapter Five, this study has chosen to examine some aspects of the 'teacher factors' (i.e., teacher BKEs). In this regard, it would be imperative and informative if other aspects are integrated into future research. One suggestion is that future research can broaden the scope to include aspects such as teacher proficiency, teacher background, teacher motivation, etc. In order to understand the teacher washback behaviours more thoroughly within foreign language classes, studies need to be conducted in classrooms at different language levels. Conducting the present study in an intermediate language classroom at the secondary level to determine if there are notable differences between the two levels could increase the generalizability of the present study.

The results of the study have demonstrated that there are several other factors which need exploring. Therefore, more extensive studies need to be conducted to explore how various forces are combined to produce varying cases of washback. In addition, future research needs to further examine the 'student' variable in washback. In fact, this is a concern commonly shared by other researchers (e.g. Alderson, 2004; Bailey, 1996; Messick, 1996; Muñoz & Álvarez, 2010). They all hold that for beneficial washback to take place, the student role and/or student awareness of examination objectives and their connection to educational goals must be taken into consideration.

When considering other studies which focus on the perspective of the teacher, such as Watanabe (1996) and Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), the benefit of observing teachers teaching both a test preparation and a non-test focused course with students at a similar language level is significant. This would help identify whether the methodology a teacher employs is particular to teaching test preparation or is also the approach they apply to other teaching situations.

Future research should gather evidence from different populations and high-stakes tests so that the phenomenon of washback of public examinations can be understood more thoroughly. Some studies have suggested that student factors contribute to explaining how washback of public examinations influences how students learn and how different types of learning attitudes might indirectly influence the way teachers teach (Cheng, 1999). Other studies pointed out those studies of washback effect on different language tests, across settings, across cultures, and across language backgrounds, increase future generalizability regarding washback effect of public examinations on language education (Saif, 1999). Replications may provide greater generalizability regarding washback of public examinations.

A high proportion of the interviewed teachers indicated that they were concerned about their students' abilities when developing their lesson plans. Another noticeable proportion the interviewed teachers revealed that the constraint of time and Education Board policy had an influence on their curricular planning and instruction. Therefore, other variables, including students' abilities, time and policy should be included in future studies.

To the best of the present researcher's knowledge, this research was the first to demonstrate exactly how washback was mediated by a number of teaching learning factors and beliefs. Obviously, further investigation is necessary to determine whether the patterns identified can be generalised to other settings. The current research also found that there were more pathways to positive and negative washback effects for students than for teachers. That is, there were more opportunities to promote positive washback, while there were also more possibilities for negative washback where students were concerned. This was an interesting finding which merits further investigation.

While the influence of beliefs in washback was identified in the current research, one might argue that the influence could also work the other way (i.e., teachers' and students' experience with assessment could affect their beliefs). This line of inquiry was beyond the scope of this research, but in reality, it would be very likely to see interactions between beliefs and washback. It would be a chicken-or-egg question, but worth exploring; the future researchers should forward to unfold the real truth that may generate positive washback on the EFL teaching and learning

in Bangladesh in general and at the HSC level in particular. Although the present research established a link between washback and students' expected (i.e., perceived) achievement, investigating a link between washback and students' actual learning outcome was also beyond the scope of this research. It would be useful for future research to investigate the relationship between the two, given that educational reform through standards-based assessment tends to aim explicitly to improve the learning of students of all abilities.

## 6.7 Conclusion

Washback is a challenging phenomenon to research and measure. Given the variables present in the classroom, this challenge persists in washback research. Although this study focused primarily on teaching and learning, teacher behaviours in the classroom, the investigation into the students' perceptions of washback and the students' behaviour demonstrating washback, it covered some other domains (e.g. the syllabus and curriculum, materials, teaching methods, etc) which are affected by washback. Every teacher wants his/her students to perform well on tests as it is a reflection in his/her teaching. This causes negative washback

The important factors influencing changes in teachers' behaviours reflect teachers' beliefs, and the students' desire to have accurate information about the testing programme. Teacher beliefs influence teacher behaviours deeply no matter how the curriculum, course objectives, and the testing programme work together. Students want information about the testing programme because they want to be well prepared for the test as a result of the classroom instruction. This study supports the notion that in order to affect the instruction that occurs in the classroom and create positive washback, direct guidance and training must be part of a teacher's professional development. Even experienced teachers need professional development training in the areas that are new to them when teaching a course for the first time. As washback studies by Cheng, (2002), Watanabe (2004), and Shohamy et al. (1996) have indicated, tests often provide teachers with new reasons for new activities; however, they do not necessarily show the teachers how to incorporate these activities into the curriculum.

Additionally, the tenets of past traditional language learning paradigms and their strong influence on present teacher behaviours as suggested in this study must not be ignored. Whether the teachers in this study were once students in a foreign language programme that was heavily influenced by grammar, vocabulary, multiple choice questions, matching, and structure, or whether they were trained or worked in a programme that influenced these areas in a previous teaching assignment, grammar appear to strongly influence the teachers' current instructional practices.

This study shows that washback behaviours focusing on grammar, vocabulary, matching/rearranging, and structure are evident in instruction, regardless of the design of a language programme, the format of the courses and the materials, and the demands of the testing programme. Watanabe indicated similar teacher behaviours in his washback study (2004b), as it seems that teachers finds a place in their repertoire for specific and direct grammar instruction. Focusing attention on this aspect, especially for first time teachers in an intermediate level, skill focused language class, can assist controlling authority as they help teachers to be more effective. More efficient teachers mean happier and more successful students.

Tests are the part and parcel of any curriculum. Tests can never be eliminated from educational institutions; therefore, it is best to embrace them and their power. Only then might they be used as a tool to bridge the gaps in instruction, and to train teachers not only to meet the demands of tests, but also meet the demands of their students, and affect their students' achievement. Tests are only one component affecting change in the classroom; guidance and professional development are also necessary to the process. With focused guidance and professional development, this study implies that progress can be made toward creating positive washback from tests in the classroom both in terms of teacher behaviours and student behaviours. Tests can drive change, and if the intention is to make changes to foreign language instruction, not only at the intermediate level, but at all levels, it must be done consciously. Efforts must be taken to help teachers encourage positive washback and reduce negative washback.

In higher secondary education (the context of this study), language education programmes must focus on preparing teachers to teach well and teach effectively. Teachers at this level may need adequate training to balance their limited experience, and a testing programme can provide the springboard to this training.

Additionally, teachers also exhibit positive washback behaviours, and thus set the example for the students that skills are the driving force in the classroom, as they happen to complement the tests.

With respect to the literature on washback, the inter-disciplinary, mixed methods approach used in this study, which responds to calls from previous research conducted in this domain. It demonstrates that, indeed, such an approach may provide an interesting avenue for testing apart the complex interactions and effects involved in washback. A positive consequence of washback behaviours that reflect skills can be successful test performance. The findings of the study contribute to knowledge about an as yet unexplored context in the washback literature. It demonstrates the uniqueness of interactions between factors within each educational context in creating specific washback effects: the model of washback proposed may inform research designs of washback in novel contexts.

As indicated at the beginning of this paper, the HSC examination in English has been widely accused of its “adverse effects” (so-called “negative washback”) on teaching and learning teaching and learning. When the results of this study are compared to research carried out in other EFL contexts, two main characteristics are found to exist in current testing and educational innovations. One characteristic relates to the way EFL teachers in Bangladesh perceive and react to testing and ELT innovation. This is similar to that exhibited in other contexts. Such a characteristic reflects the fact that while tests in different contexts may affect teaching and learning at varying degrees, and moreover washback may take different forms, the rules or mechanisms underlying the washback phenomenon as well as the complexities implicit in it seem to make little difference.

Currently, new technologies and changing foreign language education environments provide meaningful and novel ways to incorporate communicative language tests, a real challenge in the past, into EFL curricula. In fact, this phenomenon draws increasing attention with contemporary changing perspectives of the definition of literacy: from the conventional reading and writing focus to the more functional and current electronic literacy for students in a future global environment. In line with these shifting trends, the results of this study highlighted some important issues and posed several important recommendations for future research on English competence assessment in EFL contexts. This study found that

certain characteristics of test takers might produce a significant influence on test results during an oral English test. Therefore, this research recommends that a multifaceted effort be made to ensure that a test functions fairly across various test takers, regardless of their individual backgrounds.

This study also suggests sharing ownership of testing among test makers, test takers, test users, and examiners which allows all of interested parties to have an opportunity to benefit appropriately from a test. For example, test users collect psychometric information in accordance with the purposes of test use such as selecting or placing candidates. Testers use the psychometric information to develop better tests. Test takers also use psychometric information to improve their ability of interest. Thus, as testing is an interlectual property of various stakeholders, profit motives for testing should not be conflict each other. The study has corroborated previous research and studies that call for a focus on the appropriate use of EFL test formats according to the purposes of the tests and the characteristics of the individuals who take certain speaking tests in English.

The findings of this study have allowed various insights into test preparation classrooms and the HSC examination preparation classes in particular. The researcher hopes that future studies on washback will be carried out to further add to the current picture of the power of language tests to influence those most intimately affected by them. In fine, it is hoped that the recurring features implicit in the change process discussed in this study will provide the basis for improvement for further innovation endeavour. It is also expected that this study will give a strong impetus to the study of the potential areas in washback in future to help generate beneficial washback on teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

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## Appendix- 1A

### Student Questionnaire

#### Department of English Jahangirnagar University, Dhaka

The Questionnaire has been developed for the purpose of a research project in the Department of English at Jahangirnagar University, Savar, Dhaka. The questions here are related to the “Washback of the Public Examination on Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh”. The researcher gives you full assurance that the information will be used only for the research purpose, and will be strictly kept confidential.

Thank you for cooperation!

Put a tick mark (√) in the box next to each item, which best expresses your opinion:

		<b>Key: Strongly Agree (SA)= 5; Agree (A)=4; No Opinion (N)=3; Disagree (D)=2; Strongly Disagree(SD)=1</b>				
<b>A</b>	<b>Curriculum and Syllabus</b>	SA	A	N	D	SD
		5	4	3	2	1
1	I am aware of the objectives of the HSC syllabus and curriculum.					
2	The present HSC syllabus and curriculum help me learn English.					
3	The teacher teaches us every section in the textbook although some sections are unlikely to be tested in the exam.					
4	I do not care about the syllabus and curriculum while preparing for the examination.					
5	I feel pressure to cover the syllabus before the examination.					

6	The HSC examination tests my overall competence in English (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)					
7	The teacher gives little attention to practicing the test items necessary for the examination.					
<b>B Textbooks and Materials</b>						
8	The teacher does not tell us the lesson's objectives while teaching.					
9	I think the textbook covers sufficient exercises and opportunities for practicing EFL.					
10	I do not seriously study the textbook materials.					
11	The teacher skips certain sections in the textbook because they are less likely to be tested in the examination.					
12	The textbook, <i>English for Today</i> (for classes 11-12) is well-suited to developing communicative competence in English language.					
13	I rely on the test-related materials, such as test papers, past questions, and model questions to take preparation for the examination.					
14	I find interest in studying the textbook materials.					
15	If we study the whole book ( <i>English for Today</i> ), we will perform badly in the final examination.					
16	The teacher uses newspaper articles, radio and television news bulletin, texts of real life incidents, etc. for teaching us English language.					
17	The teacher does not use any modern equipment to teach the English language skills.					
<b>C Teaching Methods</b>						
18	The teacher considers whether we can understand and follow his instruction.					
19	The teacher teaches and explains the text in					

	English.					
20	The teacher encourages us to ask questions during the class.					
21	The teacher encourages us to speak English in the class.					
22	The teacher uses Bengali along with English to make us understand better.					
23	The teacher teaches whatever he thinks important to teach, no matter whether it is important or not for the examination.					
24	The teacher teaches us the meaning and theme of the topic by explaining the texts line by line, and giving examples.					
25	The teacher does not make us practise how to learn and speak English language but makes us practise how to answer questions in the examination.					
26	My examination results will indicate my language competence and proficiency.					
<b>D</b>	<b>Classroom Tasks and Activities</b>					
27	We ignore the task and activities that are not directly related to passing the examination.					
28	The teacher gives us model tests before the final examination starts.					
29	We spend more time practicing grammar because grammar is more likely to be tested in the exam.					
30	My teacher makes us practice and solve the questions of the past examinations.					
31	We give little concentration on learning English language due to examination pressure.					
32	My teacher gives us guidelines on how to answer the questions in the examination.					

<b>E</b>	<b>EFL Skills and Elements</b>					
33	We practise the EFL skills and elements as per the teacher's design and decision.					
34	Listening is practiced in the class.					
35	Speaking is practiced in the class.					
36	Reading is practiced in the class.					
37	Writing is practiced in the class.					
<b>F</b>	<b>Beliefs, Attitudes, and Perception Related to the Test and Teaching</b>					
38	My parents pressure me to make good results in the examination.					
39	Learning English is more difficult than obtaining good grades in the examination.					
40	I get feedback on my learning from the examination results.					
41	I feel tension for the test preparation.					
42	The present examination system helps me improve language proficiency.					
43	I could learn English better if there were no pressure for good results in the examination.					
44	The results of my HSC Examination will influence my future career.					
45	I may be frustrated if I fail or perform badly in the examination.					

## Appendix-1B

### Teacher Questionnaire

#### Department of English Jahangirnagar University, Dhaka

The Questionnaire has been developed for the purpose of a research project in the Department of English at Jahangirnagar University, Savar, Dhaka. The questions here are related to the “Washback of the Public Examination on Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh”. The researcher gives you full assurance that the information will be used only for the research purpose, and will be strictly kept confidential.

Thank you for cooperation!

Put a tick mark (√) in the box next to each item, which best expresses your opinion:

<b>Key= Strongly Agree (SA)= 5; Agree (A)=4; No Opinion (N)=3; Disagree (D)=2; Strongly Disagree(SD)=1</b>						
<b>A</b>	<b>Curriculum and Syllabus</b>	SA	A	N	D	SD
		5	4	3	2	1
1	I am aware of the objectives of the HSC syllabus and curriculum.					
2	The present HSC syllabus and curriculum can enhance EFL teaching and learning.					
3	I teach every section in the textbook ( <i>English for Today</i> for classes 11-12) although some sections are unlikely to be tested in the examination.					
4	I do not care about the syllabus and curriculum while teaching my students.					
5	I feel pressure to cover the syllabus before the final examination.					

6	The HSC examination tests the overall competence of my students in English (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).					
7	I give more attention to teaching to the syllabus opposed to practicing the test items.).					
<b>B</b>	<b>Textbooks and Materials</b>					
8	I follow and communicate the lesson objectives with the students while planning my lessons.					
9	The textbook ( <i>English for Today</i> ) covers exercises that the curriculum has claimed.					
10	I think my students do not seriously study the textbook materials.					
11	I skip certain topics in the textbook because they are less likely to be tested in the examination.					
12	My textbook ( <i>English for Today</i> ) is well-suited to developing the students' communicative competence.					
13	I rely on test papers and sample questions to prepare my students for the examination.					
14	I find interest in teaching textbook materials.					
15	If I teach the whole textbook ( <i>English for Today</i> ), my students will perform badly in the HSC examination.					
16	I use authentic materials along with the textbook for the students' practice of English language in the class.					
17	I use modern aids and equipment to teach and practice English language skills.					
<b>C</b>	<b>Teaching Methods</b>					
18	I teach in a way that my students understand everything.					
19	I teach and explain the text in English.					

20	I encourage my students to ask questions during the class.					
21	I encourage my students to speak English in the class.					
22	I use Bangla along with English to make my students understand better.					
23	I teach whatever I think important to teach, no matter whether it is important or not for the exam.					
24	My role as an English teacher is to transmit knowledge to my students through explaining texts and giving examples.					
25	I do not make my students practise how to learn and speak English language but make them practice on how to answer questions in the examination.					
26	I believe that the test score in the HSC examination in English is an appropriate indicator of a student's English ability.					
<b>D</b>	<b>Classroom Tasks and Activities</b>					
27	I ignore the task and activities that are not directly related to passing the examination.					
28	I give model tests to the students to do better in the final examination.					
29	I spend more time teaching grammar because I think grammar is more likely to be tested in the examination.					
30	I make my students practise and solve the questions of the past examinations.					
31	The examination discourages me to teach English language.					
32	I teach test-taking strategies, especially when the examination date gets closer.					

<b>E</b>	<b>EFL skills and Elements</b>					
33	The examination influences my decision on which language skills are more important to be taught.					
34	Listening is practiced in the class.					
35	Speaking is practiced in the class.					
36	Reading is practiced in the class.					
37	Writing is practiced in the class.					
<b>F</b>	<b>Beliefs, Attitudes, and Perception Related to the Test and Teaching</b>					
38	I feel pressure from my authority to improve my students' test score.					
39	My students can score good marks without improving their English language proficiency.					
40	I get feedback on my teaching from the examination results.					
41	My students suffer from anxiety and tension for the examination.					
42	The present examination system helps my students improve language proficiency.					
43	I could teach English better if there were no pressures for good results in the examination.					
44	Examinations influence my students' future career.					
45	I feel embarrassed if my students fail or perform badly in the examination.					

**Appendix-2A**

**Modified- Part -A of the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching**

**COLT Part-A**

1a	1b	2a	2b	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES AND EPISODES	PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION			CONTENT										CONTENT CONTROL			STUDENT MODALITY					MATERIALS													
					Class	Group	Indiv.	Manaq.	Language										Teacher/Text	Teacher/Text/Stud.	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Type		Source										
									10	11	12a	12b	12c	12d	13	14	15	16									17	Text	Other	26	27	28	29	30	31	32			
					3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12a	12b	12c	12d	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	

**Classroom Observation Schedule – HSC EFL Classroom**









## Appendix-3A

### The Syllabus and Curriculum Analysis Checklist

1	Did the HSC English syllabus and curriculum emphasise the learners' needs?
2	Did the HSC English syllabus and curriculum set goals and objectives?
3	Did the curriculum advocate teaching methods and approaches to be used in the EFL class?
4	Did it put emphasis on communicative competence?
5	Did it suggest sufficient tasks and activities for enhancing communicative competence?
6	How did the present HSC English curriculum treat EFL testing?
7	What procedures were used to determine the contents of a language programme?
8	How could learners' needs be determined?
9	Did it monitor understanding of spoken language by asking questions, seeking clarification, etc.?
10	Was there any scope of reading for literary experience?
11	Was there any scope of reading to be informed of current events such as technology, discoveries, etc?
12	Did it offer and display expanding vocabulary items?
13	Is it possible and feasible to turn EFL classrooms into whole-person events, where body and soul, intellect and feeling, head, hand and heart converge in action?
14	Could EFL learning be a satisfying activity in itself, in the here and now of the classroom?
15	What adventures and challenges are possible under the very conditions of English learning?
16	What was suggested to be done to create situations and scenarios where communication in the target language could be more meaningful?
17	What are the roles of teacher, learners, topic and input in such scenarios in the present English syllabus and curriculum?
18	Can cultural awareness be taught under the present syllabus and curriculum?

## Appendix-3B

### Textbook Analysis Checklist *English for Today for classes 11-12*

1.	Does the textbook correspond to the HSC EFL syllabus and curriculum?
2.	Does the textbook contain exercises for practising the all skills of EFL?
3.	Do the exercises encourage group work, pair work, and individual work?
4.	Are the topics and tasks interesting?
5.	Are the lessons relevant to day to day activities?
6.	Are the instructions clear?
7.	Is the presentation stereotyped and activity boring?
8.	Are the activities student- centred rather than teacher oriented?
9.	Is the textbook appropriate for the HSC level of students and the context?
10.	Is traditional grammar teaching is avoided?
11.	Are the grammatical rules presented in a logical manner and in an increasing order of difficulty?
12.	Are there enough guidelines and hints for the student?
13.	Is it possible for the students to use the textbook on their own?
14.	Is the objective expressed in each lesson or unit?
15.	Does the title of each lesson indicate the aim of the lesson?
16.	Is the sequence of the sections, units, or lessons outlined?
17.	Are the new vocabulary words introduced in a variety of ways?
18.	Are the new vocabulary words repeated in sequential lessons in order to facilitate the reinforcement of their meaning and use?
19.	Are there, in the lesson, exercises that develop comprehension and test the student's knowledge of main ideas, details, and the sequence of ideas?
20.	Do the exercises develop meaningful communication by referring to realistic activities and situations?
21.	Are appropriate visual materials available?
22.	Are the illustrations clear, simple, and free of unnecessary details that may confuse the learners?
23.	Are the illustrations printed close enough to the text and directly related to the

	content, to help the learner understand the printed text?
24	Does the lesson mention any topic?
25	Does the lesson provide authentic printed texts (newspapers/ magazine articles, ads, poems, short stories, etc) that have engaged content and tasks?
26	Is the textbook's content obviously realistic, i.e. taken from L1 material not initially intended for ELT purposes?
27	Are different religious and social environments represented?
28	Does the author/s share the linguistic background of its learners?
29	Is the new knowledge connected to the previous lessons?
30	Does the lesson indicate what students should know and be able to do?
31	Does the lesson engage students to use the target language to acquire new information on topics of interest?
32	Does the lesson describe sequence of instructional activities, and assessment?
33	Are teachers given techniques for activating students' background knowledge before reading the text?
34	Does the lesson provide teacher with means for involving students to exercise, practice, test, and review vocabulary words, and grammar?
35	Has the first language a role in teaching foreign language?
36	Is the content appropriate for the students to learn?
37	Are the instructions and examples adequately explained and illustrated for the students?
38	Is it possible to set up groupings varied in response to the nature of learning, i.e., small heterogeneous groups for interaction or cooperative learning, and homogeneous groups for working on achievement or interest?
39	Are the exercises relevant to every day activities?
40	Are the learning opportunities real, and rich in ways that promote students' engagement and interest?
41	Do the activities enable students to apply their knowledge to practical and real-world situations?
42	Do the activities enable students to be creative?
43	Does the book contain lessons on modern means of communication and innovation of science?
44	Does the book contain lessons especially for exam practice

45	Is the lesson conducive to the students' self-assessment?
46	Are the factors of performance, task and project accessible through the lesson?
47	Can the textbook be termed as well-suited for learning English as a foreign language?
48	Has the textbook given any guidelines for the preparation of the HSC examination?
49	Does the textbook provide any tips and advice for the students?
50	Should the contents of the book be changed now?

## Appendix-3E

### Test Evaluation Principles and Guidelines

#### A. Validity and Reliability

**Validity:** Validity of a test score interpretation can be used as part of the TFF when the following evidence is collected.

- **Criterion-related validity evidence-** this type of evidence (sometimes described as *criterion validity*) refers to whether the test scores under consideration meet criterion variables such as school or college grades and on the job-ratings or some other relevant variable.
- **Concurrent validity-** the test scores correlate with a recognized external criterion which measures the same knowledge or ability.
- **Construct validity-**the extent to which a test measures the construct it intends to measure.
- **Content validity-** the extent to which test content represents the course of study.
- **Face validity-** the extent to which users consider a test to be an acceptable measure of the ability they wish to measure.
- **Predictive validity-**the extent to which tests result be considered as a measure for real-life or indicator of proficiency in English.

**Reliability:** This type of evidence refers to the reliability or consistency of test scores in terms of consistency of scores among different testing occasions (describes as *stability evidence*), among two or more different forms of a test (*alternate form evidence*), among two or more raters (*inter-rater evidence*), and in the way test items measuring a construct functions (*internal consistency evidence*).

- **Relevance:** the extent to which it is necessary that students are able to perform the tasks.  
**Authenticity:** the extent to which the situation and the interaction are meaningful and representative in the world of the individual user.  
**Balance:** each relevant topic/ability receives an equal amount of attention.

### ***B. Testing of language skills***

1. To what extent different skills (e.g. listening, speaking, reading and writing) of English language are tested in the HSC examination?
2. To what extent the linguistic elements (e.g. vocabulary items, grammar, etc) are tested in the HSC Examination?
3. To what extent the inherent knowledge are tested?
4. Is the HSC examination in English a reliable test?
5. Is the HSC examination in English a valid test?
6. To what extent the testee was able to complete his/her role in the communicative task assigned?

### ***C. Principle***

The following general principles are maintained:

- ***Principle 1:*** A test ought to be fair to all test takers, that is, there is a presumption of treating every person with equal respect.
- ***Principle 2:*** A test ought to have comparable construct validity in terms of its test-score interpretation for all test takers.
- ***Principle 3:*** A test ought not to be biased against any test taker groups, in particular by assessing construct-irrelevant matters.
- ***Principle 4:*** A test ought to bring about good in society, that is, it should not be harmful or detrimental to society.
- ***Principle 5:*** A test ought to promote good in society by providing test score information and social impacts that are beneficial to society.
- ***Principle 6:*** A test ought not to inflict harm by providing test-score information or social impacts that are inaccurate or misleading.

### ***D. Specifications and Guidelines***

The following specification of Bachman and Palmer (1996) format was maintained:

- ***Purpose:*** an explicit statement of how the test item/task should be used.
- ***Definition of the construct:*** a detailed description of the construct, or particular aspect of language ability, that is being tested. This includes the

inferences that can be made from the test scores, which overlaps with the purpose of the test.

- **Setting:** a listing of the characteristics (physical location, participants and time of administration) for the setting in which the test will take place.
- **Time allotment:** the amount of time allowed for completing a particular set of items or a task on the test.
- **Test rubric:** the test rubric facets are portrayed by Bachman and Palmer (1996) as those characteristics of the test that provide the structure for a particular test. These characteristics include: instructions and the structure of the test (e.g., how the test is organized), time allotment (e.g., the duration of the test as a whole and of the individual tasks), and scoring procedures (e.g., how the language that is used will be evaluated, or scored).
- **Input:** the input facets examine the format in which input is presented and the characteristics of the language that are embodied in the input. The format includes features such as channel, form, language, length, type, degree of 'speededness', and vehicle of input delivery, while the language characteristics include both organizational and pragmatic characteristics of how the language is organised.
- **Instructions:** a listing of the language to be used in the directions to the test takers for that particular item/task.
- **Characteristics of the input and expected response:** essentially a description of what will be presented to the test taker and what they will be expected to do with it.
- **Scoring methods:** a description of how the test taker response will be evaluated.

### ***E. Access***

Access of a test can be used as part of the test analysis when the following evidence is collected.

- **Educational access:** This refers to whether a test is accessible to test takers in terms of *opportunity to learn* the content and to become familiar with the types of tasks and cognitive demands.

- **Financial access:** This refers to whether a test is financially *affordable* to test takers.
- **Geographical access:** This refers to whether a test site is accessible in terms of distance to test takers.
- **Personal access:** here refers to whether a test offers certified test takers with physical and learning disabilities with appropriate test accommodations. The 1999 *Standards* and the *Code* (1988) calls for accommodation in order that test takers who are disabled are not denied access to tests that can be offered without compromising the construct being measured.
- **Conditions or equipment access:** This refers to whether test takers are familiar with to test taking equipment (such as computers), procedures (such as reading a map) and conditions (such as using planning time).

## F. Social consequences

The social consequences of a test can be used as part of the test fairness framework when evidence regarding the following need to be collected:

- **Washback:** This refers to the effect of a test on instructional practices, such as teaching, materials, learning, test taking strategies, etc.
- **Remedies:** This refers to remedies offered to test takers to reverse the detrimental consequences of a test such as re-scoring and re-evaluation of test responses, and legal remedies for high-stakes tests. The key fairness questions here are whether the social consequences of a test and/or the testing practices are able to contribute to societal equity or not and whether there are any pernicious effects due to a particular test or testing programme.

## Appendix-3E

### Test Evaluation Principles and Guidelines

#### A. Validity and Reliability

**Validity:** Validity of a test score interpretation can be used as part of the TFF when the following evidence is collected.

- **Criterion-related validity evidence-** this type of evidence (sometimes described as *criterion validity*) refers to whether the test scores under consideration meet criterion variables such as school or college grades and on the job-ratings or some other relevant variable.
- **Concurrent validity-** the test scores correlate with a recognized external criterion which measures the same knowledge or ability.
- **Construct validity-**the extent to which a test measures the construct it intends to measure.
- **Content validity-** the extent to which test content represents the course of study.
- **Face validity-** the extent to which users consider a test to be an acceptable measure of the ability they wish to measure.
- **Predictive validity-**the extent to which tests result be considered as a measure for real-life or indicator of proficiency in English.

**Reliability:** This type of evidence refers to the reliability or consistency of test scores in terms of consistency of scores among different testing occasions (describes as *stability* evidence), among two or more different forms of a test (*alternate form* evidence), among two or more raters (*inter-rater* evidence), and in the way test items measuring a construct functions (*internal consistency* evidence).

- **Relevance:** the extent to which it is necessary that students are able to perform the tasks.

**Authenticity:** the extent to which the situation and the interaction are meaningful and representative in the world of the individual user.

**Balance:** each relevant topic/ability receives an equal amount of attention.

### ***B. Testing of language skills***

1. To what extent different skills (e.g. listening, speaking, reading and writing) of English language are tested in the HSC examination?
2. To what extent the linguistic elements (e.g. vocabulary items, grammar, etc) are tested in the HSC Examination?
3. To what extent the inherent knowledge are tested?
4. Is the HSC examination in English a reliable test?
5. Is the HSC examination in English a valid test?
6. To what extent the testee was able to complete his/her role in the communicative task assigned?

### ***C. Principle***

The following general principles are maintained:

- ***Principle 1:*** A test ought to be fair to all test takers, that is, there is a presumption of treating every person with equal respect.
- ***Principle 2:*** A test ought to have comparable construct validity in terms of its test-score interpretation for all test takers.
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### ***D. Specifications and Guidelines***

The following specification of Bachman and Palmer (1996) format was maintained:

- ***Purpose:*** an explicit statement of how the test item/task should be used.
- ***Definition of the construct:*** a detailed description of the construct, or particular aspect of language ability, that is being tested. This includes the

inferences that can be made from the test scores, which overlaps with the purpose of the test.

- **Setting:** a listing of the characteristics (physical location, participants and time of administration) for the setting in which the test will take place.
- **Time allotment:** the amount of time allowed for completing a particular set of items or a task on the test.
- **Test rubric:** the test rubric facets are portrayed by Bachman and Palmer (1996) as those characteristics of the test that provide the structure for a particular test. These characteristics include: instructions and the structure of the test (e.g., how the test is organized), time allotment (e.g., the duration of the test as a whole and of the individual tasks), and scoring procedures (e.g., how the language that is used will be evaluated, or scored).
- **Input:** the input facets examine the format in which input is presented and the characteristics of the language that are embodied in the input. The format includes features such as channel, form, language, length, type, degree of 'speededness', and vehicle of input delivery, while the language characteristics include both organizational and pragmatic characteristics of how the language is organised.
- **Instructions:** a listing of the language to be used in the directions to the test takers for that particular item/task.
- **Characteristics of the input and expected response:** essentially a description of what will be presented to the test taker and what they will be expected to do with it.
- **Scoring methods:** a description of how the test taker response will be evaluated.

### ***E. Access***

Access of a test can be used as part of the test analysis when the following evidence is collected.

- **Educational access:** This refers to whether a test is accessible to test takers in terms of *opportunity to learn* the content and to become familiar with the types of tasks and cognitive demands.

- **Financial access:** This refers to whether a test is financially *affordable* to test takers.
- **Geographical access:** This refers to whether a test site is accessible in terms of distance to test takers.
- **Personal access:** here refers to whether a test offers certified test takers with physical and learning disabilities with appropriate test accommodations. The 1999 *Standards* and the *Code* (1988) calls for accommodation in order that test takers who are disabled are not denied access to tests that can be offered without compromising the construct being measured.
- **Conditions or equipment access:** This refers to whether test takers are familiar with to test taking equipment (such as computers), procedures (such as reading a map) and conditions (such as using planning time).

## F. Social consequences

The social consequences of a test can be used as part of the test fairness framework when evidence regarding the following need to be collected:

- **Washback:** This refers to the effect of a test on instructional practices, such as teaching, materials, learning, test taking strategies, etc.
- **Remedies:** This refers to remedies offered to test takers to reverse the detrimental consequences of a test such as re-scoring and re-evaluation of test responses, and legal remedies for high-stakes tests. The key fairness questions here are whether the social consequences of a test and/or the testing practices are able to contribute to societal equity or not and whether there are any pernicious effects due to a particular test or testing programme.

## Appendix-3F

### Answer Scripts Analysis Guidelines and Checklist

#### A. Principles and Guidelines for answer scripts evaluation (Based on Morrow, 1991; Brown, 2003; and Li, 2009)

1.	Evaluation has two components: information of achievement or performance, and a standard that provides a base for measuring.
2.	In a fundamental sense, evaluation means placing a value on some entity thus expressing an indication of its worth.
3.	Answer scripts evaluation can no more be a totally rational process than instruction.
4.	Examiners' sensitivity and values are inevitable factors in the effectiveness of their evaluations.
5.	Evaluation is one of three major components of teaching, along with planning and instruction.
6.	Evaluation of scripts has been described as one of the components of teaching..
7.	The answer scripts evaluation process requires deliberation in a number of important areas.
8.	The evaluation process also typically considers a range of general areas relating to task performance: level of difficulty, task clarity, timing, layout, degree of authenticity, amount of information provided, and familiarity with the task format.
9.	Communicative language tests can be evaluated in terms of their performance within specific learning contexts.
10.	The evaluation process involves analyzing test results in light of both test specifications and program objectives.

## B. Analysis Checklist

1.	Who are involved in the scoring/marking of the HSC EFL answer scripts?
2.	Are there any guidelines for scoring the answer scripts in English?
3.	Is there any arrangement of training for examiners to examine and marking the scripts?
4.	Are the examining and marking procedures reliable?
5.	Is the answer scripts evaluation valid?
6.	How long does an examiner take to examine a script?
7.	Which skills and linguistic elements are examined comfortably?
8.	Which are the maximally attempted questions?
9.	Which are the high scoring items/questions?
10.	Which items/questions are answered first by the students?
11.	What is the highest score of the students?
12.	What is the lowest score of <b>the students?</b>
13.	To what extent does the score vary from examiner to examiner?
14.	<b>Do the scores of the testees reflect their performance in English?</b>
15.	Are the examiners biased?

## Appendix- 4A

### Interview Questions for EFL Teachers

<b>Before and during the classroom observation:</b>	
1.	Do you tell me something about your language learning experience?
2.	Do you say something about yourself, such as your educational background and teaching experience?
<b>EFL Teacher Interview Questions (After the classroom observation):</b>	
3.	Would you please describe your experience following the HSC English Syllabus?
4.	What do you think of the clarity of the national HSC Syllabus? Is it clear and easy to follow? If not, why not?
5.	What do you think of the practicality of the syllabus in terms of your language teaching? Is it practical for you to use? If not, why not?
6.	How appropriate is the HSC English syllabus and curriculum for your teaching context?
7.	To what extent do you think the textbooks accurately represent the HSC English Syllabus and curriculum? If not, where are they lacking?
8.	What is the benefit of the College English Test from your perspective as a teacher?
9.	What impact, if any, does the College English test have on your classroom teaching?
10.	What impact, if any, does the College English test have on your students' learning?
11.	How do you actually conduct your classroom teaching to achieve the objectives stated in the official syllabus?
12.	How much support do you receive from your department head regarding how you teach College English?
13.	What kinds of support would you like to receive from your department head in your teaching of College English?
14.	What are the most challenging aspects that you face regarding implementing the College English Curriculum?
15.	What is the rationale for you to conduct your class in English / in Bengali?
16.	Why do you organize your classroom activities that allow your students to work with their peers / to work alone?

## Appendix- 4B

### Interview Questions for Examiners

1.	Can you describe your background as an English examiner?
2.	How long have you been an examiner of English?
3.	Do you enjoy examining the scripts?
4.	Have you received any training for examining the scripts?
5.	Are you provided with any written guidelines on evaluation?
6.	Are you influenced by any interference and external pressure?
7.	Do you believe that the HSC examination reflects the goals and objectives of the HSC English curriculum?
8.	How long do you take to examine a script?
9.	Why do you take so little/much time?
10.	Do you think that the present EFL test is a valid test?
11.	Do you think the HSC examination in English is a reliable test?
12.	Do you think that the test scores of the HSC examination are an appropriate indicator of a students' proficiency in English?
13.	What difficulties do you face while examining the scripts?
14.	Do you think that the present EFL test helps enhance EFL teaching and learning?
15.	Do you think learning a language is to accumulate the knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, structures and rules?
16.	What are the major shortcomings of the present EFL test in terms of items and contents?
17.	Do you think that the present examination should be modified or revised?
18.	What are your suggestions for the improvement of the test?

## Appendix- 4C

### Interview Questions for Curriculum Specialists

1.	Do you think the present HSC English syllabus is well-suited to developing communicative competence in English language?
2.	What was the rationale for changing/modification of the old HSC English syllabus of 1990 version?
3.	What changes have been made to the syllabus since then?
4.	How appropriate is the HSC English syllabus for the Bangladesh teaching context?
5.	How practical is the HSC English syllabus for the HSC English language teaching and learning?
6.	To what extent does the NCTB expect the colleges to follow the syllabus?
7.	How is the syllabus communicated to future education?
8.	Has the HSC examination in English a positive influence on teaching (e.g., they help focus teaching, provide feedback on teaching)
9.	To what extent does the NCTB intend to get teachers involved in the development/modification of the syllabus?
10.	To what extent does the authority take into account teachers' language proficiency when delivering the syllabus?
11.	How is the intended curriculum interpreted by the classroom teachers?
12.	Do you think the present HSC English syllabus and curriculum developed in 2000 requires modification?
13.	What is your opinion on the present examination system?
14.	Do you think the results of the HSC examination in English indicate reasonable level of competence in English of the students?
15.	Do you think the HSC examination is a valid and reliable test?

## **Environment and Its Impact on Students Learning in Primary Schools in District Peshawar**

**Nazish Farid  
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Kiramata Shah  
Fatima Shams**

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### **Abstract**

The study was descriptive in nature. The study was an attempt to find out effective Learning environment and its impact on Students Learning in primary schools in District Peshawar Pakistan. The objectives of the study were: 1. To find out the elements of effective learning environment. 2. To find out the impact of effective learning environment on the students learning. 3. To suggest the measures of creating effective learning environment.

The research questions were: What are the elements of effective learning environment? How the effective learning environment has impact on the students learning? What are those measures which create effective learning environment? 20 out of public primary schools were selected as Sample in district Peshawar, 10 principals from female primary schools & 10 principals from male primary schools were selected randomly. The tools of the study were: the questionnaire from the principals. The collected data was analyzed using the predetermined tools mean and standard deviation. The recommendations made were that School should create learning environment through providing physical facilities so that students feel easy to come to school. School safety measures should be taken to create fearless learning environment. School policies and management should be strong enough to develop conducive learning environment. Proper furniture and seating arrangement along with proper space and ventilation should be provided by the school to make learning effective. It should be focused on the professional qualification of the teachers. It is the dire need to create Collaborative and encouraging environment so that students show interest in learning. School and staff discipline should be

maintained that is quite essential to make students disciplined. Collegiality and team work should be promoted among the teaching staff and the principal because it enhances conducive learning environment. Motivated staff can arouse motivation among the learners which helps to show good results. Parents as well as community involvement is required for healthy learning environment.

**Key Words:** environment, academic performance, primary education.

## **Introduction**

Children and adolescents spend many crucial years of their lives at school. During the school year, children can spend 6 to 8 hours at the school where the environment plays a significant/critical role in child development. More of the time is spent in the school yard or travelling to and from school. This condition requires careful planning and designing to optimize experiences that support education and health. Therefore, the school environment is of paramount importance in shaping and reshaping intellectual ability, fosters motivation, collaboration, creativity, positive learning experiences, achievement levels, and a positive psychosocial development for everyone. Byoung-suk, K. (2012) stated that children need safe, healthy and stimulating environment in which to grow and learn. However, supportive and favorable school environment enriched with enough learning facilities, and favorable climate makes students more comfortable, more concentrated on their academic activities that resulted in high academic performance.

The forces of the environment begin to influence growth and development of the individual right from the womb of his mother. The educational process of development occurs in physical, social, cultural and psychological environment. A proper and adequate environment is very much necessary for a fruitful learning of the child. The favorable school environment provides the necessary stimulus for learning experiences. The children spend most of their time in school, and this school environment is exerting influence on performance through curricular, teaching technique and relationship (Arul Lawrence A.S. 2012).

A large amount of a child's time is spent sitting in a school classroom. This place is where they learn the various skills deemed necessary and proper for them to achieve success in the global society. The classroom is where they will gain an understanding of their place in the

world and the gifts that they have to offer it. It is where the student develops what they want their future to look like, as well as knowledge of the skills needed to reach that goal.

With the classroom being such an important place in the growth of a child it is important to understand the ways in which to affect this environment in order to receive maximum effectiveness in instruction and students achievements. If schools really do play a large role in teaching the next generation how to be successful members of society then every precaution should be taken to make sure that the learning environment is one that helps students thrive.

Classroom learning environment is defined as the type of environment that is created for students by the school, teachers, and peers. Teachers are continually looking to create a "positive" classroom climate in which student learning is maximized. It is having an environment where students feel safe, nurtured, and intellectually stimulated. This type of positive classroom climate allows for students to meet their basic needs of physical and mental health. While there is no specific definition of what creates a negative classroom climate, it is considered to be one in which students feel uncomfortable, whether physically, emotionally, or academically, for any reason. (<http://wik.ed.uiuc.edu/index.php/Classroom>)

Norms, values, and expectations that support people feeling socially, emotionally and physically safe. People are engaged and respected. Students, families and educators work together to develop, live, and contribute to a shared school vision. Educators' model and nurture attitudes that emphasize the benefits and satisfaction gained from learning each person contributes to the operations of the school as well as the care of the physical environment.

A classroom climate refers to a composite of variables working together to promote learning in a comfortable environment in a classroom. Every classroom is unique because there is a wide range of variables that have an impact on the learning environment in a classroom. However, a number of elements are required for the establishment of a successful learning environment. The most important thing for a classroom is to create an atmosphere promoting learning. In order to achieve this atmosphere, every item in the classroom should emphasize learning in some way. (<http://www.questia.com/library/education>)

There are many things that can affect this environment. There are physical elements such as wall art, arrangement of desks, or resources. Also, there are intangible elements such as the energy of the classroom, the rules, or the sounds within the room. Each of these can impact a student's focus and achievement in the class. They can also affect a teacher's attitude in the class. Included in each of these elements of the classroom is the emotional environment. The way in which a teacher organizes their class, or how they control it, will yield positive or negative consequences for their students.

Earthman (2004) rates temperature, heating and air quality as the most important individual elements for student achievement. Two studies (Young et al, 2003; Buckley et al, 2004) mention the importance of these issues in reports which address the needs of particular US states' schools, while Fisher (2001) and Schneider (2002) similarly rate these factors as likely to affect student behaviour and outcomes. It is notable that air conditioning, ventilation and heating systems are found to contribute quite distinctly to the level of classroom noise (Shield & Dockrell, 2004).

Buckley et al. (2004) found that their 'overall compliance rating', which evaluates how well schools comply with health and safety requirements, such as organising fire safety, security, maintenance, etc., did contribute to the prediction of school averages on standardised achievement tests. The importance of the general school style and ethos is suggested by Tanner's (2000) observation that 'overall impression' was one of only four elements of his school design scale which on their own correlated significantly with academic achievement.

A more reliable finding is that chronic noise exposure impairs cognitive functioning and a number of studies have discovered noise-related reading problems (Haines et al, 2001b; Evans & Maxwell, 1997), deficiencies in pre-reading skills (Maxwell & Evans, 2000) and more general cognitive deficits (Lercher et al, 2003). As a result, reviews of the consequences of aspects of the physical environment tend to conclude that acoustics and noise are important factors in a school environment (Fisher, 2001; Schneider, 2002; Earthman, 2004).

Classroom management is another critical part of effective learning environment. Effective classroom management, which begins with efficient lesson planning preparation, helps teacher to teach and students to learn. Students thrive in a positive class climate and an environment in which they feel safe, cared for and involved. From a student perspective, effective classroom management provides students with opportunities to socialize while learning interesting content. From a teacher perspective, effective classroom management involves preventive discipline and interesting instruction. Similarly, Classroom Management is important for the students.

A notion about the management climate is projected by (Robinn,2008) that the organizational climate is the first thing resolute by the management, who determined the association with his/her subordinates. The study focused by insertion an emphasis that the in general climate resulted to motivation for achievement attainment, influence, and affection (Goodith, 2006). This study was consistent with a point of view that the organizational climate led to satisfaction, motivation, and attainments of an organization. They documented that the organization climate was the product of making understanding and creating good approach in the association. It reflected the authority of accepting the achievement of the organization (Sint, 2006).

Individual perceptions are also likely to be influenced by individual characteristics as well as the actual environment. It is considered to be important that teachers are able to communicate effectively with pupils, staff and parents. Effective communication is part of involving users and extending schools into the community. Good communication within a school seems to be part of creating an environment that is conducive to success. Schools as communicators in the community have dual, not necessarily compatible roles: presenting themselves positively and promoting links with, and understanding among, with parents. A study of disruptive behaviour in a particular school found that both pupils and teachers often explained problem behaviour in terms of failures of communication, with teachers advocating more discussion and improved relationships as ways to improve the situation. Teachers' effective communication has profound impact on students' behavior as well as learning. Such interactions, and communication, will be influential in ratings using classroom environment evaluation, since

they are important components of the ‘involvement’. A final sort of communication within schools is that between members of the complete school staff, and its importance is suggested by the findings of Buckley et al (2004).

A document prepared by policy studies association (PSA) reviewed in 2014 in Washington D.C. indicated that students achievement is more heavily influenced by teacher quality than by students’ race, class, prior academic record or school a student attend. This effect is particularly strong among students from low-income families and African-American students. The benefit being taught by good teachers are cumulative. Research indicated that the achievement gap widens each year between students with most effective teachers and those with less effective teachers. It suggests that the most significant gains in student achievement will likely be realized when students receive instruction from good teachers over consecutive years.

The systematic study of school climate has led to a growing body of research that attests to its importance in a variety of overlapping ways, including social, emotional, intellectual and physical safety development; mental health, and healthy relationships. This is the need of the time to explore the suitable and fruitful school learning environment for the comprehension of its effects in different types. Administrators in the field of education in past focused the rigid behavior dimension which was closely related to close climate or task oriented climate while in the same sense some administrators focused the flexible or improved climate. Way of administration by heads of institutions was highlighted as friendly or open climate, task-oriented or individual-oriented, authority-oriented or community oriented climate.

School Climate has a significant impact on a school’s passing percentage. Gains in school climate are associated with positive gains for all subject areas school environment influences the students’ attendance, disciplinary incidents, learning behavior and attitude etc. Staff morale is a crucial aspect of the learning environment.

The subject of effective learning environment has engendered a host of conversations that occur at the intersection of the design of physical spaces, the appropriate technology with which to populate newly configured spaces and the impact such spaces have on how faculty teach and

students learn in them. Given the nascent character of this field of study, scholars and practitioners have been engaged in a concerted effort to develop theoretical models, to formulate a common terminology, to encourage rethinking pedagogical approaches and to develop effective assessment and evaluation tools related to learning spaces. For all that has been written on the subject however, there is a dearth of systematic, empirical research being conducted on the impact of effective learning environment on teaching and learning outcomes.

## **Literature Review**

There are several aspects of organizations that play significant role in its smooth functioning and success. Beside temporary incentives, educational level, social recognition, good administration and experienced and qualified staff of a school, its climate and learning environment are also very imperative factors for its successful functioning.

According to Greenberg et al. (2003), plentiful aspects of a school's social and physical environment include its climate. Solitary organization accredited the subsequent eight areas: 1. Manifestation. 2. Associations of faculty. 3. Student interactions. 4. Decision making/ headship. 5. Intimately proscribed environment. 6. Learning milieu. 7. Culture and Attitude. 8. Relations with School community.

An educator, Richard Reginald Green, if we have any chance to guarantee a positive bridge to the 21st century, it is how we educate the children in the classroom today.” John F. Kennedy said, “Our progress as a nation can be no swifter than our progress in required for the establishment of a successful learning environment. The most important thing for a classroom is to create an atmosphere promoting learning. In order to achieve this atmosphere, every item in the classroom should emphasize learning in some way.

(<http://www.questia.com/library/education/classroom-management/classroom-climate> )

According to Miller and Fredericks (2010), the school climate is the consciousness of members in a school about the work arrangement, uniqueness of each person in the school

supports dependability, ingenuousness, equality, remuneration, eradication of danger, disagreement, and harmony of people in the school.

Eric, S. (2005) in an article the role of the supportive school environment in promoting academic success postulates that the school environment has broad influence on students' learning and growth, including a significant aspect of their social, emotional and ethical development. When students find their school environment supportive and caring, they are less likely to become involved in substance abuse, violence and other problem behaviour. The research indicated that supportive schools foster these positive outcomes by promoting students sense of connectedness, belongingness or community. These terms are used interchangeably here to refer to students' sense of being in a close, respectful relationship with peers and adult at school. Therefore, building in a school community is a means of fostering academic success. Students who experience their school as a caring community become more motivated, ambitious and engage in their learning. In particular, students' active connection with teachers and their perceptions that teachers care about them are what stimulate their effort and engagement.

Another research by Oworye, J.S. (2011) showed that there is a significant difference between the academic achievement of students in rural and urban secondary schools as measured by senior school certificate examinations. To him, the geographical location of schools has a significant influence on the academic achievement of students. Also he pointed out that uneven distribution of resources, poor school mapping, facilities, problem of qualified teachers refusing appointment or not willing to perform well in isolated villages, lack of good road, poor communication, and nonchalant attitude of some communities to school among others are some of the factors contributed to a wide gap between rural and urban secondary schools. Schools located in rural areas lack qualified teachers. It is because, they do not want going to rural areas that lack social amenities. They prefer to stay in urban schools. It is also observed that a lot of coaching of urban students is done to prepare them for public examinations, thus promoting the spirit of competition and rivalry that may be lacking in the rural pupils, probably, owing to limitations in exposure and experience. Also, the study has proven that students in urban areas had better academic achievement than their rural counterpart. In other word, students in urban

locations have a very advantage of favourable learning environment that apparently enhance their academic performance.

A research by Sunday, A.A. (2012) revealed that there is a significant relationship between physical school environment and students' academic performance in senior secondary school physics. To him, the physical school environment has some influences on students' academic achievement in senior secondary school physics. The physical facilities, human resources, and the relationship among them determine the physical environment of the school. The result indicated that students with adequate laboratory facilities in physics perform better than those in school with less or without facilities, this simply because laboratory forms part of enrich the physical school environment. It was also discovered that poor facilities and inadequate space, as well as the arrangement of items including seats in the classroom, library and laboratory, would affect the organisation of learning environment. Favourable school climate gives room for students to work hard and enhance their academic achievement.

Numerous researches have explored positive effect on the achievement of students with teacher's collaboration under the open climate vision of heads. Heads of institutions affect directly organizational and academic performance of teachers which resulted to affect students' achievement. The educators as well as administrators in social organizations also affect the outcomes of the learners. Though, it is understandable from many researches that direct affect of heads on students' achievement looks beyond the reality in learning process.

The classroom still remains to be the main learning environment in the schools although learning can take place in other venues. On this premise, it is imperative that educators strive to make the classroom the best venue for students to attain their full potential in academic performance.

According to Andy Hargreaves and Michael Fullon, "It is what teachers think, what teachers do and what teachers are at the level of the classroom that ultimately shapes the kind of learning that young people get." On the impact of the classroom atmosphere, Haim Ginott said, "I've come to the frightening conclusion that I am the decisive element in the classroom. It's my personal approach that creates the climate. It's my daily mood that makes the weather. As a

teacher, I possess tremendous power to make a student's life miserable or joyous. I can be a tool of torture or an instrument of inspiration. I can humiliate or humor, hurt or heal. In all situations it is my response that decides whether a crisis will be escalated or de-escalated and a student humanized or de-humanized.” So, classroom climate is so much influenced by the teacher’s daily mood and is so much affecting the student’s academic standing in the classroom. Much have been written about the educational phenomenon that it becomes an issue of concern among educators.

Other writers have argued that teachers’ beliefs and perceptions are crucial (Deemer, 2004) and that many effects of the environment are likely to be mediated through morale within the school (Schneider, 2003; Clark, 2002). Cooper asked primary school teachers about their school buildings and argues that ‘whether physical environments are themselves capable of disabling education, teachers’ belief in their capacity to do so could prove self-fulfilling. For it could act to lower their morale and motivation, so eroding their commitment to teaching’ (1985, p.267-8).

PricewaterhouseCoopers (2000) consider staff morale to be of key importance while Berry (2002) found there were improvements in attitude among all users after a school was physically improved. Such improvements can be seen as resulting from the physical changes to the environment which then contribute to the overall learning environment experienced by everybody.

It is possible to consider the fundamental aspects of the physical environment, such as heating, lighting and acoustics, as well as the overall design of the school, which will encompass these aspects. Since some of these physical ‘basics’ have been researched in isolation, it seems reasonable to look at them first in this manner. Many reviews of the effect of the physical school environment on learning (eg, Fisher, 2001; Earthman, 2004; Schneider, 2002; Clark, 2002; Weinstein, 1979; Gump, 1987) consider previous research in a similar way and point out that some of the more definite conclusions within this area can be drawn about the effects of these underlying physical characteristics (Schneider, 2002). However, it is important to remember that all these features contribute to the educational environment

## **Objectives of the Study**

1. To find out the elements of effective learning environment
2. To find out the impact of effective learning environment on the students learning.
3. To suggest the measures of creating effective learning environment.

## **Research Questions of the Study**

1. What are the elements of effective learning environment?
2. How the effective learning environment has impact on the students learning?
3. What are those measures which create effective learning environment?

## **Methodology**

The research design for this study is descriptive survey research design. The data were collected through questionnaires from twenty secondary schools principals of district Peshawar including ten male and ten female secondary schools principals. The questionnaires were administered and data were collected in person by the researcher.

## **Population & Sample**

The population of study was all primary schools both male and female of district Peshawar. The sample was selected randomly and total 20 primary schools were selected, i-e 10 male and 10 female primary schools.

## **Research Instrument**

A questionnaire was developed and pilot tested for validation before its administration for data collection from the sampled principals.

## Data Analysis

Sr N o	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean Score
1	School climate provides base for effective learning.	15 75	4 16	1 3	0 0	0 0	4.7
2	Professional qualification can enhance school best environment.	10 50	7 28	1 3	1 2	1 1	4.2
3	School facilities can improve best school discipline.	19 95	1 4	0 0	0 0	0 0	4.95
4	Effective school environment can improve good school results.	19 95	1 4	0 0	0 0	0 0	4.95
5	School physical facilities affect students learning.	20 100	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	5
6	Teachers' use of various teaching techniques in class improves students learning.	10 50	4 16	2 6	2 4	2 2	3.9
7	Disciplined environment in a school has great impact on students' behavior.	15 75	4 16	1 3	0 0	0 0	4.7
8	Classroom management affects students learning behavior.	15 75	4 16	0 0	1 2	0 0	4.65
9	Collegiality between staff and principal creates favorable schools' climate and	15	5	0	0	0	4.75

	their activities help& motivate students.	75	20	0	0	0	
10	Association of parents, school principal, teachers and other members from community promotes healthy learning environment.	17	3	0	0	0	4.85
		85	12	0	0	0	
11	Supportive and motivational school environment enables students to concentrates on academic performance.	19	1	0	0	0	4.95
		95	4	0	0	0	
12	Teachers'encouragementaffect their results.	20	0	0	0	0	5
		100	0	0	0	0	
13	Friendly school environment motivates students towards learning.	18	2	0	0	0	4.9
		90	8	0	0	0	
14	Teachers' team work creates healthy learning environment.	18	2	0	0	0	4.9
		90	8	0	0	0	
15	Effective management and policies of school enhance school success.	19	1	0	0	0	4.95
		95	4	0	0	0	

## Discussions

Data analysis based on the Likert type questionnaire, the principals' responses to the items were scored as follows: strongly agree-5, agree-4, undecided-3, and disagree-2, strongly disagree-1, for positive items and reversed for negative ones. The analysis of the data was done into Mean score values. The means scores show that majority of the respondent agreed with the statement that School climate provides base for effective learning hence mean score is 4.7. This

statement that Professional qualification can enhance school best environment is agreed by many respondents as mean score is 4.2. Similarly majority of the respondent are agreed with the statement that School facilities can improve best school discipline which affects students' learning, as mean score is 4.95. Mean value of 4.95 shows that mostly principals are agreed that effective school environment can improve good school results. Mean score of 5 reveals that principals are strongly agreed that School physical facilities affect students learning. The means scores of 3.9 shows that the respondent agreed with the statement that Teachers' use of various teaching techniques in class improves students learning. Mean value of 4.7 expresses that majority of the respondent agreed with the statement that Disciplined environment in a school has great impact on students' behavior. 4.65 Mean value of the statement of Classroom management affects students learning behavior clearly shows the principals' agreement of the statement. Most of the respondents agreed upon this that Collegiality between staff and principal creates favorable schools' climate and their activities help & motivate students which is shown by 4.75 score. The given data result which is 4.85 shows that Association of parents, school principal, teachers and other members from community promotes healthy learning environment in school. The given data result of 4.95 Mean value shows agreement of the principals about that the Supportive and motivational school environment enables students to concentrates on academic performance. Mean score of 5 shows that most of the principals are strongly agreed that Teachers' encouragement affect the learners' results. Friendly school environment motivates students towards learning is another statement Effective management and policies of school enhance school success. Principals are agreed that Teachers' team work creates healthy learning environment. The given data result of 4.95 Mean value shows agreement of the principals about that the Effective management and policies of school enhance school success.

## **Recommendations**

The following Recommendations are advanced:

1. Teachers should create learning environment through applying modern teaching techniques in classroom so that it may meet the needs of the learning of the students.
2. School should create learning environment through providing physical facilities so that students feel easy to come to school.

3. School safety measures should be taken to create fearless learning environment for teachers and learners.
4. School policies and management should be strong enough to develop conducive learning environment.
5. Proper furniture and seating arrangement along with proper space and ventilation should be provided by the school to make learning effective.
6. School climate should be focused on the professional qualification of the teachers, so that teaching at primary level.
7. It is the dire need to create Collaborative and encouraging environment so that students show interest in learning at primary schools level.
8. School and staff discipline should be maintained that is quite essential to make students disciplined.
9. Collegiality and team work should be promoted among the teaching staff and the principal because it enhances conducive learning environment.
10. Motivated staff can arouse motivation among the learners which helps to show good results.
11. Parents as well as community involvement is required for healthy learning environment. Educators and faculties, which are compelled to keep up with all the advances in the related fields, to develop new learning curricula, environments and reasoning strategies.

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